

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Objectives of the Study

This study was aimed at investigating what Indonesian English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers (IETs)¹ thought, knew, and believed about the new professional teaching standards (PTS) in the context of the 2007 Indonesian Government's *Program Sertifikasi Guru (PSG)* [Teacher Certification Programs].

The PTS are contained in *Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional² Nomor 16 Tahun 2007 tentang Standar Kualifikasi Akademik dan Kompetensi Guru* (Ministry of National Education of the Republic of Indonesia (MNERI), 2007)³. This translates to the Minister of National Education⁴ Regulation Number 16 Year 2007 on Teachers' Academic Qualification and Competency Standards. Although it is often referred to as *Permendiknas Nomor 16 Tahun 2007*, I will refer to it in this thesis as *SKAKG 2007* for short. (See Appendix 1 for a translation and adaptation of *SKAKG 2007*.)

SKAKG 2007 is a standards document, essentially a document that contains statements of standards, to be referred to in *PSG* all over the country.

Unlike *PSG* that has received support and criticisms, even objections, from all corners as expressed in the Indonesian media since the programs took off in 2007, *SKAKG 2007* seems to have received less attention. If it was not for stating the minimum relevant qualification of *Srata Satu (S1)* [Bachelor] or *Diploma Empat (D4)* [Four-Year Diploma] (henceforth *S1/D4*) for teachers—a requirement that has affected many among Indonesia's approximately 2.5 million teachers—few people would have taken *SKAKG 2007* seriously.

¹ The rationale for using the term "IETs" is described in section 4.9.2.1.

² This is abbreviated as *Permendiknas*.

³ Indonesian laws, regulations, decrees or institutions appear many times in this thesis. Therefore, they are only referenced the first time they are mentioned in each chapter. Afterwards they will be referred to by their abbreviations or acronyms. The use of these abbreviations and acronyms is unavoidable due to the strict word limit rule that the thesis adheres to. Additionally, Indonesian is well known for having a very high number of acronyms and abbreviations due to the length of its words.

⁴ On the 18th of October, 2011, MNERI was renamed Ministry of Education and Culture of the Republic of Indonesia (MECRI). For consistency, however, the old name (MNERI) is retained in this thesis.

Many parties in the teaching profession in Indonesia seem to be oblivious of the second element that *SKAKG 2007* contains, that is, a detailed description of Teachers' Core Competency standards as well as some Subject Teachers' Competency standards for all subject teachers including IETs. If we are to consider Louden's (2000, p. 127) statement that "Standards are one half of a conceptual pair: standards and assessments", with the assumption that the current *PSG* is a teacher assessment effort, then the above situation is comparable to debating about how to operate a new home appliance, or why it does not work properly, without being bothered to read the user's manual.

SKAKG 2007 is a document to be reckoned with by educators, not only teachers, in Indonesia. It is Indonesia's answer to the international standards movement in education (SME). However, it is not the only educational standards document in the country. The institution responsible for developing educational standards, *Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan (BSNP)* [Board for National Education Standards] has so far developed 28 standards documents for various educational aspects. More importantly, it is instrumental in development of *PSG*, a major reform with the potential to change the way Indonesian teachers are educated, recruited, assessed, and developed.

It is important to know what *SKAKG 2007* means to teachers, IETs in particular, whose qualifications and competencies are prescribed in it. Specifically, *SKAKG 2007* came into being thanks to the Indonesian *Reform Movement*, whose many demands include decentralisation and empowerment, and to teacher professionalisation efforts, which call for, among other things, teachers' professional autonomy, discipline-/subject-specific expertise, improved welfare, and collegial professional development.

A number of questions about *SKAKG 2007* need addressing here. Do the required qualifications and competencies in it address the notions of teacher knowledge, skills, and dispositions described in the relevant bod(ies) of literature? If the answer is affirmative, then, have they been addressed sufficiently? To what extent does it reflect teacher professionalisation efforts? How much input from the teaching profession is contained in it? Can teachers understand the standards? Are its standards achievable? Are its standards

specific to the subject that a teacher teaches or are they generic? Despite its regulatory nature, can it be used for developmental (not necessarily for certification) purposes?

If the answers to these questions are negative, then what should be done to improve *SKAKG 2007*? Does it offer anything to teachers' professional associations? Is it a breakthrough in education or is it just another government regulation telling teachers what to do? These are just some of the many questions that need to be discussed with IETs in particular if we were to address the existence and effectiveness of *SKAKG 2007* in relation to that of IETs. This study intends to do just that.

Moreover, from a theoretical point of view, the topic of a study such as the present one is informed by at least two main bodies of literature, i.e. that of SME, particularly in language education, and that of teacher cognition theory, particularly language teacher cognition theory (LTC). This literature to date has not sufficiently addressed several fundamental questions. Two of them are: What is it about EL teachers that makes it necessary to consult them and include their perspectives in the PTS documents? What should we do with the rich body of knowledge we now have about what EL teachers think, know, and believe in ways that are accessible to them that they could use to improve their professionalism and competencies? This study aims to shed some light on these queries.

1.2. Research Questions

After consulting the literature on SME and LTC theory, taking into consideration the background of the topic under study, and synthesising the practical and theoretical questions described above, I eventually arrived at a central research question: *Are IETs capable of articulating their perspectives on crucial issues related to teacher professionalisation efforts and IET competencies that are recognised in the literature on SME and LTC theory?* This question is expanded into six subsidiary research questions:

- (1) What are IETs' perspectives on teacher professionalisation efforts in Indonesia?
- (2) Are IETs' perspectives on teacher professionalisation relevant to the theories and the practice and/or context of ELT?

- (3) Are there any elements in IETs' perspectives on teacher professionalisation that are unique to the Indonesian context?
- (4) What perspectives are IETs able to articulate about IET competencies?
- (5) Are IETs' perspectives on IET competencies relevant to the theories and practice and/or context of ELT?
- (6) Are there any elements in IETs' perspectives on IET competencies that are unique to the Indonesian context?

1.3 The Study

To seek answers to the above research questions, I have embarked on a *journey of discovery* to research IETs' perspectives on PTS in the context of *PSG* in Indonesia. The study involved 66 teacher respondents (henceforth referred to as "the teachers")⁵, who were all IETs, in the cities of Makassar in South Sulawesi Province, Padang in West Sumatra, and Malang in East Java. I employed semi-structured interviews and focus groups as data generation methods. Besides IETs, I also interviewed 29 key informants in the three cities and another 3 in the capital Jakarta in order to obtain additional contextual information relating to my research topics and queries. To analyse the data obtained from the two methods, I employed a qualitative approach.

1.4 Thesis Outline

The structure and content of the thesis following this introductory chapter is outlined as follows:

Chapter 2 provides the background for the study by situating it within the context of the educational reforms currently taking place in Indonesia. These are discussed in terms of two of the four major reforms. I refer to these as (1) systemic organisation based on the *Undang-undang Nomor 20 Tahun 2003 tentang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional (UU Sisdiknas 2003)* [Law Number 20 Year 2003 on National Education System] (State Secretariat of the Republic of Indonesia (SSRI), 2003) and (2) professionalisation of educators based on the

⁵ The rationale for using the term "the teachers" is described in section 4.9.2.2.

Undang-undang Nomor 14 Tahun 2005 tentang Guru dan Dosen (UUGD 2005) [Law Number 14 Year 2005 on Teachers and Lecturers) (SSRI, 2005b).

Chapter 3 examines the three bodies of literature referred to in this study. The first is the body of literature on SME which has given rise to the development of PTS around the world. SME eventually reached Indonesia in the mid-2000s and has affected Indonesia's educational landscape ever since. The second body of literature relates to SME in Indonesia. The third body of literature is on teacher cognition theory and its influence in language teaching and learning that has led to LTC theory.

Chapter 4 describes the methodology of the study. It restates the research questions and provides information about the research design, generation of data, analysis of data, and presentation of the results.

Chapter 5 is the first of four chapters in which the findings of the research are reported. The teachers' perspectives under the theme of teacher professionalisation in Indonesia are described under three sub-themes, namely the professional status of teaching and teaching of EFL in Indonesia, professional teaching standards, and teacher certification. This chapter serves to set the scene for the next three chapters (6, 7, and 8) that describe the teachers' perspectives on the three main areas of IET competencies.

Chapter 6 reports the teachers' perspectives on teacher knowledge. The notion is *What should IETs know to improve their students' English proficiency?* The knowledge is described under the themes of knowledge of English and related subjects, of EFL curriculum and pedagogy, of non-EFL subjects/subject matters, and of students, their background, and their learning.

Chapter 7 concerns the teachers' perspectives on IET skills. The notion is: *What should IETs be able to do to improve their students' English proficiency?* The skills are described under the themes of English language skills, planning skills, instructing skills, and assessing skills.

Chapter 8 reports the teachers' perspectives on teacher dispositions. It deals with the notion of *What should IETs be like or what values should they display to improve their*

students' English proficiency? These dispositions reflect the personal, moral, social, cultural, pedagogic, and professional values that they hold as teachers.

Chapter 9 discusses the findings from Chapters 5, 6, 7, and 8, relates them to the research questions in terms of theories, practice, and/or context of EFL teaching in which the teachers operate, and assesses whether any elements in the teachers' perspectives are unique to the Indonesian context of ELT. The conclusions comprise the major outcomes of the study, recommendations regarding policy initiatives and theoretical implications, limitations of the study, and suggestions for further studies.

Chapter 2

Background

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the background for the study by situating it within the context of the educational reforms currently taking place in Indonesia. These are discussed in terms of two of the four major reforms, namely systemic organisation and professionalisation of educators which gave rise to the enactment of the Minister of National Education Regulation Number 16 Year 2007 on Teachers' Academic Qualification and Competency Standards (*SKAKG 2007*) and the implementation of Teacher Certification Programs (*PSG*). These reforms are set against the backdrop of the *Reformasi* Movement.

2.2 The *Reformasi* Movement

This study of Indonesian English as a Foreign Language Teachers' (IETs') perspectives on Professional Teaching Standards (PTS) was carried out in an atmosphere of dynamic change in Indonesian education. The change has been one of the results of *Gerakan Reformasi* (Reform Movement) of the late 1990's that saw Indonesia's transformation from 32 years of authoritarianism under President Soeharto's centralised *Orde Baru* (New Order) regime (1967–1998) to becoming, since 1999, the world's third largest democracy after India and the United States of America (U.S.). The reform was marked, among other things, by four amendments to *Undang-undang Dasar Negara Republik Indonesia Tahun 1945 (UUD 1945* [Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia of 1945]). Prevented during the Soeharto era, the constitutional amendments were made¹ in 1999, 2000, 2001, and 2002, respectively (Asian Human Rights Commission (AHRC), 2011). (See Appendix 2 for the amendments.)

¹ Constitutional amendments are among the responsibilities of the *Majelis Permusyawaratan Rakyat Republik Indonesia (MPR RI* [People's Consultative Assembly of the Republic of Indonesia]), which consists of the members of both the *Dewan Perwakilan Rakyat (DPR RI* [House of Representatives]) and the *Dewan Perwakilan Daerah (DPD RI* [Regional Representative Council]).

The amendments prompted a substantive review of the legal frameworks in education. The most prominent of these was *Undang-undang Nomor 2 Tahun 1989 tentang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional (UU Sisdiknas 1989)* [Law Number 2 Year 1989 on National Education] (SSRI, 1989), which was enacted during the Soeharto era. It was then replaced by *Undang-undang Nomor 20 Tahun 2003 tentang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional (UU Sisdiknas 2003)* [Law Number 20 Year 2003 on National Education System]. (See Appendix 3 for a comparison between these two laws, illustrating the changes made to the current national education system.)

Thanks to its comprehensiveness and reform initiatives, *UU Sisdiknas 2003* has been the force behind a number of major educational reforms in Indonesia today. The reforms are concerned with at least four aspects. In my own words, the four themes are (1) decentralisation, (2) public participation, (3) systemic organisation, and (4) educators' professionalisation.

It was in this atmosphere of reform that this study was conducted with the participation of sixty-six IETs and thirty-two key informants. Working in the cities of Makassar in South Sulawesi Province, Padang in West Sumatra Province, and Malang in East Java Province, the teachers gave their perspectives on professional teaching standards for IETs, in response to the implementation of the above reforms. The three cities are known as major education centres representing three major islands, namely Sulawesi in Eastern Indonesia, Sumatra in Western Indonesia, and Java in the middle of the country and the seat of the Central Government.

2.3 The Major Reforms

Out of the four reforms mentioned above, two are most relevant as the background of this study as they have affected the teachers directly and profoundly. The two reforms are *systemic organisation* and *educators' professionalisation*. The latter, in particular, is the main focus of the study. The two themes are featured in this chapter to show their relevance to the teacher respondents' circumstances. This is not to say that reforms in *decentralisation* and *public participation* are less important. In fact, they have been the biggest achievements of

UU Sisdiknas 2003. (Brief descriptions of the *decentralisation* and *public participation* reforms are presented in Appendix 4.) The following two sections will focus on the reforms that are more central to the topic of this study, namely *systemic organisation* and *educators' professionalisation*.

2.3.1 Systemic Organisation (Based on *UU Sisdiknas 2003*)

The teachers who took part in the study were IETs at the following schools and *madrasahs*², referred to collectively in *UU Sisdiknas 2003* as *satuan pendidikan* (units of education)³.

These are:

- *sekolah dasar (SD)* [primary schools];
- *madrasah ibtidaiyah (MI)* [Islamic primary schools];
- *sekolah menengah pertama (SMP)* [junior high school] ;
- *madrasah tsanawiyah (MTs)* [Islamic junior high schools];
- *sekolah menengah atas (SMA)* [senior high schools];
- *madrasah aliyah (MA)* [Islamic senior high schools];
- *sekolah menengah kejuruan (SMK)* [vocational senior high schools], and

Most of the above units of education are government schools and *madrasahs*. Government schools are run principally by local governments but with additional support and direction from the MNERI. *Madrasahs* are run centrally by the Ministry of Religious Affairs (MORA) with little involvement of the local governments. Consequently, general school teachers are recruited by local governments and *madrasah* teachers by the MORA. However, only the MNERI is authorised to set the standards of the general schools and *madrasahs*. The MNERI may receive input from the MORA. As described in point d of sub-section 2.3.2.2., the certification of government and private general school teachers are conducted by state tertiary institutions (universities) and/or authorised private tertiary

² The term *madrasah* in Government documents seems to imply both Islamic schools and their “equivalents”, i.e. other schools for students of various religious persuasions recognised as official religions by the Government.

³ Other units of education mentioned in this thesis are *sekolah dasar luar biasa (SDLB)* [special primary schools]; *sekolah menengah pertama luar biasa (SMPLB)*; *sekolah menengah atas luar biasa (SMALB)* [special senior high schools]; *sekolah menengah kejuruan luar biasa (SMKLB)* [special vocational senior high school], and *madrasah aliyah kejuruan (MAK)* [Islamic vocational senior high school]. None of the teachers, however, taught in these units of education (see section 4 of Appendix 5).

institutions. These authorised universities are supervised by a government university. The certification of madrasah teachers is conducted by relevant Islamic tertiary institutions across the country.

Besides the categories above to describe schools and *madrasahs*, there are three other ways of describing units of education mentioned in *UU Sisdiknas 2003*. They are:

- *jalur pendidikan* (sectors of education), comprising formal, informal, and non-formal education;
- *jenjang pendidikan* (levels of education), consisting of basic, secondary, and tertiary education. (Note that basic education may be preceded by an Early Childhood Education (ECE) program, which has received official support but is not yet recognised as a separate level of education) (Rusmayadi,⁴ personal communication, 25 & 26 April 2011).
- *jenis pendidikan* (types of education), comprising general, vocational (secondary and tertiary), special, civil service, religious, academic, and professional education. (See Appendix 5 for a further description.)

Therefore, the schools and *madrasahs* mentioned above and all the other units of education are categorised by *UU Sisdiknas 2003* based on the sector(s) of education they are in, the levels of education they are on, and the types of education they belong to. In particular, the categories to which the teacher respondents' schools and *madrasahs* belong may be represented collectively as follows:

- Units of education: Schools; *Madrasahs*
- Sector of education: Formal
- Levels of education: Basic (primary and junior secondary⁵); Senior secondary
- Types of education: General; Vocational; Religious (Islamic).

Nevertheless, regardless of the categories, according to *UU Sisdiknas 2003*, a school or *madrasah* is not just a venue for teaching and learning to take place—as stated in *UU*

⁴ Lecturer in ECE at *Universitas Negeri Makassar* (UNM); member of the National Early-childhood Specialist Team (NEST) at MNERI.

⁵ In *UU Sisdiknas 2003*, basic education consists only of primary schools.

Sisdiknas 1989. Rather, it is one where an educational service is provided to members of the public. This implies that the service should be provided by professionals (the teachers) to their clients (the students) who represent members of the public attending education. It is these professional educators and their professionalisation that became the focus of *UUGD 2005*, a new law based on the most part on *UU Sisdiknas 2003*.

2.3.2 Educators' Professionalisation (Based on *UUGD 2005*)

UU Sisdiknas 2003 has revolutionised how Indonesian educators perceive themselves and should be perceived. It changes the term *tenaga pendidik/pengajar* (teaching staff) in *UU Sisdiknas 1989* into *pendidik* (educators) and labels them as *tenaga profesional* (professionals/professional personnel). In Articles 42 and 43, *UU Sisdiknas 2003* goes even further by stipulating the following points:

- Educators are required to have the minimum qualifications and certification according to the level of teaching authority, be physically and mentally healthy, and have the ability to realise the national education goal;
- Certification of educators is conducted by tertiary institutions that are running accredited teacher preparation programs.

(SSRI, 2003, p. 14; Tr.)⁶

The whole new way of portraying and perceiving teaching as a profession and educators as professionals then gave rise to the enactment in 2005 of *UUGD 2005*. This new legal framework outlines 12 aspects in relation to teachers and lecturers as professional educators, namely:

- Status, function, and objective;
- Principles of professionalism;
- Qualifications, competencies and certification (including academic positions for lecturers)
- Rights and obligations;
- Occupational obligations and civil service bond;
- Appointment, assignment, transfer, and dismissal;
- Coaching and development;
- Awards;
- Advocacy;
- Leave of absence;
- Professional organisations and code of conduct;
- Sanctions.

(Adapted from SSRI, 2005b; Tr.)

⁶ Tr. constitutes my translation.

While most of the aspects listed above are not new to many people, some of them are. Aspects such as principles of professionalism, qualifications, competencies and certification, as well as professional organisations are relatively, if not completely, new. All the aspects above, however, apply to both teachers and lecturers, who, for the first time, are formally distinguished from each other by law. As the present study is concerned with IETs and not with lecturers, the following sections will focus on teachers based on *UUGD 2005*.

2.3.2.1 Teachers in *UUGD 2005*

Even though the Sanskrit word *guru* (teacher) refers to all kinds of educators in the Indonesian language, *UUGD 2005* has given it a specific definition along with other attributes. A teacher is defined in Point 1 of Article 1 as “a professional educator whose main duties are to educate, teach, guide, direct, train, assess, and evaluate students of early childhood education in the formal education sector⁷; basic education; and secondary education” (SSRI, 2005b, p. 2; Tr.).

UUGD 2005 also delineates that a teacher has a “position”, and that the position has a “function” and “purpose”. In its Point 1, Article 2, it is stated that a teacher’s position is “that of a professional educator at primary and secondary education levels, as well as in early childhood education in the formal education sector, who is appointed to the occupation in accordance with existing regulations” (SSRI, 2005b, p. 4; Tr.).

The function of a teacher’s position is stated in Article 4 of *UUGD 2005* as follows: “A teacher’s position has the function of improving the dignity and role of a teacher as an agent of learning and of increasing the quality of national education” (SSRI, 2005b, p. 5; Tr.).

The purpose of a teacher’s position, as stated in Article 6 of *UUGD 2005*, is “to carry out the national education system and realise the national education goal, namely to develop students’ potentials so that they become faithful and pious towards the One Supreme God, have noble character, are healthy, knowledgeable, skilled, creative, and independent, and become democratic and responsible citizens” (SSRI) 2005b, p. 5; Tr.).

⁷ This refers to teachers working in *formal* units of ECE, i.e. kindergartens. It does not refer to those working in informal units of ECE, i.e. playgroups and day care facilities, as they are not yet clearly regulated. Therefore, they are outside the scope of *UUGD*’s official definition of “teachers”.

In order for teachers to fulfill the above requirements, according to Articles 8–13 of *UUGD 2005*, teachers must be certified as professional educators (SSRI, 2005b, pp. 6–7). The law implies that certification must be undertaken by both pre-service and in-service teachers, but due to the infancy of the initiative, priorities are currently given to those teachers who are already on the job, teaching their respective subjects in public and private schools.

The remainder of this chapter will describe the certification programs for in-service teachers in Indonesia.

2.3.2.2 Teachers and PSG

The words on every Indonesian teacher's lips today are *Sertifikasi Guru* (Teacher Certification), which refers to *PSG*. Conducted as a nation-wide program since 2007, *PSG* has been an implementation of *UUGD 2005*, which was conceived based on *UU Sisdiknas 2003*. Additionally, *PSG* is an implementation of *Peraturan Pemerintah Nomor 19 Tahun 2005 tentang Standar Nasional Pendidikan (PP SNP 19/2005)* [Government Regulation Number 19 Year 2005 on National Education Standards] (SSRI, 2005a), which is also based on *UU Sisdiknas 2003*. *PSG* promises teachers who have been certified, among other things, an additional income in the form of a monthly allowance equalling their monthly salaries. This, however, does not apply to private school teachers who are only paid a set amount of money (currently Rp1.5 million, the equivalent of US \$150). Depending on their ranks and positions, teachers with the *Pegawai Negeri Sipil (PNS)* [Civil Servant] status across the country receive the same base salaries. However, teachers in a number of areas such as Papua and Kalimantan also receive additional incentives and allowances from the central and/or local governments.

A number of government and ministerial regulations and decrees have been issued since the enactment of the above legal frameworks (see Appendix 6 for a list of some of these regulations and decrees.) These documents have given *PSG* solid legal frameworks and guidance. They are fundamental due to the magnitude of *PSG* as a national program affecting more than 3.5 million teachers and thousands of assessors and staffers all over the

country, and costing the state billions of rupiah (Jalal et al., 2009, p. 170). One may argue that *PSG* is the largest and most costly nationwide teacher professional development program ever undertaken in Indonesia's 67-year history.

The regulations and decrees vary in scope, but they are primarily concerned with three aspects, namely:

- teachers and professionalism,
- teachers' qualifications and competencies,
- in-service teacher certification programs and administration.

These three aspects are described in detail in the next section. However, to begin with, the government's rationale for conducting *PSG* is described.

a. Rationale for *PSG*

The Indonesian Government's rationale for conducting *PSG* is described in only one source. Jalal et al. (2009), an official English-language publication⁸ titled *Teacher Certification in Indonesia: A Strategy for Teacher Quality Improvement*. This report was prepared by a team of Indonesian and international experts led by Professor Fasli Jalal, the then Director General for Higher Education at the MNERI, and to date it has been the *only* accessible quasi-academic piece of writing regarding *PSG*.

The justification for *PSG* is based on the Government's empirical data on four issues as described below.

- **Student Achievement**

The Government was concerned about the poor standard of achievement of the nation's students. Jalal et al. (2009) give example based on Indonesian students' achievements in the fields of mathematics and science on the international stage:

In terms of performance in mathematics, Indonesian students ranked 34 out of 45 countries surveyed in 2003. In 2007, this position dropped to 36 out of 49 countries surveyed. In science, Indonesian students were ranked 36 out of 45 countries surveyed in 2003, although the position improved slightly to 35 out of 49 countries in 2007. (p.5)

⁸ There is no Indonesian version of the report by Jalal et al. (2009). However, all the official documents regarding *PSG* are in Indonesian.

Additionally, a 2006 survey of 15-year old students by the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) showed that among 57 countries, Indonesia ranked 52 for science, 48 for reading, and 51 for mathematics (Jalal et al., 2009, p. 6).

With the premise that “quality teachers produce quality students”, Jalal et al. (2009) argue that the generally poor achievements above “can be attributed to the poor quality of teachers in Indonesia” (p.7).

- **Quality of Teachers**

There are two main reasons why Indonesian school teachers are described as being of poor quality: their academic backgrounds and their competencies. For example, on teachers’ academic qualifications, Jalal et al. (2009) note:

More than 60 percent of the total 2.78 million teachers have not reach [sic] the level of academic qualification of a four-year bachelor’s degree (*S1/D4*). In this group of teachers, the majority have either a *D2* (two-year diploma) or a senior secondary certificate qualification. Most teachers from this group (about 70 percent) teach in primary schools. (p.7)

In terms of competencies, the report says that the relatively low level of academic qualifications among Indonesian teachers is caused by the teaching profession’s unattractiveness to “the best and brightest candidates” (Jalal et al., 2009, p. 8). The evidence came in the form of the results of the national civil service teachers’ examination in 2004. There were approximately 1 million teacher candidates competing for 64,000 teaching positions in schools. The results showed that the teachers’ test performances in the 20 specified subjects were, on average, quite poor.

For example, for the positions of English Language (EL) teacher, there were 40 test questions for the applicants to answer. Their correct answers ranged from just 1 to 39, averaging 23.37 and, consequently, indicating a very wide quality differential among the candidates (Jalal et al., 2009, p. 9). Unfortunately, no details of the test questions, passing mark, and success rate of the tests were made available to me.

- **Teacher Salaries**

According to Jalal et al. (2009, pp. 9–12), teaching used to be regarded as a highly prestigious occupation between Independence in 1945 until the early 1970s. During this

period, only high-performing students were selected to be trained as teachers. With the expansion of the primary school program (*SD Inpres*)⁹ in the 1970s onward, the quality of teachers began to decline due to the large number of teachers needed to teach in primary schools. As a consequence, teachers' salaries declined with it.

To illustrate this, Jalal et al. (2009, p. 10) made a comparison between the salaries of Indonesian teachers and those in other countries in the 2004–2005 period. For example, in a year, an Indonesian primary school teacher's top salary is US \$3,941, while his Malaysian counterpart's is US \$18,798. An *SMP* teacher in Indonesia makes US \$2,913 a year in starting salary, while her Thai counterpart earns a starting salary of US \$5,902. An Indonesian *SMA* teacher earns US \$4,756 in top salary annually, while his or her Argentinian counterpart takes home US \$14,134. In other words, Indonesian teachers are significantly underpaid compared to teachers in comparable economies.

- **Teacher Workload**

Teacher workload is to do with supply of teachers. More teachers are concentrated in urban or rural areas than in remote areas. Interestingly, primary school teachers in remote areas work for an average of 29 hours a week, while their urban or rural counterparts work four hours less (24.9 hours) per week. Conversely, junior high school teachers in remote areas work fewer hours than their counterparts in urban and/or rural areas. (Jalal et al., 2009, pp. 12–13). Clearly, there needs to be a system that regulates how many hours a teacher is expected to work in a week.

b. Implementation of *PSG*

This section describes three important issues pertaining to the implementation of *PSG*.

- **Teachers and Professionalism**

As stated earlier in the introduction, *UUGD 2005* has made a clear technical definition of the word *guru* 'teachers'. The definition implies the importance of acknowledging teachers' professionalism through certification. Nevertheless, besides the certificates—or in order to

⁹ Primary schools (*SDs*) built under the auspices of *Instruksi Presiden* (Presidential Instruction).

obtain them—teachers must first of all “have the qualifications and competencies, be of good health mentally and physically, and be able to realise Indonesia’s national education goal” (SSRI, 2008, p. 3; Tr.).

The definitions above clearly distinguish teachers from *dosen* ‘lecturers’, who are defined in Point 2 of Article 1 as “professional educators whose main duty is to transform, develop, and disseminate knowledge, science, technology, and arts through education, research, and services to the community” (SSRI, 2005b, p. 2; Tr.). Moreover, while teachers’ official position is at the primary and secondary levels as well as formal ECE, that of lecturers is delimited to “the level of higher [tertiary] education” (SSRI, 2005b, p. 4; Tr.).

The *UUGD 2005* definition of the word *guru* is fundamental. It has affected the word semantically, as *guru* has been part of the Indonesian language and culture for centuries. Before *UUGD 2005*, *guru* was used both formally and informally to refer to anyone who is recognised for their teaching and/or educating role in society, including lecturers. Nevertheless, it has improved the image of teachers as it emphasises that teachers have a specific profession, like any other professionals.

Indonesian teachers’ professionalism is characterised by the following principles:

- a. having the talent, interest, calling, and idealism [to be teachers];
- b. having the commitment to improving the quality of education, faith, piety, and noble character [in students];
- c. having the academic qualifications and educational background relevant to the field of duty;
- d. having the necessary competencies in accordance with the field of duty;
- e. having the responsibility for conducting the professional duty;
- f. earning an income determined in accordance with work performance;
- g. having the opportunity to develop their professionalism in a sustainable manner through lifelong learning;
- h. having the guarantee of legal protection in carrying out the professional duty; and
- i. having a professional organisation that has the authority to regulate matters relating to the task of teacher professionalism.

(SSRI, 2005b, pp. 5–6; Tr.)

There are elements of the above principles that are in line with Nunan’s (2001, pp. 1–

2) four criteria for a form of employment to be regarded as a profession. They are:

1. the existence of advanced education and training;
2. the establishment of standards of practice and certification;
3. an agreed theoretical and empirical base; and
4. the work of individuals in the field to act as advocates for the profession.

It can be seen in the following sections on teachers' qualifications and competencies that the idea of at least three of Nunan's criteria is shared by the policies implementing the above principles.

- **Teachers' Qualifications and Competencies**

It was mentioned in the previous section that teachers need to have the academic qualifications and competencies in order to take part in *PSG* and then be recognised officially as professional educators. Guidelines about teachers' academic qualifications and competencies referred to in *PSG* are described in the following sections.

Teachers' Academic Qualifications. According to *Peraturan Pemerintah Nomor 74 Tahun 2008 tentang Guru (PP Guru 74/2008)* [Government Regulation Number 74 Year 2008 on Teachers] (SSRI, 2008, p. 1), academic qualifications refer to the minimum academic degrees/diplomas a teacher is required to obtain that is eligible for the types, levels, and units of education where he or she teaches. In general, teachers working in the formal education sector are required to have at least *S1/D4*.

In general, primary school teachers are required to obtain an *S1/D4* in *PGSD*¹⁰, Psychology, or Education Studies from an accredited tertiary department or study program (see section 4.1.1 of Appendix 5).

Teachers of specific subjects, such as EL, in junior high schools (*SMP/MTs/SMPLB*), senior high schools (*SMA/MA/SMALB*) as well as vocational senior high schools (*SMK/MAK/SMKLB*) are required to possess an *S1/D4* qualification. The qualification must be obtained from an accredited ELT Department or an ELT Study Program (see section 4.1.2 and 4.2 of Appendix 5).

Teachers of formal ECE in kindergartens (*PAUD*¹¹/*TK*¹²/*RA*¹³) are required to obtain a *S1/D4* qualification in ECE or Psychology. Either qualification must be completed in an accredited tertiary study program.

¹⁰ *Pendidikan Guru Sekolah Dasar* (Primary School Teacher Education Program) (see section 4.1.1 of Appendix 5).

¹¹ *Pendidikan Anak Usia Dini* (Early Childhood Education). This applies to such ECE facilities as daycare centres and playgroups.

¹² *Taman Kanak-kanak* (Kindergarten).

¹³ *Raudhatul Athfal* (Islamic Kindergarten); also represents all religious-based kindergartens.

Referring to Nunan's (2001) four criteria of a profession mentioned previously, the requirements above suggest that the Indonesian Government is aware of the importance of advanced education and training (criterion number 1) and the need to engage teacher-candidates in a theoretical and empirical base of teaching (criterion number 3).

Teachers' Competencies. In Point 2 of Article 2 of *PP Guru 74/2008*, teachers' competencies are described as "a holistic series of knowledge, skills, and dispositions that a teacher is required to have, internalise, master, and actualise in conducting his or her teaching duties". This definition combines the competencies outlined in *SKAKG 2007* and earlier pieces of legislation, e.g. *UUGD 2005*, in which competencies consist of:

- Pedagogic competencies;
- Personal competencies;
- Social competencies;
- Professional competencies.

Referring to Nunan's (2001) four criteria of a profession mentioned earlier, the four competencies above suggest that the Indonesian Government is aware of the importance of the second criterion, particularly regarding the establishment of standards of practice. The implementation of *SKAKG 2007* which outlines, among other things, the standards of Indonesian teachers' competencies covering the four sets of competencies above, reflects greater awareness of standardising of practice based on agreed best practice principles.

Thus, the promise of higher income, professional recognition, and career opportunities to those holding the Professional Educator Certificate from *PSG* has prompted Indonesian teachers to meet the required qualifications and competencies. Those who entered the profession decades ago holding a qualification lower than *S1/D4* are now attending undergraduate programs so that they can one day qualify for *PSG*. These teachers are those who graduated from such institutions as *Sekolah Pendidikan Guru (SPG)* [Teacher Training Senior High Schools] and diploma (*D1, D2, D3*)¹⁴ programs between the 1970s and 1990s. Generally, unqualified teachers pay for their own undergraduate courses. However, both the

¹⁴ *Diploma Satu (D1)* [One-year Diploma], *Diploma Dua (D2)* [Two-year Diploma], and *Diploma Tiga (D3)* [Three-year Diploma], respectively.

central and local governments do provide selected teachers with scholarships to pursue undergraduate and/or postgraduate degrees.

In addition, the competency requirements have created an atmosphere in which teachers try to obtain—sometimes by any means possible—the required documentary evidence of their competency, achievements, and/or participation to be eligible for *PSG*. For example, the teachers' need for evidence of participation in professional development programs has created a booming “seminar and workshop industry” in Indonesia, which refers to the organisations of one-day or weekend seminars and/or workshops. Targeted for teachers, these events are organised by educational institutions or professional or non-governmental organisations with invited speakers from academia, government, and the professions, who give a talk on education in general or the teaching or learning of a specific subject or area. Teachers are required to pay to join these events, and they get a “certificate of participation” in return. Teachers use such a certificate in the portfolios that they hand in for assessment in *PSG*, which will be described in the following sections.

c. The Programs in *PSG*

Teacher certification (*PSG*) is defined in Point 1 of Article 1 of *Permendiknas 10/2009 PSG* as “a process of conferring Educator Certificates to teachers who are carrying out the tasks of class teachers, subject teachers, guidance and counselling teachers, school counsellors, and teachers who are appointed as superintendents of a unit of education” (MNERI, 2009d, p. 2; Tr.; 2011a, p. 2; Tr.). As a legal framework for certifying in-service teachers, this official document delineates the assessment, criteria, and administration of *PSG*. It also paves the way for the necessary improvements in the implementation of *PSG*. One of the current initiatives has been the implementation of a pre-service teacher certification program which began in 2012.

Brief descriptions of the *PSG* programs are presented in the following sections in terms of its assessment and criteria and its administration.

- **Assessment and Criteria**

Until 2011, the assessment and criteria for *PSG* applied only to in-service teachers. Improvements made to the system has resulted in, among others, the inclusion of pre-service teachers in the certification system starting 2012.

In-service Teachers. In-service teachers participating in *PSG* are those who satisfy the academic qualification and competency requirements. Exceptions are made only for those who are yet to obtain the minimum academic qualifications (*S1/D4*), but are 50 years of age, have had a 20-year teaching experience, and have the *PNS 4/a* rank¹⁵, or have accumulated credit points equalling those obtained by the people on the *4/a* rank.

According to *Permendiknas 11/2011 PSG*, eligible in-service teachers may decide to be assessed in one of the following four ways:

- *Penilaian Portofolio*, henceforth referred to as *Portfolio Assessment*;
- *Program Pendidikan dan Latihan Profesi Guru Dalam Jabatan* (In-Service Professional Teacher Training Program), referred to as *In-service Training*;
- *Pemberian Sertifikat Pendidik secara Langsung* (Certification through Direct Conferral), referred to as *Direct Conferral*;
- *Program Pendidikan Profesi Guru bagi Guru Dalam Jabatan* (In-Service Professional Teacher Education Program), referred to as *In-service Education*.

In *Portfolio Assessment*, a participating teacher submits a portfolio consisting of documents that serve as evidence of his or her fulfilment of the four competencies, i.e. pedagogic, personal, social, and professional competencies. The portfolios are assessed by *PSG* assessors who are recruited from among university lecturers. They have passed an assessors' selection process and are officially assigned to carry out assessments of portfolios under the administration of the local/regional Teacher Certification (*PSG*) Centre. The portfolios are assessed based on the principle of *subject-specific pedagogy*, meaning

¹⁵ Ranks for *PNS-status* teachers are as follows (from the lowest to the highest): *2/a, b, c, d* (recruited as *D2* or *D3* holders to teach in primary schools); *3/a, b, c, d* (recruited as *S1* holders to teach in secondary schools); *4/a, b, c, d* (senior teachers having at least 10-year experience, recruited as *S1* holders). In the current personnel structure, the ranks *1/a, b, c, d* are only for non-teaching staff such as *school guards* who are recruited as senior high school certificate holders.

that the assessor and the participant have something in common in terms of the subject, discipline and/or expertise.

Ten criteria are used to assess the documents included in the portfolios. Each portfolio submitted must fulfil a relevant criterion. The 10 criteria are as follows:

1. Academic qualifications
2. Education and training
3. Teaching experience
4. Lesson planning and execution
5. Principal's or superintendent's appraisal
6. Academic achievements
7. Professional development artefacts
8. Participation in professional forums
9. Experience in social and educational organisations
10. Teaching or education-related awards of achievements.

(MNERI, 2009d, p. 3)

A total score of 850 accumulated from each of the 10 criteria must be obtained by a participant to pass a portfolio assessment (E. H. Sujiono,¹⁶ personal communication, 19 June 2009). Participants who are successful in *Portfolio Assessment* will obtain an Educator's Certificate and receive monthly allowances equalling their monthly salaries. Those who are unsuccessful will be required to improve their portfolios and resubmit them for another stage of assessment. Alternatively, they may choose to take part in *In-Service Training* described below in more detail based on the *Permendiknas 11/2011 PSG* (MNERI, 2011a) and *Guidelines for In-Service Training* (MNERI, 2011b). Unfortunately, no statistics on the number of the participating teachers and their success rate were made available to me.

The *In-Service Training* program is designed for in-service teachers who:

- are not prepared to undertake a *Portfolio Assessment*, or
- have failed a *Portfolio Assessment*, or
- are not eligible for obtaining an Educator's Certificate through *Direct Conferral*.

This short training program is provided by a tertiary institution in charge of *PSG* Centre. It is conducted for 90 hours¹⁷ over a period of ten days. The 90 hours are split into 22 hours¹⁸ of theory and 68 hours¹⁹ of practice. A class consists of up to 36 participants, all of

¹⁶ Professor in Physics Education; Head of *PSG* Centre Region 24 (South Sulawesi and West Sulawesi Provinces) at *UNM*.

¹⁷ "One hour" in *In-service Training* is 50 minutes rather than 60 minutes. Therefore "90 hours" here is equal to 75 hours.

¹⁸ "22 hours" is equal to approximately 18.33 hours.

whom, if possible, are teachers of the same school subjects, such as EL. Prior to attending classes, participants are required to sit a 50-minute pre-test to measure their initial pedagogic and professional competencies. Classes are conducted in a workshop style and participants are engaged in action research or classroom action research plus materials development, etc.

In-service Training instructors are lecturers at tertiary institutions within the region of the PSG Centre. Employed in the program by Head of PSG Centre, the instructors are required, among other things:

- to have a master's degree or a combination of undergraduate degree and a master's degree in education, or vice versa, or both in education; and
- to have had at least 10-year experience in teaching a relevant field of study.

At the conclusion of *In-service Training*, participants must take a final competency test. The test is made up of written and performance/practice components. Participants who pass the program will obtain an Educator's Certificates, and those who fail are allowed to repeat the final test once.

Unlike certification through *Portfolio Assessment*, the *Direct Conferral* program is meant for teachers, class teachers, guidance and counselling teachers, and teachers appointed as superintendents who have obtained:

- a master's or doctorate degree in education or a field of study relevant to the subject that they teach or to their duty from an accredited tertiary institution;
- the rank *4/b* or *4/c* at the least, or whose cumulative credit points are equal to those who have a *4/b* or *4/c* rank (see Table 9.2).

Eligible participants of *Direct Conferral* submit the required documents to the local PSG Centre. The Centre's assessors then conduct a document verification process. Successful participants receive their Educator Certificates straight away and are then entitled to the monthly allowances on top of their monthly salaries.

In-Service Education replaces an earlier program called *Sertifikasi Guru Dalam Jabatan Melalui Jalur Pendidikan* (In-Service Teacher Certification through Teacher Training)

¹⁹ "68 hours" is equal to approximately 56.66 hours.

(MNERI, 2010, p. 6), which was introduced at the commencement of *PSG* in 2007. Referred to in this study as *In-service Education*, this program was designed to allow junior, high-achieving in-service teachers to be certified as professional educators. This is because they were not allowed to take part in *Portfolio Assessment*, which was meant for senior in-service teachers.

In-service Education is similar to the old program in that participants are required to have an *S1/D4* qualification, be in-service teachers, and enrol in this specially-designed teacher training program for two semesters. Participants spend the first semester completing a number of courses, and the second semester doing practice teaching. Unlike the old program, however, *In-service Education* may be undertaken by any teacher with any length of service but who do not qualify for *Portfolio Assessment*, *In-service Training*, and *Direct Conferral*.

In-service Education participants are required to complete between 18 and 40 *sks* (semester credit units)²⁰ during the education period, depending on their academic backgrounds and the types of their units of education. This means that they must spend between 15 and 33 hours of study a week, during which they have teaching workshops on subject-specific pedagogy and practicum (i.e. peer teaching and micro teaching). Their instructors are university lecturers from the same field of study.

Unlike the short-term *In-service Training* participants, this program's participants are required to conduct a number of teaching practice sessions in the real classroom and with real students. The sessions are under the observation of an instructor, rather than by their peers as in the case of *In-service Training*.

After successfully completing the courses, teaching practice sessions, as well as final written and performance examinations, *In-service Education* teachers are awarded their Educator Certificates and are then entitled to receiving their monthly allowances besides their monthly salaries.

²⁰ 1 *sks* translates to a 50 minute-long face-to-face contact (lecture), a 50 minute-long structured activity, and a 50 minute-long independent activity (e.g. reading a book) each week). (See section 4.3 of Appendix 5.)

Pre-service Teachers. In regard to pre-service teachers, the Indonesian Government has recently introduced the *Pendidikan Profesi Guru Pra-Jabatan* (Pre-service Professional Teacher Education Program), referred to in this thesis as *Pre-service Education*. This is part of the “lessons learnt” approach adopted in implementing *PSG*. The introduction of *Pre-service Education* is based on *Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional Nomor 8 Tahun 2009 tentang Program Pendidikan Guru Pra-Jabatan* [Minister of National Education Regulation Number 8 Year 2009 on Pre-Service Teacher Education Program] (MNERI, 2009c). Despite being issued in 2009, this new regulation will be implemented fully in 2012 (E. H. Sujiono, personal communication, 5 June 2011 and 8 May 2012).

Pre-service Education allows holders of *S1/D4* qualifications in teaching and non-teaching disciplines to enter the teaching profession through a pre-service teacher education program at *Lembaga Pendidikan Tenaga Kependidikan (LPTK)* [Tertiary Institutions of Teacher Education]²¹. Teachers will be recruited through a selection test. Successful candidates who have a teaching qualification in the subject (i.e. *S1/D4* qualification in ELT) will attend the program immediately. Those with non-teaching qualifications in a relevant field (i.e. English literature or linguistics) will have to complete a matriculation process before proceeding in the program.

Depending on the type of schools where they are interested in teaching, participants will complete between 18 *sks* and 40 *sks*. That is, for the duration of one to two semesters. These consist of combined lectures, teaching practicums, and field experience sessions in subject-specific teaching (e.g. ELT), all under the guidance of subject-specific lecturers (e.g. from the ELT Department). At the end of the program, participants will sit a final competency test, and the successful ones will receive a Educator Certificate and be eligible for a teaching position (MNERI, 2009c).

In the latest development, it has been announced that applicants for the *Pre-Service Education* program will be required to take part in the program *Sarjana Mendidik di Daerah Terdepan, Terluar, dan Tertinggal (SM3T)* [Graduates Teaching in Border, Frontier, and Less-Developed Areas] program for one year. Upon completion, they will return to the

²¹ See section 3.4.1.1 for educational institutions categorised as *LPTKs*.

university to attend the *Pre-Service Education* program for another year during which they will live in dormitories and be financially supported by the Government (E. H. Sujiono, personal communication, 8 May 2012). Successful participants of this program will then be awarded their *Professional Educator's Certificate* and qualify for a teaching position.

The *SM3T* is the Government's version of the *Indonesia Mengajar* (Teach for Indonesia) program founded in 2009 by Dr. Anies Baswedan, Rector of Paramadina University in Jakarta. This movement has sent many university graduates to Indonesia's remote areas to teach in local schools for one year (*Indonesia Mengajar*, 2012). Both *SM3T* and *Indonesia Mengajar* share the spirit of the *Pengerahan Tenaga Mahasiswa* (Student Mobilisation) program in the mid-1950s when university students were recruited to teach in schools in the remote parts of the newly independent Indonesia (Buchori, 2007, p. 103).

This latest development is significant for two reasons. First, by enacting the two regulations, the Government has improved the stature of teaching as a profession. *SKAKG 2007* protects the teaching profession from being entered into by just anyone with a tertiary degree who happens to have an interest in teaching. In the long run, this gives more credibility to and confidence in teacher education and training institutions.

At the same time, *Pre-service Education* could be described as the teaching profession's answer to the Indonesian medical profession's *ko-asisten* program. This 1.5– to 2-year, in-hospital medical apprenticeship is required of *Sarjana Kedokteran* (Bachelor of Medicine) holders who want to obtain the title *Dokter* (Medical Doctor), a qualification which will allow them to practice medicine.

Second, it seems very likely the implementation of *Pre-service Education* will be the future of teacher recruitment in Indonesia. Assuming that all of the current 2.78 million teachers all over the country would be certified in the next 10–15 years at the rate of approximately 233,000 teachers annually, *Pre-service Education* has the potential to become the major procedure for teacher preparation, teacher qualification, and teacher certification in the future. Jalal et al. (2009, pp. 91–93) support this analysis.

In sum, while the implementation of *SKAKG 2007* has strengthened the standards of academic qualification for teachers in Indonesia, the new *Pre-service Education* program has

strengthened them one step further with fundamental implications for the future of the profession, its output, and, hopefully, its outcome.

d. Administration of PSG

PSG is carried out at the regional level by two groups of tertiary institutions. These are the general tertiary institutions and Islamic tertiary institutions. For reasons that will be explained below, these institutions are considered collectively as *LPTKs*. A distinction needs to be made here between an *LPTK*, whose main business is the education of “pre-service teachers”, and other institutions such as *Lembaga Penjaminan Mutu Pendidikan (LPMP)* [Educational Quality Assurance Institution] that is in charge of, among other things, training “in-service teachers” outside the context of *PSG* (A. Q. Rahman,²² personal communication, 20 June 2011).

The first group consists of general tertiary institutions appointed by the Minister of National Education to carry out *PSG* in their respective regions. These universities are currently running both general programs and teacher training courses, which may be offered in their *Fakultas Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan (FKIP)* [Faculties of Teacher Education and Educational Studies]. Many of these universities are former *Institut Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan (IKIPs)* [Institutes of Teacher Education and Educational Studies] or *Sekolah Tinggi Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan (STKIPs)* [Schools of High Learning for Teacher Education and Educational Studies] that were converted into full-fledged universities in the early 2000s. A number of universities across the country carrying the name “state universities”, such as *Universitas Negeri Padang (UNP)* [State University of Padang], belong to this category of tertiary institutions. Other institutions in this category are the newly established *STKIPs* or *IKIPs* located mostly in the regions. The tertiary institutions described in this section have the ministerial approval to certify teachers from non-Islamic/religious-based school teachers taking part in *PSG*.

The second group is made up of religious tertiary institutions providing accredited general education programs, religious studies programs, and teacher training courses. They are appointed by the Minister of National Education to carry out *PSG* in their respective

²² Professor of Linguistics; Head of *LPMP* South Sulawesi Province

regions. Most of these institutions are *Universitas Islam Negeri (UIN)* [State Islamic Universities], *Sekolah Tinggi Agama Islam Negeri (STAIN)* [State School of Higher Learning for Islamic Studies] or universities/colleges belonging to the other religious groups (e.g. Buddhist, Catholic, or Christian/Protestant). The *UINs* were usually converted from *Institut Agama Islam Negeri (IAIN)* [State Institute of Islamic Studies] or *STAIN*. These institutions, both public and private ones, are in charge of certifying teachers from Islamic/religious-based schools (e.g. *madrasahs*) in their respective regions.

In each region, one tertiary institution is in charge as it is officially appointed by the Minister of Education to become the local or regional *PSG* Centre. Each institution has several partner institutions from its own region. For example, in Region 15 in the Province of East Java, the institution in charge is *Universitas Negeri Malang (UM)* [State University of Malang] in the city of Malang. This university has 3 partner institutions from around the region, and together they are running *PSG* for 7 districts (*kabupaten*) and 3 municipalities (*kota*) in East Java. Therefore, the only difference between the two groups of *PSG* administrators is that the general universities prepare and certify general school teachers, and the Islamic universities or the relevant religion-based tertiary institutions prepare and certify *madrasah* teachers or Christian, Catholic, Buddhist, Hindu, or Confucious school teachers, including teachers who were trained by general universities but are employed by the MORA.

Based on *Keputusan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional 022/P/2009 tentang Perguruan Tinggi Penyelenggara Sertifikasi Guru Dalam Jabatan (Kepmendiknas PSG 022/P/2009)* [Ministerial Decree Number 022/P/2009 on the Appointment of Tertiary Institutions as In-service Teacher Certification Centres] (MNERI, 2009b), all the above tertiary institutions are organised into the national Teacher Certification Consortium (*KSG*) [*Konsorsium Sertifikasi Guru*] and are responsible for conducting *PSG* in a total of 67 regions. According to this ministerial decree, in the first group (general education) of *KSG*, there are 46 main tertiary institutions and 64 partner institutions. In the second group (religious education) of *KSG*, there are 21 main institutions and 36 partner institutions. That is, there is a total of 67 main

institutions and 100 partner institutions conducting *PSG* under the national *KSG* in their respective regions all over Indonesia.

Assessment of teachers' portfolios and professional teacher training programs are conducted in the institutions in charge of *PSG*. It is each of these institutions that recruits and employs the assessors, trainers, and administrative staff.

Referring to Nunan's (2001) four criteria of a profession, the above policies on *PSG* imply that the Indonesian Government shares Nunan's idea that in order for teaching, particularly EFL teaching, to be considered a profession—and for its practitioners to be regarded as professionals—it must establish standards of practice and certification. The implementation of *PSG* constitutes an effort to meet this criterion.

2.4 Summary

This chapter set out to contextualise the current study and define important terms. To achieve the first goal, it has provided the contextual background of this study on IETs' perspectives on professional teaching standards. The background comprises the reforms in the Indonesian education system, particularly the formal education sector, and regarding teachers, specifically in terms of *PSG*. By doing this, the chapter has also achieved the second purpose, which is to introduce and provide the definitions of some of the technical terms introduced earlier in Chapter 1 and which will be used in the next chapters on literature review, methodology, data presentation, and discussion and conclusions. The overall goal of the chapter is to set the scene for the whole study.

The study was conducted in Indonesia, whose educational context was experiencing major change due to reforms in the national education system. In the spirit of the *Reformasi* Movement, which has seen Indonesia's transformation from a dictatorship to a democratic and decentralised system of governance, the change in education was initiated with the improvement of the legal frameworks. This is important because legal frameworks such as laws and ministerial decrees have been the primary governing instruments for development in education in Indonesia (Lauder, 2008, p. 16). Two of the laws in this regard are *UU Sisdiknas 2003* and *UUGD 2005*. The two laws are affecting both the "hardware" and the

“software” of Indonesian education. With general focus and scope and a systemic approach, *UU Sisdiknas 2003* serves as a basis for reforming the “hardware,” that is Indonesia’s national education system. *UUGD 2005* is more specific as it is concerned with the “software”—the educators—operating in the system.

This chapter has described how the current transformation affects the system and the teachers who are directly involved in and affected by it. In terms of systemic transformation, fundamental change was made possible by an overhaul of what makes up the sectors of education. In the previous system, the divisions were simply expressed as “school sector” and “non-school sector”, while in the current one it is more systemic and comprehensive as it consists of formal, non-formal, and informal sectors. There is an acknowledgement of the wider spectrum in which people pursue education and recognition of the central roles that the Government, regional governments, and society can play in education.

The development of *PSG* so far has indicated that the MNERI adopted a *lesson learnt* or *trial and error* approach. This is marked by a number of changes in the ministerial regulations and decrees on *PSG*. Understanding the current transformation in Indonesian national education will enable the reader to understand the contents of the next parts of the thesis, particularly IETs’ perspectives on PTS.

Chapter 3

Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

As described in the Introduction and Background, this study was an investigation into IETs' perspectives on the PTS contained in *SKAKG 2007*, one of the official documents regulating the implementation of *PSG* in Indonesia. The investigation was guided by a central research question and six subsidiary research questions. These questions were aimed at addressing four key issues, namely, teacher professionalisation, IET competencies, ELT in the Indonesian context, and IETs' perspectives on *SKAKG 2007* in the context of *PSG*.

Seven areas were identified from the research questions, the four key issues, and the literature. These areas were further refined during the preparation and data analysis of the present study. The seven sections of the literature review deal with:

- (1) The standards movement, which is essential in understanding international quality improvement efforts for the professions and vocations (see section 3.2);
- (2) The standards movement in education (SME), to examine how quality improvement efforts influence the field of education (section 3.3);
- (3) PTS and credentialing programs, in order to discuss the kinds of quality improvement efforts in terms of teachers' competencies and qualifications (section 3.4);
- (4) SME in Indonesia, to describe *SKAKG 2007* and *PSG* as the Government's efforts to improve the quality of teachers across the board (section 3.5);
- (5) Debate on PTS for IETs in Indonesia, in an attempt to examine what some members of the Indonesian ELT profession have said about the relevance of PTS for IETs (section 3.6);
- (6) A description and discussion of EL teachers' professionalism and competencies based on various standard- and non-standard-document sources (section 3.7);

- (7) Teacher cognition and language teacher cognition theory, in order to justify my decision to give IETs their voices about the current and future PTS document for IETs (section 3.8).

3.2 The Standards Movement: Professional Standards

In many parts of the developed world today, professionals such as accountants, business people, computer technologists (Morse & Richards, 2002), doctors, engineers, lawyers, managers, nurses, and pilots are expected to meet the professional standards in their respective fields based on statements of 'best practice' in the professions (Bailey & Merritt, 1995; Barth, Landsman, & Lang, 2008; Cooke & Hutchinson, 2001; Engineers Australia, 2012; Epstein & Hundert, 2002; McCracken, 1951).

In Indonesia, standards and standardisation have been embraced quite enthusiastically. The Government has enacted pieces of legislation to regulate standards of competencies for the professions and occupations and establish standards institutions. Aside from *BSNP* (see section 1.1) in the education sector, there is the *Badan Nasional Sertifikasi Profesi (BNSP)* [National Agency for Professional Certification] in the human resources sector. *BNSP* is an independent body associated with the Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration established in 2003. It describes itself as Indonesia's 'personnel certifying authority' (*Badan Nasional Sertifikasi Profesi (BNSP)*, 2009), being responsible for certifying vocational competencies. Between 2004 and 2010, *BNSP* produced some 168 documents called *Standar Kompetensi Kerja Nasional (SKKN)* [National Vocational Competency Standards]. The documents were formalised by the Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration and published as *Keputusan Menteri* [Minister's Decrees]. The 168 *SKKN* documents include vocational standards for such occupations as mechanics, hairdressers, chefs, tour guides, farm workers, computer operators, electricians, miners, spa employees, etc.

Besides *BSNP* and *BNSP* that deal with professional or vocational standards, there are industrial standards institutions such as *Badan Standardisasi Nasional Indonesia (BSNI)* [National Standardisation Agency of Indonesia]. In this regard, Indonesia has for some time

been familiar with the International Standards Organisation's ISO 9000 series of *Quality Management Standards* for the accreditation of government and private organisations.

The development of standards for the professions and institutions worldwide are collectively referred to in the literature as the standards movement. To establish the connection between this movement and *SKAKG 2007*, it is essential to describe what standards constitute in the context of this study. The next section discusses the definition of standards.

3.2.1 Definition of Standards

The term standards has been defined and articulated in different ways. According to Mowbray (2005, p. 7), it is generally "applied in industry and commerce to measurements, objects and processes, as well as to the performance of organisations and individuals". Citing definitions from the Australian and Canadian standards organisations, Mowbray also adds that as a static concept, standards are publications establishing professional or occupational competencies or criteria. In this study the term standards are used in the sense of *performance of individuals* or the performance of practitioners of a certain profession, hence the term *professional standards*.

Professional standards embody the knowledge, skills, and affective aspects required by the profession and performed by the professional. According to Quinn, Anderson, and Filkenstein (1998), a professional's *cognitive knowledge* (or know-what), is his or her basic mastery of a discipline and is the basis of his or her *advanced skills* (know-how) which translates "book learning" into effective execution. This supports the professional's *systems understanding* (know-why) which is deep knowledge of the web of cause-and-effect relationships underlying a discipline, and ultimately his or her *self-motivated creative* [sic] (care-why) which consists of will, motivation, and adaptability for success (pp. 87–89).

Nowadays, professional standards are associated with the professions, professional quality monitoring activities, and human resources management issues in various fields. In this regard, professional standards generally have two purposes. The first purpose is in the sense of "standards as quality assurance" (Sachs, 2003, pp. 177–178) or "a grade of

excellence” (Mowbray, 2005, p. 6) and is to do with safeguarding public interest. For this purpose, Yinger and Hendricks-Lee (2000) speak of standards as:

a major way to demonstrate to the public and to policy makers that the profession has sufficient quality controls for the processes of professional education...and for basing effective practice on a defensible knowledge base. (p. 97)

The second purpose is in the sense of “standards as quality improvement” (Mowbray, 2005, pp. 6–7; Sachs, 2003, p. 178). Yinger and Hendricks-Lee (2000, p. 97) link this to the function of standards as “parameters and guidelines for conducting professional work.” In the context of standards movement, these parameters guidelines exist thanks to a collective process of formulation and development.

3.2.2 Development of Standards

As can be seen in the development of standards for the ‘prestigious’ professions such as accountants, doctors, engineers, lawyers, and pilots in developed and developing countries alike, members of the professions usually set their own standards and monitor their implementation themselves. This is in line with Ingvarson (2005, p. 343) who says that “(t)he major responsibility for developing these standards for high quality practice should rest with the profession”. Nunan (2001) concurs and says that standards are usually developed and promulgated by a profession, and are regarded as one of the defining characteristics of the profession.

Nevertheless, as Ingvarson (2005, p. 344) himself indicates, the government may, to a small or large extent, play a role in the process. This is evident in the standards development processes for the professions in various countries. This is particularly the case when the standards in question are meant for a certain profession in which the government has a stake or whose professional organisations are not as solid as those of the other professions.

In any context, professional standards are developed for the purpose of professional assessment.

3.2.3 Professional Standards and Assessment

Professional standards are not developed just for the sake of standards or standardisation. As shown in many parts of the world and in Indonesia, standards are developed for regulatory purposes. However, standards can also be used for voluntary or developmental purposes. The nature of standards is articulated by Louden (2000) as follows:

Standards are one half of a conceptual pair: standards and assessments. Standards describe what is good or what is good enough in professional performance, and assessments guide judgements about whether individuals reach or exceed these standards. (p. 127)

Louden implies the two purposes mentioned above in the word “assessment”. In other words, a professional’s competencies can be assessed by a certifying body (regulatory purpose), or the professional himself or herself can assess their own performances against the standards set for their field of expertise (voluntary/developmental purpose). The literature suggests that the former is more prevalent than the latter.

Credentialing is a common regulatory procedure for assessing teachers’ professional standards. This is usually done in the form of professional licensure or certification which requires (or encourages) the candidate involved to undertake a certification process (Nunan, 2001; Wiley, 1995). This may be done by requiring the candidate to complete a university degree, a course and/or an examination (or a series of examinations) before he or she gains entry to the chosen profession and becomes a member of the profession (or a professional organisation). It may also be done by encouraging the candidate to show accomplished practice by, for example, completing a portfolio for assessment before he or she goes up to the next level in the profession and be rewarded for it financially or professionally. Weiss and Young (1981, as cited in Wiley, 1995, p. 269), view the attainment of professional certification as “an indication that the holder knows how to carry out the tasks associated with a particular job function...at an established level of performance. In other words, it shows the attainment of professional competency” (Wiley, 1995, p. 269). Professional certification satisfies the professional himself/herself and the profession itself. This is because certification has as its primary goal the promotion of competencies (thus the establishment of the practitioner’s levels of credibility) and as its secondary goal the enhancement of the profession which results in the standardisation of the profession (p. 271).

It is important to note that certification is not to be confused with accreditation and licensure. Wiley (1995) writes:

Accreditation and certification are regulated and administered by professional associations; licensure is administered by a political or governmental body. Certification and accreditation also are voluntary; licensure is not. Certification and licensure focus on measuring competencies and policing a profession and are mainly at the individual and occupational levels. Accreditation focuses on policing educational and other programs, and is primarily at the institutional level. The goal of each of these is fulfilled by adhering to prescribed standards. However, institutions can function without being accredited, and individuals can operate in a profession without being certified, but, persons who are not licensed cannot practice. (p.270)

In short, licensure and certification are professional-standards-based credentialing programs for individuals and occupations. They should be distinguished from accreditation which is designed for institutional credentialing based on industrial and business standards. The topic of this research is restricted to professional standards and licensure and certification programs.

3.2.4 Strengths and Weaknesses of Professional Standards

The standards movement and professional standards development have their strengths and weaknesses, as Levit (1995) and Yinger and Hendricks-Lee (2000) have pointed out. One of the strengths of professional standards is its simple expression of “desirable statements of goals and outcomes” (Yinger & Hendricks-Lee, 2000). This means that standards are easy to understand, practical, and achievable. Manufacturing, business and the professions, according to Yinger and Hendricks-Lee (2000), as shown by the various standards, certification, and accreditation programs in section 3.2, have benefitted from the use of standards which have proven to be an effective quality control strategy.

On the other hand, standards and credentialing systems are criticised for exercising control (Sachs, 2003) and narrowing diversity (Zuzovsky & Libman, 2006). Others also say that even though certification programs are very popular, they do not get universal support. Levit (1995, pp. 291–292), for example, cites four main reasons for these reservations. First, as noted by Wiley (1995) herself, there is no demonstrated empirical relationship between certification and performance in the profession or business. Second, most certification processes take the format of an examination which samples the knowledge domain expected

to be mastered but rarely include a test of practice and experience. The third reason is that the popularity of certification constitutes a decline of professional responsibility on the part of the professionals themselves and institutions. Lastly, Levit points to Wiley's (1995) statement that certification requires the "codification of a body of knowledge" which he refers to as "locking" the paradigm, making change and adaptability more difficult since knowledge has been "approved and departmentalized" (Levit, 1995, p. 292).

Despite the ongoing debate, the standards movement has influenced many professions and vocations. As discussed in the next section, it has also found its way into education and, consequently, the teaching profession.

3.3 Standards Movement in Education

The contemporary standards movement in education (SME) (Keenan & Wheelock, 1997; Negroni, 1997) dates back to the early 1980s in the U.S. It began as a response to the strong criticism of education in the U.S. during this era (Yinger & Hendricks-Lee, 2000, p. 97). In a report titled *A Nation at Risk* (Gardner et al., 1983), Terrel Bell, then U.S. Secretary of Education, was so concerned about the condition of primary and secondary education (K-12) in the U.S. that he compared the urgency to address it with "that of a virtual state of war" (Phelan, 2012, p. 1).

The publication was followed-up during the next twenty years by a number of national commissions, educational summits, institutions, reports, and pieces of legislation, and culminated in the enactment of *No Child Left Behind Act* in 2000 (Phelan, 2012, p. 4). During this period, the National Board of Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) was established in 1987 with funding from the Carnegie Corporation of New York (Lustick & Sykes, 2006, p. 5). Other similar organisations, such as the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC), also came into being in 1987 to conduct various educational certification programs (InTASC, 2011).

Similar problems in education were experienced by many countries around the world, and the success of NBPTS and other organisations in the U.S. became an inspiration internationally. In the developed world, the United Kingdom (UK) (Ingvarson, 2002), Canada

(Ontario College of Teachers (OCT), 2012a), Australia (Australian Education, Early Childhood Development, and Youth Affairs Senior Officials Committee (AEEYSOC), 2010), and New Zealand (Ministry of Education of New Zealand (MENZ), 1999) followed suit. Eastern European countries such as Bulgaria, Lithuania, Macedonia, Latvia, Moldavia, Slovenia, and the Russian Federation, and south-east Asian countries such as Thailand, the Philippines, and Malaysia (Zuzovsky & Libman, 2006, p. 39) also joined the movement. More recently, Pakistan also jumped onto the bandwagon with the release of its National Professional Standards for Teachers in 2009 (NPST-2009) (Rehman & Baig, 2012). Earlier, in 2007, Indonesia had become a new addition to the SME list with the creation of *BSNP*, the launch of *PSG*, and the implementation of *SKAKG 2007* and other standards documents. Prior to these, however, SME had existed in Indonesia since the early 1990s in the form of accreditation programs for educational institutions. These programs are conducted by *Badan Akreditasi Nasional Perguruan Tinggi (BAN-PT)* [National Accreditation Agency for Higher Education Institutions] and *Badan Akreditasi Nasional Sekolah dan Madrasah (BAN-SM)* [National Accreditation Agency for Schools and *Madrasahs*].

In addition to these countries, PTS developments have also been carried out in a number of Asia-Pacific countries (Department of Education Employment and Workplace Relations (DEEWR), 2008). A meeting of Asia-Pacific Education Ministers in Brisbane, Australia, on 3–4 April 2006, in which a communique on PTS development was issued, was attended by delegations from Japan, Korea, Indonesia, Vietnam, Singapore, Thailand, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, the Cook Islands, Fiji, Tonga, Vanuatu, Palau, Timor Leste, Australia, New Zealand, Jordan, Oman, and Turkey. (This communique led to a survey of PTS development in all the countries involved in the meeting, resulting in a report by Erebus International for DEEWR detailing the PTS developments in the region in terms of five themes.¹ See Appendix 28 for a summary of the findings, specifically in regards to Indonesia.)

¹ (1) Requirements for employment as a teacher, as they related to teaching standards; (2) teaching standards development; (3) current status and use of teaching standards; (4) planned development of teaching standards; and (5) lessons learned from involvement in the process (DEEWR, 2008, p. 8).

In Indonesia, SME may also have influenced the establishment of the international standard schools (ISS), even though the link is not clearly established in the literature. The establishment of such schools is said to be the way some Asian countries responded to ‘globalisation’ and ‘travel abroad’ (Coleman, 2009a) and ‘internationalization of schools’ (Kustulasari, 2009). Only in Indonesia are these schools called ‘international standard schools’ (*Sekolah Bertaraf Internasional* or *SBI*), while in other Asian countries they are called differently. For example, in Thailand they are known as ‘English Programmes’ or ‘Mini English Programmes’ and in South Korea ‘Immersion Programmes’ or *mol-ib* (Coleman, 2009b).

The elements of ‘international’ and ‘standard’ in the Indonesian Government’s policies concerning *SBI* (full-fledged ISS) and *RSBI* (*Rancangan Sekolah Bertaraf Internasional* or ‘new shoot’ ISS [Coleman, 2009a]) lie in the nine areas of quality assurance determined by the MNERI. They are:

1. Accreditation: Apart from accreditation at ‘A’ level by Indonesian National Accreditation Board for Schools and *Madrasah*, school [sic] is also accredited by a school accreditation body in an OECD member nation.
2. Curriculum: Level of lesson content equivalent to or higher than that taught in an OECD member country.
3. Learning-teaching process: Science, mathematics and core vocational subjects are taught using English; other subjects, apart from foreign languages, are taught using Bahasa Indonesia. In primary schools/*madrasah*, teaching science and mathematics through English begins in Year 4.
4. Evaluation: Achieves Indonesian National Education Standard for Evaluation, enriched with modes of evaluation employed in an OECD member country.
5. Teachers: Teachers of science, mathematics and core vocational subjects are able to deliver lessons through English.
6. Headteacher [sic]: Headteacher has an active mastery of English. Headteacher possesses international vision, capable of developing international links.
7. Facilities and resources: Library equipped with facilities which permit access to ICT-based learning resources throughout the world.
8. Management: School/*madrasah* is multicultural. Has ‘sister school’ links with international standard schools abroad.
9. Financing: Achieves Indonesian National Education Standard for school financing.

(Coleman, 2009b, p. 10)

Thus, the standards governing *SBI* and *RSBI* are made by the MNERI against what the MNERI considered to be of ‘international standard’ in regard to (1) benchmarking with the

standards applied in developed countries; (2) the use of English; (3) the use of ICT; and (4) international links.

However, after being implemented for six years with many advantages and disadvantages, the Government's policy on *SBI* and *RSBI* was finally declared to be unconstitutional by Indonesia's Constitutional Court in January 2013. This followed a request for judicial review by non-governmental organisations and civics groups critical of the policy (Sumintono, 2013). Nevertheless, due to policy-changing behaviour in Indonesia, the decision may not be the end of *SBI* and *RSBI*.

The existence of SME in the countries mentioned above may have been influenced by the standards movement in the U.S. However, the literature suggests that there are a number of factors that have had a role in their decision to adopt SME. Some of these factors are discussed in the next sections. Some criticisms of SME are also discussed.

3.3.1 Teacher Quality Improvement

The implementation of *PSG* in Indonesia, of which *SKAKG 2007* is an important part, is described by Jalal et al. (2009, p. 2) as a strategy for teacher quality improvement. Over the past few decades, developments in education internationally, which Indonesia joined in the early 2000s, indicate that “the emergence of the culture of ‘quality improvement’ that is characteristic of contemporary industry and business environments is now apparent in the education sector” (Mowbray, 2005, p. 4).

Teacher quality has been defined in diverse ways over the past 100 years. For example, it has been related to teachers' personality characteristics and teachers' behaviours (Ingvarson & Rowe, 2008, p. 13). It has been associated with teachers' salaries (Figlio, 1997)—meaning that increased teacher salaries may result in quality teaching. It has also been determined on the basis of “proxy ‘measures’ of quality” such as teacher qualification, experience, and students' outcomes (Ingvarson & Rowe, 2008, p. 5; see also Darling-Hammond, 2000), as well as type of teacher certification, specific coursework taken in preparation for the profession, and the teachers' own test scores (Rice, 2003).

Nevertheless, most researchers and authors believe that teacher quality in education today should explore how improving teachers' classroom practice could improve teacher quality (Wenglinsky, 2000). Wenglinsky goes on to suggest that improving classroom practice means that it is imperative for teachers to be as effective as possible, especially in terms of individualising their instruction.

In the current literature on teacher quality, Wenglinsky's emphasis on teacher effectiveness is echoed by other authors. For example, Holden (2010) states that teachers are the major in-school influence on student achievement (cf. Darling-Hammond, 2000). To maximise this role, teachers need to ensure their effectiveness. In Holden's opinion, effectiveness is about what teachers actually do in the classroom, not what kind of person they are.

Ingvarson and Rowe (2008) have addressed Holden's point earlier in a more conceptual way. They argue that teacher quality should be in terms of "what teachers should *know* (subject-matter knowledge) and *be able to do* (pedagogic skills)" (p.5). Other authors, concur, implying that *knowledge* and *skills* are better termed "pedagogical content knowledge" (Dudley-Marling, Abt-Perkins, Sato, & Selfe, 2006). Still others support this proposition saying that pedagogical content knowledge, contrary to Holden's argument mentioned above, should cover both what teachers actually do in the classroom *and* what kind of person they are. To use the terminology used by Kirby and Crawford (2012) and Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) (TESOL, 2008), these competencies are referred to as teacher knowledge, teacher skills, and teacher disposition(s).

To institutionalise the three competencies above, Ingvarson and Rowe (2008) proposed the following teacher quality efforts:

- (1) capacity building in teacher professionalism grounded in evidence-based pre-service teacher education content and subsequent in-service professional development and
- (2) specification and evaluation of teaching standards. (p.5)

What these mean is that there needs to be an integrated approach to producing quality teachers. The approach begins with the assumption that teaching is a profession and that teachers are professional educators. These professionals need to be trained using 'capacity building' strategies both before they enter into the profession and while they are in

it. The content of the pre-service and in-service education must be based soundly on theories and practice, essentially on what works in classrooms and what gives the best results in terms of the affective, cognitive, and psychomotoric aspects. That is, the effective ways to make students learn and achieve the curricular goals of a school subject.

As a consequence, statements of 'teaching best practice' need to be specified through a rigorous process of formulation informed by theories and practice. Once formulated, the statements ('the standards') can then be used for various purposes, especially for evaluating teaching, and to ensure teachers carry out their duty in the most effective ways possible. This goes back to Holden's (2010) emphasis on teacher effectiveness in terms of knowledge and skills above, but with its own additional emphasis on dispositions, which are an important aspect of teaching in many educational contexts.

Ingvarson and Rowe's (2008) proposition of teacher quality above implies a systematic move towards teacher professionalisation, including PTS development. This is discussed in the next section.

3.3.2 Teacher Professionalisation

According to Sockett (1990 cited in Mowbray, 2005), "professionalisation refers to the process by which occupations seek to gain status and privilege in accord with the community's concept of a profession" (p.13).

To use the context of this study, Indonesia, as an example, 'the community' in the above definition can be interpreted to refer to three different parties.² The first party is the teaching community itself who are in charge of educating members of the public. They have long demanded the recognition of teaching as a profession and the Indonesian public has long been concerned about the quality of the nation's education in general and of its teachers in particular (Jalal et al., 2009). Their argument has been that teaching shares the characteristics of other occupations that have long been recognised as professions such as architects, engineers, discipline specialists (e.g. mathematicians, psychologists, economists),

² Note that this is based on the most part on the interviews and focus groups I had with my respondents (see Chapter 5 on Teacher Professionalisation). Unfortunately, no previous studies on attitudes to teachers and the teaching profession in Indonesia have been located regarding this matter.

physicians or surgeons, nurses, lawyers, accountants, etc. (cf. U.S. Department of Labor, 2012). Additionally, as demonstrated by a comparative study by Rowan (1994), teaching is no less complex than the other occupations and deserves professional status:

Teaching children and adolescents is complex work, and successful performance of this work requires high levels of general educational development and specific vocational preparation. (Rowan, 1994, p. 13)

However, in order to gain this recognition, Nunan (2001) advises the use of the following criteria: (1) the existence of advanced education and training; (2) the establishment of standards of practice and certification; (3) an agreed theoretical and empirical base; and (4) the work of individuals in the field to act as advocates for the profession. Unless these are met, the teaching profession's demand for professional recognition will remain fruitless. Nevertheless, this new awareness-driven demand constitutes the teaching community's effort toward "independent professionalism" (Leung, 2009, cited in Richards, 2010, p. 119), which means that the community has its own drive to engage in reflection on their own values, beliefs, and practices.

The second party is society at large, whose children or family members are under the tutelage of members of the teaching community. They too, have voiced their concern over the quality (or professionalism) of teachers because they believed that this has an effect on the quality of education that society receives.

The third party is the government who is responsible for both the teaching community and society at large. Many governments address the demands for teacher professionalisation in a certain way defined as "giv[ing] (an occupation, activity, or group) professional qualities, typically by increasing training or raising required qualifications" (Oxford University Press (OUP), 2011). This can be seen in the Indonesian Government's teacher professionalisation efforts discussed in Chapter 2. In fact, the other three education reforms in Indonesia in particular (decentralisation, public participation, and systemic organisation), were formulated under the major theme of professionalisation. As a concept, teacher professionalisation generally aims at developing (1) teachers' character, (2) commitment to change and continuous improvement, (3) subject knowledge, (4) pedagogical knowledge, and (5) obligations and working relationships beyond the classroom (Socket, 1993, cited in Tichenor

& Tichenor, 2005, p. 92). This effort may then be described as “institutionally prescribed professionalism” (Leung, 2009, cited in Richards, 2010, p. 119), i.e. the government’s effort to professionalise teaching and teachers.

In sum, the demands for teacher professionalisation both in the developed and developing nations in the past three decades have, in many cases, paved the way for the initiatives to develop PTS. However, many authors have responded to these initiatives positively and negatively, highlighting their advantages and disadvantages.

3.3.3 Advantages of PTS

Three main advantages of PTS were identified from the literature on SME. They are discussed in the following sections.

3.3.3.1 Autonomy

Professional standards have been hailed as having “the potential to reform radically the professional development system for teachers, and to move the control into the hands of the profession” (Ingvarson, 2005, p. 336). They have been defined as instruments that “provide the basis for providing a benchmark of what are minimum levels of achievement in various aspects of their practice” and therefore “define what teachers should be able to do and what they should know” (Sachs, 2003, p. 177).

For language teachers, this professional autonomy means that there is a recognition of their “language awareness” (Andrews, 2001, 2003ab), which is accommodated in the PTS document. Thereby, the teachers have the opportunity “to articulate what it is that is valued in the practice of the profession” (Liddicoat, 2006a, p. 5) whose development, in this case, necessitates teacher involvement (Abdal-Haqq, 1995).

3.3.3.2 Teacher Learning

According to Sachs (2003), the introduction of professional standards should improve the performance of teachers, the standing of teachers and the on-going learning of teachers. These, Sachs says, are the claims that have been empirically substantiated, have public

appeal, are in the best interests of teaching, and would enhance the teaching profession. Professional standards have provided the teaching profession with a reference for teachers' professional development or "on-going professional learning" (Sachs, 2003, p. 182). Drawing on the U.S. National Council for Teaching of Mathematics (NCTM) Professional Standards for the Teaching of Mathematics, Ingvarson develops teachers' on-going professional learning in the following components of a standard guided model:

1. Profession-defined *teaching standards* that provide direction and milestones for professional development over the long term of a career in teaching;
2. An *infrastructure for professional learning* whose primary purpose is to enable teachers to gain the knowledge and skill embodied in the teaching standards;
3. Staged career structures and pay systems that provide *incentives and recognition* for attaining these teaching standards;
4. A credible system of *professional certification* based on valid assessments of whether teachers have attained the levels of performance defined by the standards.

(Ingvarson, 2005, p. 339; emphasis in original)

Sachs (2003, pp. 182–183) suggests that components 1 and 2 above are to do with "professional development" and components 3 and 4 are both the "professional and industrial" components. Component 1 will be fulfilled when teachers have control over what is identified as the standard and the development of the standards themselves. This is possible only if teachers are involved in the stages of the standards development. Component 2 will benefit the teacher who has reached "a professional plateau" (Sachs, 2003, p. 182) and is achieved when the teacher participates in educational networks at various levels and in further degree programs. In this context, "professional plateau" means a certain level in a teacher's profession where he or she is considered an accomplished teacher.

Components 3 and 4, on the other hand, are professional because "teachers' professional knowledge, expertise, and competency are codified and made public" and are industrial at the same time because "these issues have implications about the working conditions, recognition and rewarding of teacher learning" (Sachs, 2003, pp. 182–183). These two components point to the importance of teachers' professional development, government's recognition of the teaching profession (especially politically and financially), and of teachers' professional communities. The role of professional communities here is

based on two purposes: professional development and democratic representation of teachers.

3.3.3.3 Teacher Collegiality

Ingvarson (2005) says that professional standard development has a role in fostering professional community that “many commentators now associate with the best opportunities for professional development”. Citing Louis, Kruse and Marks’ (1996) research findings, Ingvarson (2005, p. 354) sees as essential the effort to maintain strong professional communities which happens, for example, when the teachers in a school routinely engage in activities characterised by: reflective dialogue; de-privatisation of practice; collective focus on student learning; collaboration; and shared norms and values.

In the conclusion of his response to the so-called “Ramsey Report” on government-initiated teacher reform in New South Wales (NSW), Australia, McQueen (2001) refers specifically to teacher unions as “the democratic voice” which most teachers are members of. McQueen goes on to suggest that unions should act as “the ‘professional’ voice of teachers; making decisions about training, curriculum, assessment, ethics, collegiality, registration and all other areas that not only impact on wages and conditions, but which impact on teaching quality” (2001, p. 24). In summary, the teaching profession needs “to regulate itself” (Mowbray, 2005).

3.3.4 Disadvantages of PTS

PTS have been criticised by many people for various reasons. They have been seen as representing an external control of the teaching profession (Sachs, 2003; Yinger & Hendricks-Lee, 2000; Zuzovsky & Libman, 2006). The external control, which comes in the form of “external standards...[that are] telling teachers what to do” (Porter, 1989), usually comes from the government or government authorities in charge of education. For example, in the implementation of standards of education in the American states of Texas and Ohio, the implementation was considered a threat, and Yinger and Hendricks-Lee (2000) think that “the threat of standards is very real” (p. 95).

The threat originates in the sanctions imposed on students, schools, teachers and teacher education programs that do not meet the standards. This threat is also expressed in the phrase describing PTS as “another layer of state regulation to contend with” (Yinger & Hendricks-Lee, 2000, p. 96) and is perceived as having the danger of being “seen as a code word for standardization” that, in Yinger and Hendricks-Lee’s opinion, might not benefit anyone, particularly students with special needs. The fact that in some parts of the world professional standards are made by governmental or professional bodies without the involvement of teachers on whom the professional standards and their procedures are imposed attests to the above point. The imposition of such standards and procedures in NSW, Australia, for example, has caused displeasure among teachers and teacher unions and prompted teachers and unions to take to the streets to reject the programs (K. McQueen³, personal communication, 10 June 2009).

Professional standards are also seen as codifying knowledge and homogenising teaching (Sachs, 2003; Zuzovsky & Libman, 2006). Sachs (2003), following Darling-Hammond (1999, p. 99), says that through the introduction of professional standards, practice could become constrained by the codification of knowledge that does not significantly acknowledge legitimate diversity of approaches or advances in the field. This view is shared by Zuzovsky and Libman (2006, p. 42) who argue that the standards of teaching in the U.S. fall under the tradition of “social efficiency” in teacher education. Standards are said to “stand in contradiction with alternative conceptions of teaching, e.g. those that perceive teaching as a reflective practice in accordance with constructivist notions of knowledge, and they ignore the role of teachers as critical activists, leaders in their communities and theorizers of practice” (Cochran-Smith, 2001, cited in Zuzovsky & Libman, 2006, p. 42).

The application of high-stake tests as part of the implementation of professional standards and their certification procedures, according to Sachs (2003), has also caused restricted access to practice and inequitable learning opportunities for many teachers as well as aspiring teachers, thus affecting the “size and characteristics of the teaching pool” (Zuzovsky & Libman, 2006, p. 46). This is because the number of academically exceptional

³ Lecturer, School of Education, Faculty of the Professions, UNE.

individuals or the “elite pool” (p. 46) who are interested in a teaching career is limited, and those in the “not-so-elite pool” (p. 46) do not always have a good chance of successfully completing all the requirements, let alone passing the tests. Zuzovsky and Libman (2006) write:

Increased testing standards can thus even create a shortage of qualified teachers, from both an elite and not-so-elite pool of candidates resulting in the hiring of non-accredited, emergency-certified and out-of-field teachers. Chances are too that these unlicensed and less prepared teachers will not be distributed evenly across all schools, and children in poor areas are most likely to have such teachers. (p. 46)

In addition, in some parts of the world professional standards lack clear objectives, tend to apply a “one size fits all” version (which is very attractive to many governments), have very little regard for their effects on teachers (e.g. on teachers teaching in remote areas, in difficult schools, or in multi-aged settings), and are still not very clear in terms of future applicability (Sachs, 2003). On future applicability of professional standards, Sachs asks these further questions: Whose interests are served by these standards? What are the effects of the imposition of these standards on teachers individually and collectively? Will the standards judged as appropriate for today’s teaching conditions and teachers be equally appropriate in the future?

Despite all the criticisms, professional standards and certification in education have been considered by a number of professional educators’ organisations and governments around the world as one of the ways to improve the quality of teachers and of education.

Having presented the above discussion on the literature on SME, I will now discuss the developments of PTS and credentialing programs for teachers internationally and in Indonesia.

3.4 PTS and Credentialing Programs: An Overview

PTS and/or credentialing programs for teachers of languages or related subjects/skills have been established in many parts of the world. “Anglophile countries”⁴ (Mowbray, 2005) such as the U.S., the UK, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, as well as Hong Kong, lead the world in this matter. Internationally-published materials on PTS documents and credentialing programs from these countries are more accessible than those from “non-anglophile

⁴ A more appropriate term to use in this context is ‘Anglophone countries.’

countries”⁵. This section reviews some of the PTS documents/credentialing programs in these countries with a brief description of the generic standards, where possible, and subject-specific PTS documents produced so far.⁶ Emphasis will be placed on the language teachers’ authorship and ownership of the PTS documents as well as the subject-specification of the standards. The subject-specific PTS documents under discussion were developed in the area of English Language Teaching (ELT).

It is important to note that based on the PTS from the various international PTS documents in ELT including those from Indonesia’s *SKAKG 2007*, I have compiled a list of ELT PTS (see Appendix 27). The list has been developed by adopting the two major parts in *SKAKG 2007*, namely, EL Teachers’ Qualifications and EL Teachers’ Competencies. In regard to competencies, the list has also adopted TESOL’s (2008) three major competency standards for ESL/EFL teachers, namely, Teacher Knowledge, Teacher Skills, and Teacher Dispositions. (See Appendix 27 for the details.) The list will be referred to in the discussion of the results of the present study in Chapter 9.

3.4.1 PTS and Credentialing Programs in the U.S.

It is not necessary to make a distinction between generic standards and subject-specific standards in describing SME in the U.S. context. The PTS documents and credentialing programs developed by certifying bodies such as NBPTS are designed to be basically subject specific.

As described in the section on SME, the PTS documents and credentialing system under the NBPTS are now being offered in 27 school subject areas and four student developmental levels, which point to the subject-specific nature of all NBPTS standards documents. The documents are all based on NBPTS initial policy statement *What Teachers Should Know and Be Able to Do*, which sets forth the vision of NBPTS for accomplished teaching based on the Five Core Propositions. They are:

⁵ A more appropriate term to use in this context is ‘non-anglophone.’

⁶ PTS materials from neighbouring countries such as Malaysia were not available despite Zuzovsky and Libman’s (2006, p. 39) claim that the country is part of the international SME. Malaysia does not have comparable teacher certification programs (personal communication with Dr. Bambang Sumintono, a lecturer in the Faculty of Education at Universiti Teknologi Malaysia in Johor Bahru, Malaysia, 13 May 2012).

1. Teachers are committed to students and their learning;
2. Teachers know the subjects they teach and how to teach those subjects to students;
3. Teachers are responsible for managing and monitoring student learning;
4. Teachers think systematically about their practice and learn from experience;
5. Teachers are members of learning communities.

(National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS), 2012)

Teachers who have been certified by NBPTS are referred to as National Board Certified Teachers (NBCTs). They are expected to demonstrate the knowledge, skills, dispositions and beliefs contained in the five Propositions above in teaching their subjects, which include art, career and technical education, English as a New Language (ENL), exceptional needs specialist, generalist, health education, library media, literacy (reading-language arts), mathematics, music, physical education, school counselling, science, social studies (history), and world languages other than English. Each of these subject areas may have certification for varying student developmental levels, ranging from early childhood, middle childhood, and early adolescence to young adulthood.

The standards are described as “created for teachers by teachers” and are reviewed on a regular basis. The teachers who take part in formulating the standards are members of a committee of “highly accomplished teachers representing accomplished teachers in their field” (Johnson & Reiman, 2007). The committee also includes experts in child development, teacher education, and relevant disciplines and are tasked with providing recommendations to NBPTS and advising those involved in developing the assessment. The procedures for creating the standards for the 27 certificate areas at the NBPTS are as follows:

1. The NBPTS Board of Directors appoints a Standards Committee, the majority of whom must be distinguished teachers currently practising in the specific curriculum area. The Committee will complete the cycle of developing the standards for 3 years.
2. The Committee develops standards in the specific curriculum area that:
 - Reflect the Five Core Propositions;
 - Identify specific knowledge, skills, and attitudes that support accomplished practice, while emphasizing the holistic nature of teaching;
 - Illustrate how a teacher’s professional judgment is reflected in action;
 - Describe how the standards come to life in different settings.
3. Standards undergo repeated drafts until they are approved for public comment review.
4. A draft of the standards is distributed widely to the education community, including professional teaching associations, for public comment. Many teachers from these organizations serve as Board members and Standards Committee members. After this, the Committee meets again to review and revise the document.

5. The document is then submitted to the NBPTS Board of Directors for adoption and is then published in final form.

(NBPTS, 2012)

The above procedures show that before a standards document is made public there is a rigorous process of constructing the standards statements for accomplished teaching, involving the leadership of NBPTS and the committee members, most of whom are accomplished teachers themselves.

Besides NBPTS, professional organisations across the U.S. have also produced a number of standards for students, teachers, and teacher education programs—among other things—in their specific fields or disciplines. TESOL Incorporated is one such organisation. Calling itself ‘A Global Education Association’, some of its standards are said to be applicable in the U.S. and around the world.

This section deals with two of them, namely, PTS for teaching ENL (NBPTS, 2010) and *Standards for ESL/EFL Teachers of Adults* (TESOL, 2008) to illustrate the subject-specific PTS developed in the U.S. so far.

3.4.1.1 Subject-specific PTS: ENL Standards

One of the subject areas relevant to the topic of this study is ENL. Standards for teachers of ENL are made for those teaching students aged 3 to 18+ (NBPTS, 1998, 2010). ENL is taught to two main groups of students, namely:

- indigenous American children with a language other than English,
- new comers to the U.S., or students who live in communities where English is not the primary language of communication.

Like all NBPTS Standards, this standards document is grounded philosophically in the Five Core Propositions of NBPTS (NBPTS, 2010), namely:

1. Teachers are committed to students and their learning;
2. Teachers know the subjects they teach and how to teach those subjects;
3. Teachers are responsible for managing and monitoring student learning;
4. Teachers think systematically about their practice and learn from experience;
5. Teachers are members of learning communities.

The development of standards for ENL teaching began in 1994 when the ENL Standards Committee consisting of ESL teachers, bilingual educators, and experts in this

field was charged with translating the Five Core Propositions into a standards document that defines outstanding teaching in this field. The ENL Standards Committee was informed by various national and state initiatives on student and teacher standards that had been operating concurrently with the development of NBPTS Standards. It was decided that the standards would be updated over the next several years in order to accommodate the development of the understanding of the subject. The first ENL Standards document was developed in 1998 by a 14-member Committee. The second edition was developed by a different 12-member Committee and was published in 2010 (NBPTS, 2010).

The NBPTS takes the same five steps to develop all its standards, including the ENL Standards. The steps were described in section 3.4.1.

Table 3.1 Standards for ENL (Adapted from NBPTS, 2010, pp. 19–95)

No.	Standard	Description <i>Accomplished teachers of English learners...</i>
1.	Knowledge of Students	Apply their knowledge of students' language development, cultures, abilities, values, interests, and aspirations to facilitate their students' linguistic, academic, and social growth.
2.	Knowledge of Culture and Diversity	Model and build respect and appreciation for cultural diversity, demonstrating to their students and others that students can succeed academically while maintaining their cultural identities.
3.	Home, School, and Community Connections	Establish and maintain partnerships with their students' families and communities to enhance educational experiences for their students.
4.	Knowledge of the English Language	Have in-depth knowledge of the English language and understand their students' language needs.
5.	Knowledge of English Language Acquisition	Critically evaluate the ways in which students acquire primary and new languages and apply this knowledge to promote their students' success in learning English.
6.	Instructional Practice	Design supportive learning environments based on careful analysis of their students' characteristics and on the linguistic and academic demands of school; etc.
7.	Assessment	Employ a variety of practices to assess their students appropriately; etc.
8.	Teacher as Learner	Are passionate about their field and consistently engage in the process of professional growth; etc.
9.	Professional Leadership and Advocacy	Contribute to the professional learning of their colleagues and the advancement of knowledge in their field in order to advocate for their students.

The current ENL Standards consist of nine standards, each one is elaborated by descriptions beginning with the phrase: "Accomplished teachers of English language..." Each of the descriptions foregrounds a number of elaborated examples that illustrate accomplished practice (NBPTS, 2010, p. 18).

Table 3.1 compresses statements taken from a 103-page document (NBPTS, 2010, pp. 19–95). (See Appendix 7 for more information on the description.) The nine ENL teaching standards in Table 3.1 reflect the core propositions of the NBPTS in general and the specific elements of teaching ENL. These standards provide an illustration of subject-specific standards created with the participation of all the stakeholders in the field. The involvement of the main stakeholders, i.e. the teachers, in formulating the standards suggests the recognition of teachers' capability of voicing 'best practice' statements about teaching their specific field of expertise.

3.4.1.2 Subject-specific PTS: Standards for ESL/EFL Teachers of Adults

TESOL Inc. began developing various standards for learning, teaching, programs, content, assessment, and employment in the area of ESL/EFL teaching (Christison, 1999) in the early 1990s. One of the standards is called 'Standards for ESL/EFL Teachers of Adults' (I abbreviate this to SESFLTA for convenience). This section discusses this standards document using the information summarised from the book, *Standards for ESL/EFL Teachers of Adults* (TESOL, 2008) and the 'Standards' sub-section on the TESOL Inc. Web page: http://www.tesol.org/s_tesol/seccss.asp?CID=86&DID=1556.

It took TESOL approximately six years to develop SESFLTA. The development began with the appointment by the TESOL Board of Directors of a task force in 1999 "to develop a framework of standards for teachers who work with adult ESL learners in the United States" (TESOL, 2008, p. vi). However, the development was suspended for some time and was only revived in 2002 after the creation of the TESOL Standards Committee. To develop SESFLTA, the Committee commissioned in 2004 a team of writers who were experienced in teaching English to adults in different settings. The team then developed vignettes and other explicatory material for a complete volume of the PTS document. After receiving considerable input and revision through consultation with the community of EL teachers, SESFLTA was submitted to the TESOL Board of Directors who then approved it in October 2006 (TESOL, 2008, pp. v–vi).

SESFLTA is described as a PTS document that addresses the central issue: "What does the profession of English language teaching consider to be effective teaching?"

(TESOL, 2008, p. v). Years of development and consultation resulted in eight teaching standards characterised by a core circle, a middle circle, and outer circles. It is within the middle and outer circles that the eight standards are contained, as illustrated in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 TESOL’s eight Standards for ESL/EFL Teachers of Adults
(adapted from TESOL, 2008, pp. vii–viii)

Circle	Standard	Definition
Core	Student Learning	The central concern for all teachers; therefore learning occupies the centre of the performance-based teacher standards.
Middle: <i>Teacher Practices</i>	1. Planning	The way in which a teacher plans for, adjusts, and follows up on instruction.
	2. Instructing	What teachers do in a classroom setting.
	3. Assessing	The way in which a teacher uses knowledge and student performance to make a decision for future planning and instruction.
Outer: <i>Teacher Knowledge; Teacher Abilities; Teacher Dispositions</i>	4. Identity and Context	Who the learners are and how their communities, backgrounds, and goals shape their learning. Also, sociocultural and socio-political environments that create and influence identity and, therefore, learning.
	5. Language Proficiency	An understanding of what language is and how it is used.
	6. Learning	An understanding of the learning process in formal and informal settings and the specific requirements and role of language in that process.
	7. Content	The teacher having content expertise, knowing how to collaborate with content-area teachers, or being able to facilitate the independent learning of content.
	8. Commitment and Professionalism	The nature of ESL and EFL teaching as part of, and in relation to, the community: the teaching community at large and the community of ELT professionals.

3.4.2 PTS and Credentialing Programs in Canada

In the following two sections, PTS developed by two institutions in Canada are discussed as examples. The generic PTS were developed by the OCT, and the languages-teaching ones were by TESL Canada.

3.4.2.1 Generic PTS: The Ontario College of Teachers (OCT)

The OCT was established by the Provincial Government of Ontario in 1997 (OCT, 2011) in response to a report by the Royal Commission on Learning titled *For the Love of Learning* (Mowbray, 2005, p. 75). The report resulted in the *Ontario College of Teachers Act* which provides the legal basis for the establishment of the OCT (OCT, 2012b).

OCT is governed by a 37-member Council. Twenty-three of the members are school teachers elected by their fellow teachers, and 14 others are members of the public appointed by the Provincial Government. The composition allows teachers to regulate and govern their own profession in the public interest. Teachers who want to work in publicly funded schools in Ontario must be certified to teach in the province and be members of the College (OCT, 2011). The OCT currently has over 187,000 members (Goldblatt & Smith, 2004) and is now the largest self-regulating professional body in Canada (Mowbray, 2005, p. 77).

OCT notes that it is accountable to the public for how it carries out its responsibilities, which are as follows:

- To ensure Ontario students are taught by skilled teachers who adhere to clear standards of practice and conduct;
- To establish standards of practice and conduct;
- To issue teaching certificates and may suspend or revoke them;
- To accredit teacher education programs and courses; and
- To provide for ongoing professional learning opportunities for members.

(Adapted from OCT, 2012b)

OCT has several roles, and one of them is teacher registration. In its capacity as a teacher registration body, OCT registers teachers for employment by using two standards documents, namely *The Standards of Practice for the Teaching Profession* and *The Ethical Standards for the Teaching Profession* (Mowbray, 2005, p. 76; OCT, 2012c).

Each of the two documents has a set of purposes and a set of standards for the profession. These purposes and standards are summarised in Table 3.3 (see Appendix 8 for examples of standards 1–5 in Table 3.3).

The standards in Table 3.3 were developed by OCT through a five-phase process including research, consultation, analysis, and feedback between March 1997 and October 1999 (OCT, 2012a) before the two standards documents were approved by Council in February 2000 and October 2000 respectively.

Table 3.3 The purposes and standards of OCT's Standards of Practice and Ethical Standards (adapted from OCT, 2012c)

Purposes/ Standards	The Standards of Practice for the Teaching Profession	The Ethical Standards for the Teaching Profession
Purposes	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Inspire a shared vision for the teaching profession; Identify the values, knowledge and skills that are distinctive to the teaching profession; Guide the professional judgment and actions of the teaching profession; Promote a common language that fosters an understanding of what it means to be a member of the teaching profession. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Inspire members to reflect and uphold the honour and dignity of the teaching profession; Identify the ethical responsibilities and commitments in the teaching profession; Guide ethical decisions and actions in the teaching profession; Promote public trust and confidence in the teaching profession.
Standard 1	Commitment to Students and Student Learning	Care
Standard 2	Professional Knowledge	Respect
Standard 3	Professional Practice	Trust
Standard 4	Leadership in Learning Communities	Integrity
Standard 5	Ongoing Professional Learning	

The five phases of OCT's PTS development are as follows.

1. Research on standards via literature and bibliographic and Internet searches;
2. Initial consultation with educational partners to explore the question "what does it mean to be a teacher in Ontario?"; 'consultation themes' emerged. Personal and telephone interviews, written responses and dialogues on the OCT website, 21 focus groups, and 26 feedback sessions were conducted. The result was a draft version of the standards made in July 1998.
3. Feedback was obtained from 800 OCT members and 19 more feedback sessions were held across Ontario. After a series of reaction feedback, more interviews, and structured activities, an analysis was undertaken and the document was revised in October 1998.
4. Validity check was conducted by presentations, case studies, displaying the revised document on the OCT website, and getting feedback from more than 2,500 people.
5. A year later, the OCT's Standards of Practice and Education Committee received the responses and reports. The standards were considered applicable for pre-service and in-service teacher education programs and qualification programs for principals.

(Adapted from OCT, 2012a)

3.4.2.2 Subject-specific PTS: TESL Canada Standards

Despite being founded more than two decades ago, the Teachers of English as a Second Language in Canada, also known as TESL Canada Federation, only introduced its professional standards in May 2002. Prior to this, certification of ESL teachers in Canada was undertaken separately by ESL professional organisations in the provinces, such as:

- British Columbia Teachers of English as an Additional Language (BC TEAL)
 - Alberta Teachers of English as a Second Language (ATESL)
 - Saskatchewan Council of Educators of Non-English Speakers (SCENES)
 - Teachers of English as a Second Language Ontario (TESL Ontario)
- (Adapted from Sivell, 2005)

TESL Canada has created two sets of nationally- and internationally-recognised standards, namely the National Professional Certification Standards (NPCS) and the National Teacher-Training Recognition Certification (NTTRC) (Eddy & May, 2004, pp. 100–102). NPCS recognises Canadian ESL educators' ESL training and teaching experience and NTTRC recognises the teacher training programs from which the educators come (TESL Canada, 2004, March 21, cited in Eddy & May, 2004, p. 101). In this section I discuss only the NPCS program. NPCS, now recognised in all provinces (Crozet, Liddicoat, & Lo Bianco, 1999), were developed through participation and feedback across the ESL field, and address the professional context of Canadian ESL educators (TESL Canada Federation, 2010).

TESL Canada Federation NPCS are a “teacher-driven initiative to create basic, minimum national standards” (Crozet et al., 1999; TESL Canada Federation, 2010). Recognising that some provinces currently have professional certification systems in place, TESL Canada Federation suggests that NPCS do not replace provincial professional certificates where they exist and teachers can choose to hold both TESL Canada and provincial organisation certificates (Eddy & May, 2004, p. 101). According to its application procedures, applicants in Canada must be members of:

a TESL Canada Provincial/Territorial Organization, i.e. BC TEAL, ATESL, TESL Manitoba, SCENES, TESL Ontario, TESL New Brunswick, TESL Nova Scotia, TESL Newfoundland/Labrador, TESL Prince Edward Islands, TESL Yukon. Applicants from outside of Canada may choose to become a member of a Provincial/Territorial Organisation or a member of TESL Canada.

(TESL Canada Federation, 2010, p. 10)

The certificates issued by TESL Canada Federation are called:

- Professional Standard One (Interim and Permanent);
 - Professional Standard Two (Interim and Permanent);
 - Professional Standard Three (Interim and Permanent).
- (Adapted from TESL Canada Federation, 2010, pp. 5–8)

Each of these has qualification and teaching experience requirements, as shown in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4 Certificates issued by TESL Canada
(adapted from TESL Canada Federation, 2010)

No.	Professional Certificate	Qualification		Teaching Experience		
		University Degree	Methodology & Theory (Hours)	Supervised Adult ESL/EFL Classroom Practicum (Min. Hours)	Teaching Experience (Hours)	Positive Performance Review
1	Standard One (Interim)	Undergraduate	100	20		
2	Standard One (Permanent)	Undergraduate	100	20	1,000	Yes
3	Standard Two (Interim)	Undergraduate	250	20		
4	Standard Two (Permanent)	Undergraduate	250	20	1500 ⁷	Yes
5	Standard Three (Interim)	Masters in Applied Linguistics/ TESOL		20		
6	Standard Three (Permanent)	Masters in Applied Linguistics/ TESOL		20	2,000	Yes
	Alternatively: Standard One(Interim)	Masters in a field related to TESOL plus requirements of Professional Standard One or Two			2000 of adult ESL/EFL teaching ⁸	Yes

Unlike the professional standards of language teaching in other countries, which consist of statements of competencies, TESL Canada Federation's standards are made up of standards of professional qualifications only. These standards, as shown in Table 3.4, consist of statements about what types of academic qualifications and teaching experience an ESL teacher in Canada is required to have. They imply the expected language teaching competencies. Nevertheless, as claimed by TESL Canada Federation (2010, p. 2), the standards were developed through the participation of the ESL community members of Canada.

However, unlike the OCT standards discussed in the previous section and those of the Alberta Teachers of English as a Second Language (ATESL), which is described by Myers (1999, p. 78) but is not discussed in this section, it is unclear how exactly TESL Canada

⁷ 500 hours maximum in adult ESL/EFL program administration.

⁸ 1000 hours maximum in adult ESL/EFL program administration or adult ESL/EFL teacher training.

Federation's NPCS standards were developed. There is no detailed explanation of the process in the sources available.

3.4.3 PTS and Credentialing Programs in the UK

Surprisingly, few scholarly studies on PTS development in the UK are accessible. The accessible ones have been referred to in preparing this section of the chapter.

Out of the four countries in the UK, only England and Wales have PTS and certification for teachers. The other two countries, Scotland and Northern Ireland, only had teacher registration programs (Ross & Hutchings, 2003). Additionally, the existing standards are designed for teachers in general. Therefore, this section will focus more on the generic PTS for teachers in England and Wales.

The educational quality improvement efforts in England and Wales have shifted their focus from the quality of school curriculum to teacher quality since the early 1990s. This was marked by the establishment of:

1. Teacher Training Agency (TTA) based on the Education Act 1994 to raise standards in schools by attracting able and committed people to teaching and by improving the quality of teacher training (Mowbray, 2005, p. 68). This agency was later renamed Training and Development Agency for Schools (TDA).
2. Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) on the basis of the Education (Schools) Act 1992 (Mowbray, 2005, p. 70);
3. General Teaching Council (GTC) in 2000 as an independent professional body for all teachers (Mowbray, 2005, p. 70).

In 1998 the shift was enhanced with the publication of a Green Paper called *Teachers: Meeting the Challenge of Change* by the office of the Secretary of State for Education (Ingvarson, 2002, p. 2). As the UK's response to SME, the Green Paper focuses on teacher policy and strategies relating to the promotion of quality teaching and learning and sets out the UK Government's vision for a "modernised teaching profession" (Ingvarson, 2002, p. 2). It also introduces a new career structure to attract, develop, and retain good teachers in the UK (cf. "attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers" in Ross & Hutchings, 2003).

TDA has so far developed a range of standards including those for the award of Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) (Mowbray, 2005, p. 69). The QTS standards were developed by a wide range of stakeholders in education, including teaching unions, and apply to the teaching profession in England, Wales, and Scotland, but not in Northern Ireland (Ross & Hutchings, 2003, pp. 46–48). Table 3.5 summarises the QTS standards. (See Appendix 9 for the complete table.)

Table 3.5 Quality Teacher Status (QTS) Standards applied in the UK
(adapted from Ross and Hutchings, 2003, pp. 47–48)

No	Requirement	Description
1.	Qualification	Teaching qualification achieved through undergraduate or postgraduate training
2.	Registration	Registered with the appropriate GTC in each of the four constituent countries
3.	Clearance	Checks against criminal records
4.	<i>Standard 1:</i> Professional Values and Practice	The attitudes and commitment to be expected of anyone qualifying to be a teacher
	<i>Standard 2:</i> Knowledge and Understanding	Requiring newly qualified teachers to be confident and authoritative in the subjects they teach, and to have a clear understanding of how all pupils should progress and what teachers should expect them to achieve
	<i>Standard 3:</i> Teaching	Skills of planning, monitoring and assessment, and teaching and classroom management
5.	Tests to pass	Numeracy, literacy and ICT (These do not apply in Wales)
6.	Eligibility	New teachers completing initial teacher training course
		Graduates with teaching experience
7.	Applicable to	All teachers, including those in maintained and non-maintained special schools
8.	Non-applicable to	Teachers in the private sector
9.	Flexibility	It is possible for teachers to gain employment without QTS in state schools (This does not apply in Scotland where teachers must be fully registered before applying for permanent teaching posts)

Notwithstanding the descriptions above, the QTS standards were criticised by Ingvarson (2002) due to their lack of *procedural validity*. According to Ingvarson, this refers primarily to the fact that the development of the standards framework was commissioned to a private consulting firm, Hay/McBer, instead of existing national teacher/subject associations (p. 5).

3.4.4 PTS and Credentialing Programs in Australia

Since the late 1980s, Australian Federal and state/territory governments as well as educational professional organisations have been very enthusiastic about developing educational standards. Collectively, Australian governmental educational authorities and professional teaching organisations have produced the largest number of PTS documents in the Asia-Australasia regions to date.

3.4.4.1 Generic PTS

The development of PTS in Australia has had quite a long history—almost as long as the history of PTS development in the U.S. It all began with the meeting of the State, Territory and Commonwealth Ministers of Education at the 60th Australian Education Council in Hobart, Tasmania, on 14–16 April 1989 (Ministerial Council for Education Early Childhood Development and Youth Affairs (MCEECDYA), 1989). The meeting resulted in the Hobart Declaration on Schooling which agreed on eight “areas of common concern”, one of these being “Improving the Quality of Teaching” (MCEECDYA, 1989).

In the succeeding years, the endeavour to develop PTS was advanced by the establishment of the National Working Party on Teaching Competency Standards in 1994. The group’s report in 1996 calls for standards with emphasis on comprehensive teacher knowledge in terms of content, pedagogy, and learners as well as learning (Liddicoat, 2006b, p. 8). Towards the end of the 1990s initiative came from the Australian Council of Deans of Education (ACDE) which set out standards and guidelines for initial teacher education. Another initiative came in the early 2000s when the Australian College of Education (ACE) began work at the national level on teacher standards, quality, and professionalism (Liddicoat, 2006b).

Ten years after the Hobart Declaration, the Adelaide Declaration on National Goals for Schooling in the Twenty-First Century came out of another commonwealth education ministers’ meeting in Adelaide, South Australia, in 1999. The Declaration has “a commitment to collaboration” that has four purposes. The second of these is the enhancement of “the status and quality of the teaching profession” (MCEECDYA, 1999). This commitment is

referred to as the new discourse around “the status of the teaching profession” in Australia that had been voiced since 1996 (Kennedy, 2000). The Declaration was then followed by a series of publications in support of the development of PTS, including:

1. The STELLA statements that consist of core statements of what accomplished English and Literacy teachers believe, know and are able to do (Australian College of Education, Australian Curriculum Studies Association, Australian Association for Research in Education (ACE, ACSA, AARE), 2000);
2. A national framework for professional standards for teaching (Ministerial Council on Education Employment Training and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA), 2003);
3. A book on embedding standards in the “discourse of the profession” (Hayes, 2006).

Following the above development, the Melbourne Declaration on Educational Goals for Young Australians was made public in 2008, nine years after the Adelaide Declaration. The Declaration is committed to eight actions, and the second of these is “supporting quality teaching and school leadership” (MCEETYA, 2008). Subsequent documents were produced at the national levels afterwards, most notably a four-year plan document which calls for, inter alia, new professional standards for teachers as a part of the “nationally-agreed reform initiatives and key components” (MCEETYA, 2009).

One of the results of these initiatives was a draft National Professional Standards for Teachers published on 12 February 2010. The standards in this document were developed after extensive national consultation with the teaching profession and jurisdictions (AEEYSOC, 2010). The draft was then commissioned for research by the Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL) to the National Centre of Science, ICT, and Mathematics Education for Rural and Regional Australia (SiMERR) at the University of New England (UNE) in Armidale, NSW. The findings of the study were expected:

to offer a uniform national and empirically validated framework of Professional Teaching Standards to underpin the career aspirations of every primary and secondary teacher in Australia across all education jurisdictions (Research@UNE Newsletter, 2010, p. 5)

According to Professor John Pegg, the Director of the SiMERR National Centre, his team obtained feedback on the draft standards from up to 14,000 teachers at about 1,000

schools through online surveys and group workshops in each State and Territory (UNE News and Events, 2010). Completed at the end of the year 2010, the standards are contained in a generic PTS document consisting of three “Domains of Teaching”, seven “Standards”, thirty-seven “Focuses”, and four “Career Stages” (see Table 3.6).

Table 3.6 Examples of the Australian Institute for Teachers and School Leadership (AITSL) Standards (adapted from AITSL, 2012)

Domain of Teaching	Standards Statement	
	Standard and Focus	Career Stages: <i>Graduate, Proficient, Highly Accomplished, and Lead</i>
1. Professional Knowledge	<i>Standard 1:</i> Know students and how they learn. <i>Focuses 1.1. – 1.6., e.g.: 1.1. Physical, social and intellectual development and characteristics of students</i>	e.g. 1.1. <i>Graduate Stage:</i> Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of physical, social and intellectual development and characteristics of students and how these may affect learning.
	<i>Standard 2:</i> Know the content and how to teach it. <i>Focuses 2.1. – 2.6., e.g.: 2.2. Content selection and organisation</i>	e.g. 2.2. <i>Proficient Stage:</i> Organise content into coherent, well-sequenced learning and teaching programs.
1 Professional Practice	<i>Standard 3:</i> Plan for and implement effective teaching and learning. <i>Focuses 3.1. – 3.7., e.g. 3.3. Use teaching strategies</i>	e.g. 3.3. <i>Highly Accomplished Stage:</i> Support colleagues to select and apply effective teaching strategies to develop knowledge, skills, problem solving and critical and creative thinking.
	<i>Standard 4:</i> Create and maintain supportive and safe learning environments <i>Focuses 4.1. – 4.5., e.g. 4.4. Maintain student safety</i>	e.g. 4.4. <i>Lead Stage:</i> Evaluate the effectiveness of student wellbeing policies and safe working practices using current school and/or system, curriculum and legislative requirements and assist colleagues to update their practices.
	<i>Standard 5:</i> Assess, provide feedback and report student learning <i>Focuses 5.1. – 5.5., e.g. 5.5. Report on student achievement</i>	e.g. 5.5. <i>Graduate Stage:</i> Demonstrate understanding of a range of strategies for reporting to students and parents/carers and the purpose of keeping accurate and reliable records of student achievement.
2 Professional Engagement	<i>Standard 6:</i> Engage in professional learning <i>Focuses 6.1. – 6.4., e.g. 6.1. Identify and plan professional learning needs</i>	e.g. 6.1. <i>Proficient Stage:</i> Use the National Professional Standards for Teachers and advice from colleagues to identify and plan professional learning needs.
	<i>Standard 7:</i> Engage professionally with colleagues, parents/carers and the community. <i>Focuses 7.1. – 7.4., e.g. 7.2. Comply with legislative, administrative and organisational requirements</i>	e.g. 7.2. <i>Highly Accomplished Stage:</i> Support colleagues to review and interpret legislative, administrative, and organisational requirements, policies and processes.

Examples of the seven AITSL standards are shown in Table 3.6. Note, however, that only one out of the four, five, six or seven “Focuses” in each “Standard” and one of the four “Career Stages” are presented as an example.

Table 3.7 Professional standards for teachers developed and used in Australian States and Territories (adapted from NSW Institute of Teachers (NSWIT), 2010; Queensland College of Teachers (QCOT), 2012; Teachers Registration Board of South Australia (TRBSA), 2012; Teachers Registration Board of Tasmania (TRBT), 2012; Victorian Institute of Teaching (VIT), 2010; Western Australian College of Teaching (WACOT), 2012); Teacher Registration Board of the Northern Territory (TRBNT), 2012; Teacher Quality Institute Australian Capital Territory (TQIACT), 2012)

Institution	Standards Document Issued			
	Teaching (Full)	Teaching (Conditional)	Code of Ethics	Additional Documents
NSWIT	Professional Teaching Standards			
QCOT	The Professional Standards for Queensland Teachers	Professional Standards for Queensland Teachers (Graduate Level)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Development of standards; • Implementation of standards; • National professional standards.
TRBSA	Professional Teaching Standards – Entry to the Register		Code of Ethics	Professional Teaching Standards – Change of Status
TRBT	Professional Teaching Standards Framework: Teacher Standard Framework	Graduate Standard; Competence Standard; Accomplishment Standard		
	Professional Teaching Standards Tools: Teacher Standard Framework			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Glossary; • Self audit against Competence Standards; • Self audit against Accomplished Standard
VIT	Standards for Professional Practice for Full Registration	Standards for Graduating Teachers	Victorian Teaching Profession Code of Conduct	
WACOT	Standards for Teaching		Code of Ethics	
TRBNT	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Professional Standards for Competent Teachers in the NT 2. Professional Standards for Accomplished Teachers in the NT 	Professional Standards for Graduate Teachers in the Northern Territory		
TQIACT	Registration Categories: Full	Registration Categories: Provisional	Permit to teach	

At the state/territory level, generic PTS have also been developed in all the states, i.e. NSW, Queensland (QLD), South Australia (SA), Victoria (VIC), Western Australia (WA), and in the Northern Territory (NT). The Australian Capital Territory (ACT) has not developed its own PTS—as it uses the PTS developed by AITSL as its generic standards—and employs only registration categories and teaching permits for teachers (see Table 3.7).

As shown in Table 3.7, the PTS documents from the states and territories are meant for at least two categories of teachers (i.e. 'Accomplished' and 'Graduate'), and they may be accompanied by other documents such as codes of ethics or conduct.

To use NSW's PTS document as an example, NSWIT enlisted some 7,000 teachers from all parts of the state to develop it. The results were validated in a study by a University of New England team and published in 2005 (NSWIT, 2010). The standards document consists of three 'Domains', seven 'Elements', 33 'Aspects', and four 'Key Stages', each of which has 45 'Standards'. This means that the four 'Key Stages' comprise 180 standards altogether.

In Table 3.8, all the 'Domains' and 'Elements' of NSW's PTS are presented, but only one of the three, four, five, and nine 'Aspects' of the standards are shown as an example. The same applies to the 'Key Stages' where only one standard statement for each of them is presented as an example. (See Appendix 10 for the complete table.)

In addition to generic PTS, teaching professional organisations in Australia have developed subject-specific PTS in many curriculum areas. Organisations of teachers of ESL were the first to develop subject-specific PTS (Liddicoat, 2006b). As described by Liddicoat (2006b, pp. 11–12), this initiative was followed by other professional teaching organisations, namely:

1. English as a Second Language (ESL) by the Australian Council of TESOL Association (ACTA) and the Association of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (ATESOL) in 1994;
2. Computers in Education, which began to be developed in 2000 by the Australian Council for Computers in Education (ACCE);

3. Science developed by the Australian Science Teachers Association (ASTA) in 2000;
4. Mathematics, developed in 2002 by the Australian Association of Mathematics Teachers (AAMT);
5. English and Literacy by the Australian Association for the Teaching of English (AATE) and the Australian Literacy Educators Association (ALEA), resulting in a document called Standards for the Teaching of English Language and Literacy in Australia (STELLA) in 2002.

Table 3.8 Examples of NSW Institute of Teachers generic Professional Teaching Standards (adapted from NSWIT, 2010)

Domain	Standards Statements		
	Element	Number of Aspects	Key Stages: Graduate Teacher, Professional Competence, Professional Accomplishment, and Professional; Leadership
Professional Knowledge	1. Teachers know their subject and how to teach that content to their students.	Four	e.g. 1.1.1. <i>Graduate Teacher</i>
	2. Teachers know their students and how they learn.	Five	e.g. 2.2.2. <i>Professional Competence</i>
Professional Practice	3. Teachers plan, assess and report for effective learning.	Nine	e.g. 3.3.3. <i>Professional Accomplishment</i>
	4. Teachers communicate effectively with their students.	Three	e.g. 4.4.3. <i>Professional Leadership</i>
	5. Teachers create and maintain safe and challenging learning environments through the use of classroom management skills.	Five	e.g. 5.1.7. <i>Graduate Teacher</i>
Professional Commitment	6. Teachers continually improve their professional knowledge and practice.	Three	e.g. 6.2.2. <i>Professional Competence</i>
	7. Teachers are actively engaged members of their profession and the wider community.	Four	e.g. 7.4.6. <i>Professional Leadership</i>

Other PTS documents produced in Australia include *TESOL Teacher Competencies* by ACTA/ATESOL of NSW in 1994 (Strong & Hogan, 1994) and *Professional Standards for Accomplished Teaching of Languages and Cultures* by the Australian Federation of Modern

Language Teachers Associations (AFMLTA) (Liddicoat et al., 2005). The latter was developed through *Professional Standards Project Languages (PSPL)*.⁹ The project began in 2005 by developing generic standards for all languages, namely Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, and Spanish, together with annotations in specific languages that showed how the standards could be understood for these languages (Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations (DEEWR), 2008a).

The next section will describe one of the PTS documents mentioned above, namely, the ACTA/ATESOL Standards.

3.4.4.2 Subject-specific PTS: ACTA/ATESOL Standards

In the field of English language education, PTS development began with the formulation of the standards of TESOL teacher competencies by the Australian Council of TESOL Associations (ACTA) and the Association of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (ATESOL). In this section, the standards are called 'ACTA Standards'.

According to ACTA's website (<http://www.tesol.org.au/>), ACTA has been involved in TESOL teachers' PTS development since 2002, through its state associations, particularly the English as a Second Language Educators (South Australia), Inc. (ESLE (SA)), Funding for this project was obtained in 2004 from the Australian Government's Quality Teachers Program (AGQTP), which provides funding to non-government education authorities in each state and territory, such as ESLE (SA) in order to:

improve the quality of education delivered to Australian primary and secondary students. The funding enables the authorities to run a variety of projects and activities that offer on-going professional learning for teachers and school leaders. (DEEWR, 2011)

According to ACTA's 'Development of the Standards' webpage (Australian Council of TESOL Associations (ACTA), 2012), the process began in August 2004 with the formulation of two sets of nine standards based on 27 specific standards. Besides these, a number of academic publications regarding the standards were developed to justify the standards' theoretical and research bases. Then, a number of workshops and a survey of over 100 TESOL teachers were conducted at the national level to ensure the practitioners'

⁹ The project is also referred to as PSP in other sources.

involvement and awareness, in addition to the publication of journal articles on the subject of PTS. The teachers include TESOL teachers in schools, Technical and Further Education (TAFE), and universities. Besides the survey, the consultation process was in the form of workshops, seminars, and consultation meetings involving education and TESOL stakeholders at the state and national levels.

After the survey and consultation process, draft standards were produced, three case studies were carried out, an annotated literature review was completed, three conference presentations were delivered in NSW and nationally, and some articles in Australian journals were published regarding the PTS. Feedback obtained on the standards was used to redraft the standards (ACTA, 2012).

As noted by Liddicoat (2006b), the ACTA PTS were not directed at school-based teachers, but rather at teachers in adult education, e.g. at TAFE and the Adult Migrant English Service (AMES), and more especially at fee-paying English-Language Intensive Courses for Overseas Students (ELICOS) programs. In such programs there were real concerns about the quality of teaching and qualifications of teachers.

The 27 standards in ACTA's PTS (see Appendix 11 for details) are organised under three 'Domains' and across three 'Orientations'. The 'Domains' are:

- Dispositions – What do accomplished TESOL teachers need to 'be'?
 - Understandings – What do accomplished TESOL teachers need to 'know'?
 - Skills – What do accomplished TESOL teachers need to 'do'?
- (Adapted from ACTA, 2006, p. 2)

Each of the 'Domains' has nine standards organised across three 'Orientations', giving each 'Orientation' three standards. In the following examples, one standard is given under one 'Domain' across one 'Orientation':

1. Orientation to a multicultural society; e.g. Dispositions: Accomplished TESOL teachers espouse the values of cultural inclusivity, multiculturalism, multilingualism, reconciliation and countering racism.
 2. Orientation to second language acquisition; e.g. Understandings: Accomplished TESOL teachers appreciate the pivotal role of language and culture in learning, teaching and socialisation.
 3. Orientation to TESOL practice, e.g. Skills: Accomplished TESOL teachers commit to reflective practice and program evaluation that is responsive to students' linguistic and cultural history and environment.
- (Adapted from ACTA, 2006, p. 2)

Out of the 27 standards, nine, including the three mentioned above, are bold-typed. They are considered as 'the core' PTS (ACTA, 2006, p. 1). This suggests that Australian TESOL teachers of adult students and overseas students expect themselves and their colleagues to have a sound cultural, linguistic, social, political, educational, psychological, methodological, and instructional awareness in relation to their students' learning of English as an additional language in Australia.

3.4.5 PTS and Credentialing Programs in New Zealand

Very little scholarly work about PTS development in New Zealand is accessible. The most relevant work accessible includes Kleinhenz and Ingvarson (2007), which is a literature review for standards development commissioned by the New Zealand Teachers Council (NZTC), and Thrupp (2006), a report commissioned by the New Zealand Post Primary Teachers Association and the New Zealand Educational Institute. The existing literature indicates that the main force behind PTS development in New Zealand was the New Zealand Government whose initiatives have resulted in the release of, among other things, the Registered Teacher Criteria in 2009. The description below is based mainly on Thrupp's (2006) report. Thrupp argues for developing generic rather than specified PTS because the latter is believed to: (1) hold much greater capacity to control and contain teachers; (2) emphasises 'managerialism and performativity'; (3) have been based on uncontextualised research; and (4) go against New Zealand's culture of teaching.

In the late 1990s, the NZTC was established by the Ministry of Education with a task to pursue national standards for teachers. Within this period, the Education Act 1996 increased the responsibility of NZTC and made teacher registration compulsory again after a period during which it was optional (Thrupp, 2006, p. 15). In 1997, a green paper titled *Quality Teachers for Quality Learning: A Review of Teacher Education* was published. It argued for the establishment of a government body to promulgate professional standards for teachers. This led to the establishment of the Education Council in 1999 which then initiated PTS development involving a wide range of educational stakeholders. The result was a document called 'Professional Standards: Criteria for Quality Teaching' (MENZ, 1999). This

initiative, however, was criticised “for extending government control over teachers’ conditions of service rather than to empower them as professionals” (e.g. Sullivan, 1999, p. 52 cited in Thrupp, 2006, p. 15).

In 2001, the Education Standards Act, which was an amendment to the Education Act 1989, was enacted. This act requires NZTC to: (1) determine standards for teacher registration and the issue of practicing certificates; and (2) to establish and maintain standards for qualifications that lead to teacher registration. One of the documents used for this purpose is the Registered Teacher Criteria which contain professional standards for all teachers (NZTC, 2009). The criteria are described in the next section.

3.4.5.1 Generic PTS: NZTC Registered Teacher Criteria

According to the NZTC official website, the Registered Teacher Criteria are the criteria for quality teaching that are to be met by all fully registered teachers in Aotearoa New Zealand. The two main themes presented below are adapted from New Zealand Teachers Council - Te Pouherenga Kaiako o Aotearoa (NZTC) (2009). (See Appendix 12 for the complete list of criteria):

- Theme 1: Professional Relationships and Professional Values: Fully registered teachers engage in appropriate professional relationships and demonstrate commitment to professional values; Criteria 1–5;
- Theme 2: Professional Knowledge in Practice: Fully registered teachers make use of their professional knowledge and understanding to build a stimulating, challenging and supportive learning environment that promotes learning and success for all ākonga; Criteria 6–12.

Despite the adoption of generic standards and/or criteria in the development of the earlier and the current standards/criteria documents in New Zealand, Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages of Aotearoa New Zealand (TESOLANZ) has developed its own specific (or specified) PTS for its members. The TESOLANZ standards are described in the following section.

3.4.5.2 Subject-specific PTS: TESOLANZ Standards

As reported by Haddock (1998a, 1998b), between 1996 and 1997, TESOLANZ conducted in a nationwide survey to obtain a profile of the profession, and then develop a core competencies document to complement the TESOLANZ's "philosophy on professional standards". The first part of the project was aimed at obtaining a profile of ESOL practitioners in New Zealand. Prior to this, New Zealand ESOL teachers' profiles were made possible only by the 1996 New Zealand census of Population and Dwellings, data collected by the Ministry of Education on the Early Childhood and Tertiary Sectors, and the teachers' payroll administered by Datacom. These sources of information did not show the ability, experience, and continued training options for ESOL teachers to meet future demands, nor did it give any idea about ESOL professional standards. The second part of the project was aimed at developing a document containing the minimum competency standards for New Zealand ESOL teachers. The survey used the methods applied previously in Australia and Canada for the same purpose.

The 'profile of the profession' part of the project was carried out to gain information about the sectors in which members work; community languages speakers who are also ESOL teachers; the range of qualifications held; the length of experience of members; the current professional support available to members; and language learning experience of members. The final result was a profile of the ESOL professional in New Zealand presented in Appendix 13.

To carry out the "professional standards" part of the project, TESOLANZ used its newsletters (distributed free to its membership) to publish the draft of the philosophy on professional standards and asked for its members' comments. It then published the project and the survey for members to respond to in relation to ESOL teachers' competencies. The competency statements were grouped into appropriate knowledge, skills, attitudes, and experience required for ESOL teaching. The respondents were asked to respond to questions grouped under the categories of what an ESOL teacher in New Zealand should have, understand, have an understanding of, have experience in, recognise, will be able to

do, and should be able to do. They were asked to indicate their responses on a scale of 1 ('of no importance') to 5 ('very important').

The final result is a document indicating statements about which competencies received the most support classified under the key categories. That is, qualifications, knowledge, skills, and dispositions. (See Appendix 14 for a list of TESOLANZ Professional Competency Standards.)

3.4.6 PTS and Credentialing Programs in Hong Kong

The development of professional standards for EFL teachers in Hong Kong was a government initiative. As reported by Andrews (2005), the development was in response to concerns in the mid-1990s about a perceived decline in standards of English. It started with the development of a series of tests that were intended to measure the language proficiency level of serving and prospective EL teachers. The Government aimed at establishing a Language Proficiency Requirement (LPR) for teachers of English as well as Putonghua (Modern Standard Chinese), and since 2001 EL teachers in Hong Kong have been required to sit the Language Proficiency Assessment for Teachers (LPAT) that consists of five papers: Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing, and Classroom Language Assessment. One of the routes for teachers to fulfil the Government's LPR is by obtaining level 3, the benchmark level on each paper in the LPAT (Coniam & Falvey, 2013).

However, due to the poor handling of the LPR, the teaching community of Hong Kong and teachers' unions responded negatively. LPR was dismissed by members of the profession as having made "little or no difference to the quality of language education, and...its main impact has been to demoralise language teachers and impose unreasonable pressures upon them" (Andrews, 2005, p. 11). The teachers also resented the test because it takes the native speaker as the model/benchmark, rather than the local English teachers. For example, they must not display any Chinese influence if they wanted to score the highest mark on pronunciation.

Between 2003 and 2005, the Hong Kong Government introduced specifications regarding subject matter knowledge and professional training. These were based on

recommendations by the Standing Committee on Language Education and Research (SCOLAR) in its 2003 report on language education. The SCOLAR report contained a series of requirements “to ensure that language teachers are adequately prepared for their work, i.e. proficient in the language they teach, well grounded in subject knowledge and acquainted with the latest theories and practices in language teaching and learning” (SCOLAR, 2003, p. 3 cited in Andrews, 2005, p. 12). The Government’s requirement was that language teachers have a “relevant degree”, that is:

a recognised degree or higher degree with substantial components on the study of English and its use. In the main, this includes degrees specifically in the study of the English language (including English studies, English literature, and linguistics), degrees in education with specialisation in English, degrees in the communicative use of English and degrees in translation with English as one of the principal languages studied.

(Hong Kong Government, 2004, p. 2, cited in Andrews, 2005, p. 13)

The above requirement means that even though LPR was still applied to measure teachers’ competencies, there were additional requirements that covered subject matter knowledge and professional training. The Government knew that many teachers had not met this minimum academic qualification within the time frame that it had set. Teachers who were enrolled in academic programs were then given an incentive grant covering 50 per cent of the course fees. With the implementation of the SCOLAR report, the Government appeared to have revised its policies. Teachers were encouraged rather than required to obtain the qualifications they lacked. Nevertheless, the policy was criticised for its focus on language as one area of instruction at the expense of the others. It was also criticised for being implemented at a less than ideal time: when Hong Kong teachers had to cope with a series of curriculum innovations resulting in heavy workload and pressure.

It is interesting to note, however, that ten years since the LPAT was first implemented, the English proficiency of EL teachers in Hong Kong has generally improved. Based on Coniam and Falvey’s (2013) review of the results of 13 LPAT administrations from 2001 to 2011, I found that the average percentage of the scores obtained by the 18,600 LPAT candidates in the last ten years is 63.74%, with the lowest being 57% achieved in 2005 and the highest 71% in 2011.

The standards of language education in Hong Kong is an illustration of an attempt by a government at imposing standards of language and language teaching on the teachers by ignoring their voices and concerns as practitioners of the profession.

Having provided an international perspective of PTS and teacher credentialing systems, I will discuss in the next section similar developments in Indonesia.

3.5 SME in Indonesia

SME in Indonesia to date has been spurred solely by a number of initiatives from the Indonesian Government and, especially, the MNERI to improve what it regarded as 'generally poor professionalism' of the country's approximately 2.7 million teachers and 0.5 million lecturers. In fact, as described in section 2.2, I considered educators' professionalisation as one of the four major educational reforms in Indonesia following the enactment of *UUGD 2005*.

In Indonesia, SME seems to have been unheard of; it is not even mentioned in the discourse about professional standards. The official publication on *PSG* by Jalal et al. (2009) titled *Teacher Certification in Indonesia: A Strategy for Teacher Quality Improvement* devotes one chapter to standards and yet it makes no mention whatsoever of SME. It does, however, present a brief review of a number of SME-inspired standards documents from around the world.

Nonetheless, the spirit of SME is quite palpable in Indonesia's educational reforms. It began with the stipulation in *UUGD 2005* of the minimum academic qualification and competency standards for teachers. This unprecedented measure made it imperative for teachers to conform to sets of academic qualification and competency standards. The stipulation was further formalised with the establishment in 2005 of *BSNP*, an independent body within the then MNERI. Established under *UUGD 2005* directives, *BSNP* has five tasks, and the first of these is to develop national education standards. (It is important to note that *BSNP* should not be confused with *BNSP* (see section 3.2 for a brief description of this institution).

Until 2009, *BSNP* has produced a total of 27 standards documents in nine areas of the education system, and the number is expected to grow. *BSNP* standards documents have been formalised as *Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional (Permendiknas)* [Minister of National Education Regulation].¹⁰ The nine areas of standards are as follows:

1. Graduate competency standards;
2. Learning content standards;
3. Learning process standards;
4. Teachers and educational personnel standards;
5. Equipment and infrastructure standards;
6. Educational management standards;
7. Cost and finance standards;
8. Educational assessment and evaluation standards;
9. Early childhood education standards.

(Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan (BSNP), 2012)

Of the nine standards areas above, the fourth area, on teachers and educational personnel standards in particular, is within the topic of this study. Since 2007, *BSNP* has issued 11 standards documents in this area (see Table 3.9).

Table 3.9 Standards documents on teachers and educational personnel produced by *BSNP*, 2007–2009

No.	<i>Permendiknas</i> Number and Year	Standards Document
1	12 Year 2007	School/ <i>Madrasah</i> Superintendent Standards
2	13 Year 2007	School/ <i>Madrasah</i> Principal Standards
3	16 Year 2007	Teachers' Academic Qualification and Competency Standards
4	24 Year 2008	School Administrative Staff Standards
5	25 Year 2008	School/ <i>Madrasah</i> Librarian Standards
6	27 Year 2008	Counsellor Academic Qualification and Competency Standards
7	40 Year 2009	Course and Training Institution Examiner Standards
8	41 Year 2009	Course and Training Institution Tutor Standards
9	42 Year 2009	Course and Training Institution Administrator Standards
10	43 Year 2009	<i>Paket A, Paket B, and Paket C</i> Administrative Staff Standards
11	44 Year 2009	<i>Paket A, Paket B, and Paket C</i> Education Administrator Standards

As described in section 2.2.1, 'teachers' include those educators working in all types and levels of general, vocational, and special needs schools, ECE centres, equivalent educational institutions (e.g. *Paket A, Paket B, Paket C* programs), and courses and training. 'Educational personnel' means individuals other than teachers, including principals,

¹⁰ Note that a number and the year of issuance are always attached to Indonesian laws, decrees, regulations etc. Also note that ministerial regulations issued before the 18th October, 2011 were still called *Permendiknas*, while those issued thereafter would be called *Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan (Permendikbud)* [Minister of Education and Culture Regulation].

superintendents, administrative staff, librarians, technicians, study group managers, tutors, and school janitors (*BSNP*, 2012). Note that standards document number 3 (in bold) in Table 3.9 pertains to the topic of the present study. The standards document is *SKAKG 2007* (MNERI, 2007), which is described in the next section.

3.5.1 SKAKG 2007

SKAKG 2007 was issued two years after *UUGD 2005* was enacted and has been a key document in implementing the teacher certification program (*PSG*) since the beginning (Jalal et al., 2009).

It is important to describe *SKAKG 2007* in this chapter for three reasons. First, it will provide the basis for a critical review of the policy in the context of SME in education. Second, as indicated in the introduction to this chapter, there has never been any detailed study conducted and/or published in Indonesia or elsewhere with regards to *SKAKG 2007* in relation to *PSG*. Such a description, as well as a critical review, will inform the wider audience of the existence, contents, purpose, and issues of *SKAKG 2007*. The third reason why the description is necessary is central to this present study; it provides a framework for discussing the perspectives on PTS of the sixty-six IETs who took part in this study.

SKAKG 2007 contains two principal professional standards statements for teachers in its two attachments. *Attachment A* states the minimum academic qualification standards, and *Attachment B* lists two sets of standards, namely:

- Teachers' Core Competencies;
- Subject Teachers' Competencies.

Before presenting the two sets of standards, however, I need to describe the development process of the PTS in *SKAKG 2007*. According to Jalal et al. (2009, pp. 36–38), when the PTS were being drafted, *BSNP* had already developed a series of standards documents for the nine areas of the national education system, except in the area of cost and finance. Eight development steps were taken throughout 'a consultative process' for standards development, which is described by Jalal et al. (2009, p. 38) as a "thorough" one.

Based on the wording of the descriptions, it seems that the same steps were taken by *BSNP* to develop all the standards documents in the nine areas of the education system.

The eight steps taken in developing the PTS in *SKAKG 2007* are summarised in Table 3.10. I have modified the wording of the eight steps to reflect only the development of this particular standards document.

Table 3.10 The eight steps taken by *BSNP* in developing the standards in *SKAKG 2007* during the 2005–2007 period (adapted from Jalal et al., 2009)

Step	Development
1	<i>UUGD 2005</i> and its regulatory documents provided a definition of the core competencies.
2	Existing documents of rules and regulations governing teacher qualifications and competencies were examined by a team of experts at <i>BSNP</i> .
3	Standards and assessment mechanisms in other countries were reviewed by the team in discussions with rectors of tertiary institutions for teacher education.
4	The first draft of <i>SKAKG</i> was written up.
5	Key stakeholders were consulted. They included teachers, teacher educators, teacher trainers, and professional associations.
6	Input obtained from Step 5 was used to modify the <i>SKAKG</i> draft.
7	The draft was made available for public comments and revisions from public hearings were incorporated.
8	The final draft of <i>SKAKG</i> was prepared and then formalised as a ministerial regulation (i.e. <i>SKAKG 2007</i>).

It is important to note that step number 5 (in bold type) in Table 3.10, which claims that key stakeholders, including teachers, teacher educators, teacher trainers, and professional associations, were consulted during the drafting of *SKAKG 2007* is at odds with the statements made by one *BSNP* commissioner and one member of the *BSNP* team of experts whom I interviewed in Jakarta, as well as those made by most of the teacher respondents of this research. When I asked them about whether or not teachers were involved in developing the PTS, the answers I received were as follows:

The commissioner said that teachers were not consulted. In fact, he said that it is not appropriate to consult them when the standards were made for them.

Of course, various people (were involved), such as some members of the House of Representatives, journalists, practitioners, [and] educational foundation leaders. Only those who have something to do with the particular standards were invited. In developing the teacher standards, we only invited the people who would *use the teachers*, such as school principals and educational foundation leaders. [Were there any teachers involved in the process?] Well, speaking of teacher (standards), I don't think we should invite teachers. It would confuse things. Why did we have to invite teachers when we wanted to *make standards for them?* (L) We invited those who would *use (employ) the teachers* (to make the standards), right? They were the ones

who would eventually use the product (the standards). For example, when we made the Graduate Competency Standards (for students), we did not invite the students; we invited those who would be using the standards, such as the teachers.

The *BSNP* expert, on the other hand, implied that a number of teachers were represented. These teachers, however, were the select few “key teachers” from several regions who had been enlisted by *BSNP* in developing various standards documents, including *SKAKG 2007*, with the *BSNP* teams in Jakarta. However, he described their role as “not a significant contribution.” He also said that given the huge number of teachers in Indonesia and the fact that they tend to be “unorganized”, it would be difficult to pinpoint which teacher organisations should be contacted to appoint one or some of their members to take part in standards development activities at *BSNP*.

Most of the teachers in the three locations were not aware of *SKAKG 2007* until I showed it to them during the interviews. They claimed that they had never heard of or seen it before, nor had they heard about any of their colleagues being involved in its development. In the end, some of them found *SKAKG 2007* and the international standards documents that I had so fascinating that they asked me to let them make their own photocopies.

While Jalal et al. (2009) might have mentioned the eight steps as *BSNP*'s standard procedures in developing the standards, it fails to note that as far as the PTS in *SKAKG 2007* are concerned, teachers' authorship is very minimal, if not none whatsoever. Notwithstanding the standard procedures, decisions to involve some teachers or no teachers at all were made at the discretion of the standards-development team in question. The logic that the standards were made *for* rather than *by* the teachers, as stated by the commissioner, seems to be the one that prevailed. The statements suggest that the decision not to involve teachers was a conscious one and that their input was absent.

The fact that the standards were made to implement a Central Government's program, i.e. *PSG*, may mean that the team was required to work within a certain time limit, effort, and budget. In this respect, maximum teacher involvement was not a logistically viable option, given the shortcomings mentioned by the member of the team of experts. It may be fair to say, therefore, that *SKAKG 2007* was developed with an extremely limited amount of input from teachers.

3.5.1.1 Academic Qualification Standards

As stated earlier, the minimum academic qualification for teachers required by this ministerial regulation is a four-year diploma (*D4*) of teaching or an undergraduate degree (*S1*) of teaching in a relevant discipline. For EL teachers, this means a qualification in ELT or in a relevant discipline such as English Literature/Linguistics. The required qualification must be obtained from a tertiary *program studi* 'study program' that has been nationally accredited. Although the standards document does not specify the study programs, it could be interpreted that they are the teaching study programs at the following teacher education institutions referred to as *LPTKs*:

- Universities that were once *IKIPs*;
- *STKIPs*;
- *FKIPs*; and
- *Fakultas Tarbiyah dan Keguruan (FTK)* [Faculty of Education and Teacher Education] at institutions such as *UIN* or *STAIN*, or similar faculties at other religion-based institutions.¹¹

The above requirement has been implemented through the existing four procedures, namely *Portfolio Assessment*, *In-service Training*, *Direct Conferral*, and *In-service Education* programs, in the current *PSG* since 2007. It also applies to the latest addition to *PSG*, that is, the Pre-service Education program for new graduates of teacher training institutions. Successful teachers undertaking these procedures receive their Educator Certificates and are entitled to monthly incentives besides their salaries.

3.5.1.2 Competency Standards

SKAKG 2007 requires all teachers to possess and put into practice four major competency standards, namely, Pedagogic, Personal, Social, and Professional Competencies. Elaborated from *UUGD 2005*, these standards consist of 24 Teachers' Core Competencies and 386 Subject Teachers' Competencies. (See Appendix 1 for a translation of these standards.)

¹¹ These institutions are under the Ministry of Religious Affairs and conduct *PSG* for teachers working for religion-based schools such as *Madrasahs*. The programs are coordinated by both the Ministry of Religious Affairs and MNERI.

a. Teachers' Core Competencies

The 24 Teachers' Core Competencies comprise 10 Core Pedagogic Competencies, 5 Core Personal Competencies, 4 Core Social Competencies, and 5 Core Professional Competencies. Table 3.11 lists the translated competencies, each of which is labelled as Ped1–Ped10 (Pedagogic), Per1–Per5 (Personal), Soc1–Soc4 (Social), and Pro1–Pro5 (Professional), respectively.

b. Subject Teachers' Competencies

The 24 Teachers' Core Competencies are further elaborated into 386 Subject Teachers' Competencies. As shown in Table 3.12, these competencies are for teachers who are categorised as follows:

1. Teachers of kindergartens and ECE centres (*TK/PAUD*);
2. Class teachers at *SD/MI*;
3. Core subject teachers at *SD/MI*, *SMP/MTs*, general *SMA/MA*, and vocational *SMK/MAK* respectively.

When it comes to what teachers teach, the three categories of teachers above point to two types of teachers. In the first type are teachers of kindergartens and ECE centres (Category 1) as well as primary school class teachers (Category 2). These teachers are responsible for teaching all the five curricular components at their levels of education. For example, at *SD/MI*, they teach Indonesian Language, Mathematics, Natural Science, Social Science, and Civics Education. They do not usually teach Religious Education, Physical Education, Arts, Local Content (e.g. EL), and Personal Development subjects as these could be taught by specialist subject teachers hired from outside the school.

In the second type are teachers of core subjects at *SD/MI*, *SMP/MTs*, *SMA/MA*, and *SMK/MAK* (Category 3 teachers). These teachers are usually the school's full-time staff members and each of them teaches one specialised subject, e.g. Religious Education, Biology, Anthropology, History, Indonesian Language, or EL.

Table 3.11 Teachers' Core Competencies in *SKAKG 2007*
(adapted and translated from Attachment B of *SKAKG 2007*)

No. Core Pedagogic Competencies: A teacher...		
1	Ped1	Is familiar with the physical, moral, social, cultural, emotional, and intellectual aspects of students' characteristics;
2	Ped2	Is knowledgeable of the theory of learning and the principles of educational teaching;
3	Ped3	Develops the curriculum related to his/her subject or field of development;
4	Ped4	Conducts educational teaching;
5	Ped5	Uses the information and communication technology for teaching;
6	Ped6	Facilitates the development of students' potentials in actualising their potentials;
7	Ped7	Communicates with students in an effective, empathetic, and courteous manner.
8	Ped8	Conducts assessments and evaluation of learning processes and outcomes;
9	Ped9	Uses assessment and evaluation for teaching purposes;
10	Ped10	Conducts reflective actions to improve the quality of teaching.
No. Core Personal Competencies: A teacher...		
11	Per1	Behaves according to the religious, legal, social, and cultural norms of Indonesia;
12	Per2	Conducts himself/herself as an honest personality, a person of integrity, and a role model to students;
13	Per3	Conducts himself/herself as a firm, stable, mature, wise, and dignified person;
14	Per4	Demonstrates work ethics, high sense of responsibility, pride as a teacher, and self-confidence;
15	Per5	Uplifts the code of conducts of the teaching profession.
No. Core Social Competencies: A teacher...		
16	Soc1	Acts in an inclusive and objective way, and refrains himself/herself from discriminative actions on the basis of gender, religion, race, physical condition, family background, and socio-economic status;
17	Soc2	Communicates effectively, empathetically, and courteously with fellow teachers, school staff, parents, and community;
18	Soc3	Is able to adapt to his/her post of duty in any part of the Republic of Indonesia which is socially and culturally diverse;
19	Soc4	Communicates with his/her own or other professional communities orally, in writing, or other means.
No. Core Professional Competencies: A teacher...		
20	Pro1	Knows the material, structure, concepts, and scientific paradigm supporting his/her subject;
21	Pro2	Possesses the standard competencies and basic competencies of teaching his/her subject;
22	Pro3	Develops the materials for his/her subject;
23	Pro4	Maintains continual professional development by conducting reflective activities;
24	Pro5	Uses information and communication technology for communication and self-development.

- **Subject Teachers' Competencies in General**

As pointed out earlier, for all teachers across the three categories, there are a total of 386 Subject Teachers' Competencies based on the 24 Teachers' Core Competencies. This is summarised in Table 3.12.

Table 3.12 Distribution of Subject Teachers' Competencies in SKAKG 2007 based on Teachers' Core Competencies and across three categories of teachers

No.	Teachers' Core Competency No.	Number of Subject Teachers' Competencies			Total
		Category 1	Category 2	Category 3	
		Early Childhood Edu. (TK/PAUD)	Class Teachers: (SD/MI)	Core Subject Teachers: SD/MI, SMP/MTs; SMA/MA; SMK/MAK	
1	Ped1	4	4	4	12
2	Ped2	2	3	2	7
3	Ped3	6	6	6	18
4	Ped4	8	6	6	20
5	Ped5	1	1	1	3
6	Ped6	1	2	2	5
7	Ped7	2	2	2	6
8	Ped8	7	7	7	21
9	Ped9	4	4	4	12
10	Ped10	3	3	3	9
11	Per1	2	2	2	6
12	Per2	3	3	3	9
13	Per3	2	2	2	6
14	Per4	3	3	3	9
15	Per5	3	3	3	9
16	Soc1	2	2	2	6
17	Soc2	3	3	3	9
18	Soc3	2	2	2	6
19	Soc4	2	2	2	6
20	Pro1	3	21	150	174
21	Pro2	3	3	3	9
22	Pro3	2	2	2	6
23	Pro4	4	4	4	12
24	Pro5	2	2	2	6
Total		74	92	220	386

Table 3.12 shows that most of the Teachers' Core Competencies are similar in number and statements because, as Jalal et al. (2009, p. 48) pointed out, "they address fairly common characteristics of teachers". However, teacher knowledge, skills, and attitudes in the particular subject areas that they teach are emphasised as well (Jalal et al., 2009, p. 48).

Notwithstanding the similarities in Teachers' Core Competencies, there are similarities and differences in the number of and statements of the Subject Teachers' Competencies. These are illustrated in Table 3.13 using Ped1 and Ped6. Key terms are highlighted in bold.

Ped1 has four Subject Teachers' Competencies for all teachers, while Ped6 has one Subject Teachers' Competency for *TK/PAUD* teachers and two for the two other categories of teachers. When it comes to the key terms, two points can be made here:

Table 3.13 Examples of the slight differences in the number of Subject Teachers' Competencies of two Teachers' Core Competencies in *SKAKG 2007*

Teachers' Core Competence No.	Number of Subject Teachers' Competencies		
	Early Childhood Education (<i>TK/PAUD</i>)	Class Teachers: <i>SD/MI</i>	Core Subject Teachers: <i>SD/MI; SMP/MTs; SMA/MA; SMK/MAK</i>
Ped1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understands the characteristics of <i>TK/PAUD</i> students regarding their physical, intellectual, social-emotional, moral, social-cultural background aspects; • Identifies <i>TK/PAUD</i> students' potentials in various developmental areas; • Identifies <i>TK/PAUD</i> students' initial abilities in various developmental areas; • Identifies <i>TK/PAUD</i> students' difficulties in various developmental areas. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understands the characteristics of <i>SD/MI</i> students regarding their physical, intellectual, social-emotional, moral, social-cultural background aspects; • Identifies <i>SD/MI</i> students' potentials in the five <i>SD/MI</i> subjects; • Identifies <i>SD/MI</i> students' initial abilities in the five <i>SD/MI</i> subjects; • Identifies <i>SD/MI</i> students' difficulties in the five <i>SD/MI</i> subjects. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understands the characteristics of students regarding their physical, intellectual, social-emotional, moral, social-cultural background aspects; • Identifies students' potentials in the subject taught; • Identifies students' initial abilities in the subject taught; • Identifies students' difficulties in the subject taught.
Ped6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides various playing-while-learning activities to encourage students to develop their optimum potentials, including their creativity. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides various learning activities to encourage students to reach optimum achievements; • Provides various learning activities to actualise students' potentials, including their creativity. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides various learning activities to encourage students to reach optimum achievements; • Provides various learning activities to actualise students' potentials, including their creativity.

First, as Ped1 shows, the curricular areas are called:

- 'various developmental areas' in *TK/PAUD* Subject Teachers' Competencies;
- 'five *SD/MI* subjects' in *SD/MI* Subject Teachers' Competencies;
- 'the subjects taught' in *SMA/MA/SMK/MAK* Subject Teachers' Competencies.

Second, as Ped6 shows, classroom activities are referred to as:

- 'playing-while-learning activities' in *TK/PAUD* Subject Teachers' Competencies;
- 'learning activities' in *SD/MI, SMP/MTs, SMA/MA, and SMK/MAK* Subject Teachers' Competencies.

Across the three categories of teachers, emphases are placed equally or differently depending, on the most part, on the contents of the curricular areas taught, delivery methods, and characteristics of students.

To look specifically at Table 3.12, there are four Teachers' Core Competencies that are elaborated into varying numbers of Subject Teachers' Competencies. They are Ped1, Ped4, Ped6, and Pro1. Of these, Pro1 (highlighted in bold), which states that "A teacher knows the material, structure, concepts, and scientific paradigm supporting his/her subject", is of significance. It has the largest number of and most varied Subject Teachers' Competencies, i.e. 3 for *TK/PAUD* class teachers, 21 for the five *SD/MI* subjects teachers, and 150 for the *SD/MI*, *SMP/MTs*, *SMA/MA/SMK/MAK* core subject teachers.

To focus on language teachers under Pro1, the 150 Subject Teachers' Competencies contain standards for 23 different subject teachers, including teachers of Indonesian Language, EL, and other foreign language teachers. These are shown in Table 3.14 in which the dots refer to the levels of education where the core subjects are taught. The last column shows the number of Subject Teachers' Competencies formulated in *SKAKG 2007* for teaching them.

Using Table 3.14 as a reference, the next section will describe in detail the specific competencies for languages teachers.

- **Subject Teachers' Competencies for Languages Teachers**

There are two groups of language teachers in *SKAKG 2007*. They are *Bahasa Indonesia* (Indonesian Language) teachers and foreign language teachers. There are differences between the standards for Indonesian Language teachers (No. 17) and those for foreign languages teachers (No. 18.1—18.6).

Table 3.14 The number of Subject Teachers' Competencies for the core subjects by level of education in SKAKG 2007

No.	Core Subjects	Taught at				Number of specific standards
		SD/MI	SMP/MTs	SMA/MA	SMK/MAK	
1	Religious Education, i.e. Islam, Christianity, Catholicism, Hinduism, Buddhism, and Confucian (2 standards each)	•	•	•	•	12
2	Civics Education	•	•	•	•	3
3	Arts and Culture (and Craftmanship)	•	•	•	•	2
4	Physical, Sport, and Health Education	•	•	•	•	9
5	Mathematics	•	•	•	•	13
6	Information and Communication Technology		•	•	•	16
7	Natural Science	•	•		•	14
8	Biology			•	•	14
9	Physics			•	•	14
10	Chemistry			•	•	14
11	Social Science	•	•		•	4
12	Economics			•	•	3
13	Sociology			•	•	3
14	Anthropology			•	•	3
15	Geography			•	•	4
16	History			•	•	4
17	Indonesian Language	•	•	•	•	6
18.1.	English Language	•	•	•	•	2
18.2.	Arabic Language			•	•	2
18.3.	German Language			•	•	2
18.4.	French Language			•	•	2
18.5.	Japanese Language			•	•	2
18.6.	Mandarin Language			•	•	2
Total						150

Indonesian Language teachers at *SMP/MTs*, *SMA/MA*, and *SMK/MAK* are expected:

1. To have an understanding of the concepts, theories, and materials of the various linguistic schools of thoughts that are relevant to language teaching materials;
2. To have an understanding of the philosophy of language and language acquisition;
3. To have an understanding of the status, function, and variety of Indonesian language(s);
4. To master the grammar of *Bahasa Indonesia* as reference for using *Bahasa Indonesia* properly and correctly;
5. To have an understanding of the theories and genres of Indonesian literature;
6. To appreciate literary works receptively and productively.

(MNERI, 2007, p. 30; Tr.)

This shows that Indonesian Language teachers are expected to be competent in teaching not only Indonesian linguistics but also Indonesian for everyday communication, and Indonesian literature.

The Subject Teachers' Competencies for foreign languages teachers, including EL teachers (No. 18.1) number just one-third of those for Indonesian Language teachers above. For example, Subject Teachers' Competency No.18.1, stipulates that EL teachers in all types of schools in Indonesia are required:

1. To possess the knowledge of the various linguistic aspects of the English language (linguistics, discourse, sociolinguistics, and strategy);
2. To have a good command of spoken, written, receptive, and productive English in all its communicative aspects (linguistics, discourse, sociolinguistics, and strategic).

(MNERI, 2007, p. 31; Tr.)

It needs pointing out that the Subject Teachers' Competencies for the other five foreign languages, namely, Arabic, German, French, Japanese, and Mandarin, are stated in exactly the same way as the ones for EL teachers above. That is, they are focused on the same *linguistic* and *communicative* aspects of the languages in which the teachers are expected to be competent. For example, the Subject Teachers' Competencies for Japanese Language teachers are as follows:

1. To possess the knowledge of the various linguistic aspects of the Japanese language (linguistics, discourse, sociolinguistics, and strategy);
2. To have a good command of spoken, written, receptive, and productive Japanese in all its communicative aspects (linguistics, discourse, sociolinguistics, and strategic).

(MNERI, 2007; Tr.)

Until now, *SKAKG 2007* has never been looked at seriously. Educational stakeholders in Indonesia have been more enthusiastic about debating the implementation and outcomes of *PSG*, overlooking the philosophical basis for the programs that is *SKAKG 2007*. The debate on issues relevant to PTS has so far been superficial, oblivious of the existence of *SKAKG 2007*, and inconclusive particularly about how to improve the PTS document, making it subject-specific for IETs, for instance. The debate is discussed in the next section.

3.6 Debate on PTS for IETs in Indonesia

The enactment of *UUGD 2005* which requires Indonesian educators (i.e. teachers and lecturers) to demonstrate professional, pedagogic, social, and personal competencies has been welcomed by the Indonesian TEFL community with enthusiasm. The promise of

professional recognition and improved welfare for certified educators has made many teachers eager to obtain their certificates.

At the same time, however, concerns about IETs' qualifications and competencies have prompted a call for more research studies to be conducted on the issue, and have renewed previous calls for the IETs' professional standards (Rohayati & Naning, 2003) to be formulated at the national level, and for other related aspects, including teacher preparation, recruitment, and pre- and in-service training, to be reformed. A number of local, regional, and national seminars and workshops, and even international conferences, on TEFL held in Indonesia in recent years have included such topics as IETs' qualifications, competencies, and professionalism in light of *UUGD 2005* and its compulsory national teacher certification programs. During these meetings, a number of speakers and, especially, teacher-participants expressed their concerns about the fact that IETs taking part in the teacher certification program are assessed only on the basis of the prescribed components of the four major competencies in *UUGD 2005* and its subsequent operating procedures, which also apply to teachers of all the other subjects. The fundamental requirements in teaching the teachers' particular subjects seem to have been overlooked. For IETs, the fundamental requirements were, among others, language proficiency (Korompot, 2007; Saukah, 2007) and language teaching proficiency (Korompot, 2007; Musthafa, 2008).

Nevertheless, as far as IETs' qualifications and competencies go, TEFL academics and practitioners in the Indonesian context have not yet come to an agreement about what needs to be standardised, and how to go about them in the current situation (Coleman, 2008; Duncumb, 2008). Responding to a participant's question during his presentation on professional development of competent IETs, Musthafa (2008) lamented the lack of progress on the part of Indonesian TEFL professional organisations in tackling the issue of IETs' PTS and the utilisation of PTS for *PSG* purposes.

Debates on these issues among TEFL academics and practitioners in the Indonesian context show that the Indonesian TEFL profession has become increasingly aware of professional standards for its members. Thus far, the debates have centred around two major themes, which are also pertinent to the topic of this study: the qualities of 'good' EL

teachers, which has been the topic of a number of small scale studies in Indonesia, and the professional standards of Indonesian EL teachers, which, to date, have not been investigated further.

3.6.1 Competencies of 'Good' EL Teachers

Academics, practitioners, and researchers of TEFL in the Indonesian context have linked the call for formulating the professional standards of qualifications and competencies of IETs (with regard to teacher certification requirements) to the search for the 'good' EL teacher. As shown by the recent studies on this topic, those teachers who are described as 'good' EL teachers, according to the subjects involved in and sources reviewed for the studies, are those who have met the standards of 'best practice' in second language (L2) teaching (Scarino, Papademetre & Dellit, 2004 cited in Liddicoat et al., 2005).

In terms of the points of view of the people involved, the studies reviewed in this section fall into three types, as discussed in the next sections.

3.6.1.1 Studies Involving Students

Rosdiawati and Agustin (2003) enlisted a group of university students to observe their own lecturers' teaching performance using what they call the Student Classroom Observation (SCO) form, a questionnaire, and probing interviews. They wanted to know how the students rated their own lecturers' teaching skill and to offer an alternative way of evaluating lecturers' classroom performance. The study began with an argument that the types of evaluation used to measure students' performance abound, and yet the types of evaluation for teachers' teaching skill seem very limited in number. Based on the findings of the study, Rosdiawati and Agustin conclude that as the people who not only "watch the show" but also "feel the show", students are the "right people to evaluate teacher's classroom performance" and that they have "their own standards of an ideal teacher" (Rosdiawati & Agustin, 2003).

In another study with students as the research subjects, one hundred undergraduate students of the English department of a major university in South Sulawesi Province took part in Sadik's (2007) investigation into students' perspectives on the good language

teacher. The teachers were asked to rate their agreement to 15 statements about the qualities of a good language teacher. The statements were adapted with some modification from the work of Tomlinson (2003 as cited in Sadik, 2007) and they fell into two main categories: personality characteristics and pedagogical expertise of the teacher. These include such statements as “The good language teacher...(1) is patient and supportive; (6) is a good communicator; (12) has a large repertoire of pedagogical procedures; and (15) is well organized” (adapted from Sadik, 2007). The findings reveal the students’ emphasis on the teacher’s patience, support, sense of humour, enthusiasm, personality, creativity, flexibility, and communicative ability—all the qualities of a person with excellent interpersonal and interactive skills.

3.6.1.2 Studies Involving Students and Teachers

In her study of a total of 240 *D3*, *S1*, *S2*, and some 20 language teachers of a major tertiary agricultural institute in West Java, Purjayanti (2007) used an open-ended questionnaire containing questions about two basic ideas: the ideal characteristics expected of language teachers and the characteristics of the good language teachers. Although the different groups of students gave varying responses, the majority tended to favour teachers who are “friendly, warm and able to build personal contact with students” (Purjayanti, 2007).

In another study on the same issue, Listyani (2007) consulted a group of local university students and four of their lecturers (including one native speaker) about what makes a good language teacher. The report concludes that “extraordinary knowledge and good skills are not the top priority” and that a good language teacher “who is favored is the one who can understand, motivate the students, and can be a good friend for them” and the one who should also be ready “to help our students to grow, not only in their horizon and knowledge, but also in their independence and maturity” (Listyani, 2007).

Similar findings were reported by Retnowati (2007) who used an open-ended questionnaire to obtain the opinions of a group of students and teachers of a junior high school, a senior high school, and a university. She asked the respondents about what makes a good EL teacher, and whether the criteria relate to EL teachers’ (1) teaching method, (2)

personality, (3) (teacher's) knowledge, and (4) teaching materials. She wanted to compare the students' and teachers' views on the issue. The findings of her study show that teachers and students have differing views about which of the four aspects is important. While most students, regardless of their levels of education, liked teachers who have such favourable personal traits as being patient, understanding, appreciative, attentive, and motivating, most of the teachers, on the other hand, placed more emphasis on their own teaching method and subject matter knowledge. These findings are consistent with those of the other studies reviewed above, including Sadik's (2007).

3.6.1.3 Studies on 'Good Teachers' Literature

The other authors did not carry out research studies to deal with this issue, but rather reviewed and discussed the relevant literature on what is expected of EL teachers. Sosiowati (2007) analysed various sources on good teacher characteristics and reflected on her own experience as a teacher and teacher educator. She concludes that EL teachers need to have both hard skills and soft skills in themselves and in their teaching, and ultimately help their students develop these skills. According to her, the soft skills relate to such characteristics as having good mastery of the teaching material, having positive attitudes toward the target language, being patient, fair and friendly, knowing how to motivate the student, being familiar with technology, and being able to make the student learn actively. The hard skills, in her opinion, include the abilities to work in a team, lead the student, communicate, maintain discipline, show self-confidence, be honest, integrate with other people, have strong work ethics, and be creative.

The basic ideas of all of the above skills can be seen in Octaberlina's (2007) analysis and reflection on EL teachers' daily activities. She suggests that "good or maybe perfect English teachers" (Octaberlina, 2007) must have three important characteristics: having appropriate and various teaching techniques, keeping up with the recent English studies and knowledge, and having a good personality. The other writer, Suwartono (2007) concurs and considers the teacher's role as 'central' to student's learning, that the teacher is "an important source of language input" and "is expected to serve as a good linguistic model" for

the students. Therefore, the good EL teacher in line with this argument is one who speaks the target language in classroom interaction (Suwartono, 2007). In his presentation on how competent EL teachers develop professionally, Musthafa (2008) supports Suwartono's argument by underlining the need for an EL teacher to "know English and [be] able to use it for communicative purposes", which include classroom interaction.

As the above studies have shown there has been a growing interest among Indonesian ELT specialists in the conceptualisation of a 'good' EL teacher in the Indonesian context. The information gained from these studies may be used, in the context of this present study, as one of the references for consulting teachers on formulating professional standards of EL teachers because it reflects "what teachers should know and should be able to do" (Sachs, 2003; Zuzovsky & Libman, 2006). However, while these studies have contributed to the current literature on the 'ideal' or 'good' Indonesian EL teachers, it is not clear what the rationale was for conducting such small-scale studies, apart from responding to the calls for papers for international conferences on TEFL in Indonesia in which 'qualities of the 'good' EL teacher' had been on the agenda. Moreover, these studies also lack sufficient theoretical underpinnings as evident in the absence of such theories as LTC theory and teacher language awareness in the literature reviewed and discussion of findings. The only other materials on ELT standards in the Indonesian context available to date were Prihantoro (2007) and Sumardiyani and Sakhiyya (2008). However, these two sources did not make any suggestion as to how the standards should ideally be developed.

The gap in our current understanding about Indonesian EL teachers' professional standards, therefore, remains open for a larger scale study involving the Indonesian ELT professionals themselves.

3.6.2 PTS for IETs

Nia Rohayati and Zainal A. Naning were among the first few Indonesian ELT specialists who wrote about the importance of standards. In their paper (Rohayati & Naning, 2003), they examine several standards documents from the U.S. and offer what they refer to as the "standards for the Indonesian teachers of English and standards for Indonesian learners of

English” (p. 11). These documents are the California Standards for the Teaching Profession (CSTP), the National Standards for Foreign Language Education (NSFLE), and the Standards for Foreign Language Learning (SFLL). They argue that these standards provide Indonesian TEFL professionals with ideas which may be used for setting Indonesian EL teachers’ own professional standards and standards of students’ EL learning.

Based on CSTP, teachers are expected to be able to meet six standards of teaching practice highlighted in the paper. These are: (1) engaging and supporting all students in learning, (2) creating and maintaining effective environments for student learning, (3) understanding and organising subject matter for student learning, (4) planning instruction and designing learning experiences for all students, (5) assessing student learning, and (6) developing as a professional educator. Details of standards of teaching such as these, however, are missing from Rohayati and Naning’s description of the NSFLE document. It is only described as resulting from a project of nine U.S. teacher organisations whose task force was undertaken by eleven language teacher members. Under the auspices of the U.S. Department of Education and the National Endowment for the Humanities, the task force’s responsibility was to define content standards, that is, what students should know and be able to do in foreign language education.

The third document reviewed was the SFLL which was first published in 1996. Just like the NSFLE, this document “articulates the essential skills and knowledge language learners need in order to achieve the foreign language education goals” (Rohayati & Naning, 2003). The standards are organised around five main goals: communication, cultures, connections, comparisons, and communities. Eleven standards in total, distributed among these goal categories, are the content standards that, according to Rohayati and Naning (2003), ostensibly give foreign language students “the powerful key to successful communication: knowing how, when, and why to say what to whom.” For example, under the goal: “Communicate in languages other than English,” there are three standards for students learning of foreign languages in the U.S. These are:

Standard 1.1 Students engage in conversations, provide and obtain information, express feelings and emotions, and exchange opinions.

- Standard 1.2 Students understand and interpret written and spoken language on a variety of topics.
- Standard 1.3 Students present information, concepts, and ideas to an audience of listening or readers on a variety of topics.
(Rohayati & Naning, 2003, pp. 7–8)

Apart from informing the readers about those standards of EL teaching and learning and, to some extent, how they were formulated and what they can be used for in the Indonesian context, the authors have not addressed a number of fundamental issues. These include the steps that need to be taken if the Indonesian TEFL professional community is to develop its own standards of EL teaching and learning such as the above, the local circumstances to be taken into account in setting such standards, the extent to which the government and other stakeholders should be involved, and, finally, whether or not the standards should have a place within the system of an established educational policy (e.g. teacher certification) and the workings of a professional organisation (e.g. Indonesia's TEFLIN [Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Indonesia]).

During TEFLIN's 55th International Conference at *UIN* Syarif Hidayatullah Jakarta in December 2007, Prihantoro presented a paper discussing two main points: professional English [EFL] teachers (PET) and professional standards for ELT in Indonesia. Citing the work of Richards and Nunan (1990) and Bolitho (1991), he described a PET as one who has 'the right attitude' and one who keeps on "developing his or her skill and knowledge" (Prihantoro, 2007, p. 94). Regarding professional standards, the author asks these seven questions: Who defines the standards? Who are the standards for? What kind of standards are we going to define? What will be standardised? Are you going to set your own standards or adapt based on others? (sic) Are the standards obligatory or voluntary? What kind of assessment can be used to measure the standards? In answering these questions, Prihantoro cites Arey's (2002) four 'focal aspects' in establishing standards for ELT: 'compatibility, security and reliability, nature and purpose, control of standard' (Prihantoro, 2007, p. 95), which emphasise the involvement of 'teaching (academic) communities'. The author provides a comprehensive definition of PET in terms of personal qualities, skill-related qualities, and knowledge-related qualities of the teacher. However, on standards development, no attempt was made to answer the seven questions above and the author

fails to elaborate on the extent to which ELT teaching communities can play a role in standard setting, let alone within the current teacher certification program.

During this conference, a workshop presentation on the issue of setting the subject-specific standards of Indonesian EL teachers was held (Korompot, 2007). The workshop engaged the teachers in evaluating the ten requirements of the then recently-introduced general, in-service teacher certification, and in assessing the potential of making the program more subject specific. The basic argument was that ELT, as a specific part of the teaching profession, needs teachers with specific skills in both the language and the teaching of the language particularly within a specific foreign language learning environment such as Indonesia. The workshop was able to generate ideas about what the teachers (i.e. EL teacher trainees, teacher educators, teachers, lecturers, and researchers) thought was lacking from or worthy of inclusion in the requirements, as far as subject-specific ELT qualifications and competencies are concerned. For instance, the teachers saw as essential the need to require EL teachers to obtain a high score in an EL proficiency test, and to have their classroom lessons observed by an ELT specialist rather than just by their principal or school inspector. The workshop was also able to highlight the issue of a subject-specific EL teacher certification as a future direction. However, it was impossible to obtain more ideas from the teachers and for improving Indonesian EL teachers' specific qualifications, competencies, and certification requirements and to discuss them during such a short workshop presentation. For instance, at the end of the workshop, the issue of 'the best practice' in ELT for the purpose of fulfilling classroom observation requirement remained inadequately unaddressed.

The gap was filled partially in Bandung in April 2008, during a workshop presentation at yet another international conference on TEFL in Indonesia. The workshop (Korompot, 2008) was based on the notion that if teacher certification was to be made more subject specific for EL teachers, then it is essential to make sure that EL teachers know what is expected of them during an EL classroom observation. The teachers were then provided with the standard, generic classroom observation sheet and asked to look at it from a critical point of view. The teachers agreed with the presenter that the observation sheet was designed for

observing all classroom lessons, including English language lessons, and that it would be ideal to have one that is specifically designed for observing EL teachers' classroom performance. Teachers were then provided with an ELT observation sheet which contained specific classroom skills expected of an EL teacher. Most of the teachers preferred the latter as it showed exactly what an EL teacher needs to do in the classroom to help his/her students learn the language. At the end of the workshop, the teachers were provided with another list of more than 80 skills an EL teacher should have. The list was developed based on various sources on ELT in both the ESL and EFL contexts (Korompot, 2008). Again, due to time limitation and the nature of the workshop as well as of the conference, the workshop could only manage to arouse the teachers' interest in subject-specific ELT skills. As a result, a number of important, EL professional standards-related issues inside and/or outside the national teacher certification program, remained unaddressed completely.

At Asia TEFL 2008, another international conference on ELT held in Bali in August 2008, Sumardiyani and Sakhiyya (2008) presented a paper discussing the current teacher certification program as an effort to set the standards that measure teachers' professionalism, and they referred to the outcomes of a national survey showing a large number of teachers in Indonesian schools not meeting the minimum academic qualification. They also criticised the program for using general parameters for all teachers and for failing to reflect the competencies expected of teachers and by users. The authors then developed their argument around four questions regarding standards for EFL teachers, their implications, improvement to the existing standards, and whether the certification program is a milestone for Indonesia or a setback (when compared to similar programs in other countries). A chart outlining the competencies/standards, instruments, procedures, and assessors of general teacher certification in Indonesia in comparison to ESOL teacher certification programs in the U.S., Canada, and Australia is given. This is followed by an analysis of the four components above using the A-R-L method (Approximation, Refinement, and Limit). In the conclusion, the authors suggest that there are a few fundamental problems with the current program and that it should be made specific, reflecting the particular professional competencies of not only the EFL teachers but also the superintendents and

assessors involved. In addition, it should also be done on an ongoing basis for the sake of individual or collective teacher development.

The authors share concerns expressed earlier about the lack of recognition of teachers' subject specialisation in the current certification system. It is interesting to see how they use a method derived from the study of calculus to view the aspects of Indonesian teacher certification against those of other countries where subject-specific ESOL teacher certification has been put in place. However, the fundamental flaw of the article becomes obvious when the authors: 1) say that certification is done only through portfolio assessment, thus ignoring the fact that teacher certification is also done through teacher education (which they do not mention), which is to a large extent subject specific; 2) fail to elaborate on the standards of competencies and certification procedures they consider essential in order to certify IETs.

This section has discussed the debate that exists in Indonesia regarding PTS for IETs. The debate has been quite lively, which indicates the enthusiasm that both ELT academics and practitioners have about what future the PTS and PSG will bring the ELT profession in Indonesia. What seems to be lacking in the debate, however, is a critique of the two generic IET competency statements in *SKAKG 2007*, whether they are sufficient, whether something has to be done to improve them, and whether they actually reflect the current thinking in the literature on PTS for EL teachers. What follows is a discussion of the literature on teacher competencies with a special focus on EL teacher competencies in the EFL context such as Indonesia.

3.7 EL Teacher Competencies

As described in the Introduction, this literature review chapter deals with seven sections, the sixth of which is a discussion of the points in regards to EL teacher competencies. To provide a description of the competencies, I conducted a survey of the literature on teacher competencies described or contained in various sources including PTS documents from around the world, such as ACTA (2006; 2012), ACTFL (2012), DEEWR (2008a), InTASC (2011), NBPTS (2010), NSWIT (2010), PSPL (2012), TESOL (2008), AATE, ALEA, DETV,

and EDWA (2002), and *SKAKG 2007*. The non-PTS sources include Strong & Hogan (1994), Ur (1996), Woods (1996), Freeman & Johnson (1998, p. 406), Kennedy (2000), Short and Echevarria (2005), Spratt, Pulverness and Williams (2005), Borg (2006b, p. 283), Liddicoat (2006a), Brown (2007a, 2007b), Harmer (2007a, 2007b), and Kirby and Crawford (2012, pp. 14–15). The result was a list of EL teacher competencies (see Appendix 27) that I categorised into three themes, namely teacher knowledge, teacher skills, and teacher dispositions. In the following sections, the list is presented in Tables 3.15, 3.16, and 3.17, each of which contains the aspects of the three themes, followed by components and sub-components, where applicable. Following each table is a discussion of what the literature in general says about each of the main aspect. (Components and sub-components are not discussed further due to word-length limit.)

3.7.1 Teacher Knowledge

Teacher knowledge is described in the literature as what teachers are expected to know in order to be admitted to the teaching profession. It is defined as “an internalised map of the conceptual structure of the subject, acquired through disciplinary training” (Muller, J. (2007) cited in Fordham, Burn, Chapman, & Counsell, 2012, p. 2) The literature reviewed for this study suggests that professional EL teachers should have the knowledge about three main aspects, namely students, EL, and ELT. These are summarised in Table 3.15.

Table 3.15 EL teacher knowledge based on the reviewed literature

Main Aspect	Component	Sub-component
Students	Students and their backgrounds	
	Students’ culture and diversity	Student advocacy
EL	Domains, components, and variations in use.	Social English and academic English
	Acquisition	Linguistic, psychological, instructional, external, and other factors
ELT	Curriculum, syllabus & materials	
	Cultural context	
	Expectations from ‘others’	
	Theoretical context	Theory, practice & research, learning, teaching
	Political context	Government policies, government practice, teacher attitudes
	Methodology	Teaching approaches, methods, techniques & strategies.

3.7.1.1 Students

EL teachers should be familiar with their students, particularly the factors that influence or have an impact on student learning. Students' learning processes differ and are influenced by a number of social, cognitive, and affective factors (R. Ellis, 2004, p. 525), which are summed up by Dörnyei (2005, pp. 7-8) as the 'core variables' of personality, temperament, mood, language aptitude, motivation, self-motivation, learning styles, cognitive styles, language learning strategies, student self-regulation, as well as the 'optional variables' of anxiety, creativity, willingness to communicate, self-esteem, and learner beliefs (cf. R. Ellis, 2004, p. 528; Renandya, 2013)

These "individual difference" factors have long been recognised and established in research on teachers' knowledge of students in general education, e.g. Mayer and Marland (1997), second language acquisition and second language teaching e.g. Freeman and Johnson (1998, p. 412), and then later on in LTC, as one of its elements and processes (Borg, 2006b, p. 283), and in current PTS documents, e.g. NBPTS ENL Standards (NBPTS, 2010). Therefore, it is imperative that EL teachers inform themselves of students' individual differences in second language learning.

3.7.1.2 English Language (EL)

EL teachers should be aware of the various aspects of English because these have a deep impact on students and student learning. English is the "subject-matter knowledge" (Carter, 1990, p. 292) that EL teachers must have deep knowledge of (Grossman, Schoenfeld & Lee, 2005, p. 201). Metzler and Woessmann (2010) justified this by saying that teachers' subject knowledge exerts a statistically and quantitatively significant impact on students' achievement.

However, developing subject matter knowledge of English is not EL teachers' own responsibility because the system in which they are trained bears the responsibility, too. According to Trappes-Lomax and Ferguson (2002) and Watanabe (2004, p. 350), the development of knowledge about the target language should be a core goal in language teacher education. In an EFL country like Indonesia, this makes logical sense because unlike

native English speaker teachers (NESTs), to whom English is “an accident of birth and geography,” Indonesian EL teachers must learn English “as content” (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 404) and in the same way as their learners (E. M. Ellis, 2006).

‘Content’ may refer to the four major skills (i.e. listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and the components such as grammar (Borg, 1998; R. Ellis, 2005; Mangubhai, 2006), vocabulary (Fillmore & Snow, 2000, pp. 17–19), and aspects of linguistics (Fillmore and Snow, 2000), and its sub-fields (Halliday, McIntosh & Strevens, 1964; Wilkins, 1974), as well as other related areas such as literature (Short & Candlin, 1986; McKay, 1986; Kachru, 1986) and culture as well as intercultural understanding (Nault, 2006; Byram & Feng, 2004; Cortazzi & Jin, 2011; Shemshadsara, 2012). Nevertheless, in its broader sense, subject-matter knowledge may also be extended to knowledge of non-EFL subject matters (NSWIT, 2010).

An important point from the literature regarding English as an international language (EIL) (e.g. Pennycook, 1994), English as a (global) lingua franca (ELF) (Seidlhofer, 2005), and World Englishes (WE) (see e.g. Allsagoff, McKay, Hu, & Renandya, 2012; Floris, 2013; Matsuda, 2012; Zacharias, 2003). Teachers need to be aware of these developments and need to address the following issues and their implications for ELT (see e.g. Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Swain, Kirkpatrick, & Cummins, 2011):

- How should English be taught in light of its role as an international language?
- What kind(s) of English should we teach?
- Does the teaching of English mean that we neglect the role of our L1 and our own local culture?
- Who is the best English teacher (e.g. native speakers or non-native speakers)?

(Zacharias, 2003)

3.7.1.3 ELT

EL teachers should be informed and inform themselves of all matters related to ELT. Two areas of importance here are EL curricular matters and ELT methodology. Knowledge of the EL curriculum is essential because curriculum is one of the many pieces of information a teacher needs in planning, executing, and assessing instructional activities. The emphasis

here is on the vital importance of having clear goals in teaching. According to Darling-Hammond et al. (2005, p. 171), “the teacher who lacks clear goals and sense of purpose is likely to have difficulty making sensible, consistent decisions about what to teach, when, and how.”

Knowledge of ELT methodology is of utmost importance for EL teachers for many reasons. Firstly, ELT methodology has its own uniqueness, therefore it should be guided by a certain language teaching methodology (Nunan (1991). Secondly, ELT teaching methods are constantly changing or characterised by innovations (Larsen-Freeman, 1987). Therefore, to discuss “the best methods to teach English,” EL teachers must make themselves aware of the “postmethod” discourse (Kumaradivelu, 1994, 2001, 2003), an alternative to the “transmission model of education” (Kumaradivelu, 2001) which characterises the traditional teaching methodology for EL teachers to date. To ensure the effectiveness of the methods and/or postmethods approaches, EL teachers should:

behave in a friendly and personal manner while maintaining appropriate teacher-student role structure...demonstrate a sense of fun and a willingness to play or participate...[and] have a good sense of humor and are willing to share jokes. (Stronge, 2002, p. 17)

The foregoing discussion has made it clear that EL teachers must make themselves familiar with the curricular and methodological matters regarding ELT. However, having this knowledge does not necessarily mean having the skills required to implement it in instructional activities. In the next section, ELT will be discussed once again as a set of skills.

3.7.2 Teacher Skills

Teacher skills are described in the literature as what teachers are expected to be able to do to ensure their students’ success in learning with the quality of instruction that they provide (Short & Echevarria, 2005). The literature also suggests that professional EL teachers’ skills may be divided into four main aspects. They are EL proficiency, ELT classroom instruction, and ELT assessment and evaluation. These aspects of teacher skills are summarised in Table 3.16.

Table 3.16 EL teacher skills based on the reviewed literature

Main Aspect	Component	Sub-component
EL Proficiency	EL skills	Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing
	EL components	Grammar, Vocabulary, Culture
Planning	Lesson planning	
	Recognition of prior learning	
	Connecting EL to other subjects	
Classroom Instruction	Providing effective instruction	
	Engaging and motivating students	
	Providing students with EL instruction	
	Students' critical thinking	
	Individualising instruction	
	Using the target language	
	Classroom interaction	
	Collaboration with colleagues	
	Management of learning	
	Teacher-student rapport	
	Independent learning	
	Teaching strategies	
	EL learning atmosphere	
	Accommodating students' background, levels and abilities	
	EL acquisition	
	Contextualising EL learning	Making homework meaningful and useful for students
	Providing EL models to students	
	Providing feedback	
	Appropriate ELT methodology	
	Cultural (cross-cultural factors)	
	Adapting to students' needs and interest	
	Adapting to students' learning styles	
	Using resources, media, and technology	
	Using students' L1	
Being aware of EL learning theories		
Monitoring learning progress		
Ensuring help is available		
Creating class dynamics		
Classroom management		
Administrative responsibilities		
Freedom of expression and respect		
Assessment & Evaluation	Using a range of EL assessment techniques	Visual literacy
	Using information from assessment to guide instructional approaches	
	Using teachers' own assessment	
	Using assessment to improve student learning	
	Making assessment relevant to the curriculum and tests	
	Evaluation	Involving students in evaluating teaching/learning

3.7.2.1 EL Proficiency

Besides having an awareness of EL, EL teachers must have a good level of EL proficiency. They must be proficient in the language skills and components which form the “content” (Freeman & Johnson, 1998) that they must learn as language learners themselves and be reasonably good at as teachers in order to teach their students and make them proficient in the target language (see Table 3.16). EL teachers’ proficiency needs highlighting because, in instructional settings, teachers are the principal providers of ‘input’ to their students, are responsible for handling “learner output”, and are expected to develop their students’ “fluency” (Renandya, 2013, pp. 1-2 & 8).

3.7.2.2 Planning

EL teachers should be able to plan their instructional activities. In fact, developing a lesson plan is the first stage of an instructional activity cycle, whose amount and intensity must be at a reasonable level in order to be effective (Renandya, 2013, pp. 11-12). A lesson plan describes what the teacher thinks he or she should do to enable students to achieve a learning goal, which is assessed at the end of a certain term of the school year.

The literature offers two views about planning. On the one hand, some authors are against a “jungle path” lesson, where “teachers walk into class with no real idea of what they are going to do” (Scrivener, 1994, as cited in Harmer, 2007b, p. 365). Therefore it is important for teachers to be able to plan their lessons and pay attention to the ‘components of the lesson plan’ (Ornstein, 1997, p. 229), “format” (John (2006, p. 484), and “background elements” and “sequence of lessons” (Harmer, 2007b, pp. 371–377). On the other hand, there are others who believe that lesson plans should not be made too rigidly in order to avoid what Harmer (2007b) terms “the planning paradox.” That is:

...it makes no sense to go into any situation without having thought about what we are going to do. Yet at the same time, if we pre-determine what is going to happen before it has taken place, we may be in danger not only of missing what is right in front of us but, more importantly, we may also be closing off avenues of possible evolution and development (2007b, p. 364).

In summary, to take the two views into account, EL teachers should be prepared for both the expected (planned) and the unexpected (unplanned). As experience shows, an EL classroom has both of these on a regular basis.

3.7.2.3 Instructional Practice

Instructional practice is about what teachers should be able to do to carry out their instructional activities to achieve instructional goals. According to the literature, competent EL teachers' instructional practice is indicated by three important skills. Firstly, EL teachers must be able to teach their students based on some general principles of EL teaching, including:

- (1) tailoring lessons to students' "life experiences" (Kobrin, 2004), making "instructional decisions based on student achievement data analysis" (Stronge, 2002), and taking into account students' "different rate of learning" and "individual differences" (Mangubhai, 2006), and "needs...[and] variety of interests" (Bell, 2005), in order to achieve "meaningful learning" (Brown, 2007b);
- (2) applying classroom management (Brown, 2007b, pp. 241–256) by way of dealing with "common classroom issues of order" (Stronge, 2002, pp. 26–28) and "develop[ing] acceptable behaviour in the classroom" (Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver & Thwaite, 2001, p. 488), as well as maximising the amount and type of teacher talk, teacher questions, feedback, instruction, and explanations and other classroom interactional activities (Nunan, 1989, pp. 189–207) and "learner-focused teaching" (Richards, 2010, pp. 111–114);
- (3) maximising target language use through teacher talk (Walsh, 2002), which is "probably the major source of comprehensible target language input the learner is likely to receive" (Nunan, 1991, p. 189) because "to become fluent in a language, one must practise using it...[and] receive L2 input" (Mangubhai, 2006, pp. 7–8). This is "best achieved by giving due attention to language use and not just usage" (Brown, 2007b, p. 79) and putting a strong emphasis on the communicative activities, despite an emphasis on grammar work (Ganjabi, 2011, p. 50);

- (4) keeping students interested and motivated to learn EL (Breen et al., 2001; Richards, 2010, pp. 111–114; Marwan, 2009, p. 166; Liando, 2006, pp. 146–162). This can be achieved by making the classroom a fun place to learn using “a variety of exercises such as...games, songs” to make exercises “more enjoyable, funny, and lifelike” (Borg, 2006a, p. 20);
- (5) promoting autonomous learning. This can be done during an instructional process, e.g. through inductive teaching of grammar (Shaffer, 1989, p. 345; R. Ellis, 1993; Batstone & R. Ellis, 2009; Thornbury, 2000; Nicholas, Lightbown, & Spada, 2001), which is supported by some theorists such as Stephen D. Krashen (1982) who “argued that learners could acquire a language implicitly through exposure to comprehensible input, rejecting the need to teach formally the linguistic features of a FL [foreign language]” (cited in Vogel, Herron, Cole, & York, 2011, p. 354). This can also be done after an instructional process, e.g. through homework (Van Voorhis, 2004, p. 205); and
- (6) promoting an awareness of the role of English, particularly in regards to the importance of English proficiency in today's world (Jazadi, 2003; Liando, 2006).

Secondly, EL teachers must be competent in teaching specific EL skills, namely:

- (1) Listening, which is a receptive skill and involves “responding to language rather than producing it” (Spratt, et al. 2005, p. 30). The ‘language’ here is spoken language which is characterised by (1) clustering of speech, (2) redundancy of rephrasings, repetitions, elaborations, and insertions, (3) reduced forms and sentence fragments, (4) performance variables, (5) colloquial language, (6) rate of delivery, (7) stress, rhythm, and intonation, and (8) interaction (Dunkel, 1991; Flowerdew & Miller, 2005; Richards, 1983; Ur, 1984, cited in Brown, 2007b, pp. 304–307). An alternative, radical view of teaching listening skills has been proposed by Field (2008, p. 9) who argues that listening is not a passive skill (p. 9). He also calls as orthodox the teaching of listening that is based on the asking and answering of comprehension questions, and calls for a shift of focus “from product to process” in teaching listening skills (Field, 2008, p. 9);
- (2) Speaking, which deals with enabling students to speak the target language, getting them or giving them as much opportunity as possible to speak it or interact in it

(Allwright, 1984), increasing student-talk time and reducing teacher-talk time (Walsh, 2002), and improving both fluency and accuracy (Spratt et al., 2005, p. 34; Brown, 2007b, p. 331). EL teachers may achieve these through speaking activities described as 'discussion' by Ur (1996, pp. 124–131) which, in the Indonesian context, may help alleviate students' generally low proficiency in spoken English (Jazadi, 2003, p. 2). In their latest contribution to the theories of teaching speaking skills, Goh and Burns (2012) support the above view but criticise the absence of real *teaching* in many speaking classes (pp. 2-4). They argue that in engaging students to speak in the target language, the teacher need to "teach any skill and strategies or new language items explicitly to help improve their speaking further" instead of just getting students to talk (p. 3);

- (3) Reading, which "involves responding to text, rather than producing it...[It] involves making sense of text" (Spratt et al., 2005, p. 21). Thus, reading is not about oral reading, even though oral reading is at times necessary (Brown, 2007b, p. 371). A reading instruction is usually done (a) in three stages, i.e. "Before you read," "While you read," and "After you read" (Brown, 2007b, p. 375), (b) in five specific ways, i.e. reading for specific information, making inferences, using L1/translation, and reading aloud, in order to ensure comprehension, and (c) using varied and authentic materials (Ur, 1996, p. 150). Grabe (2009, p. 357) concurs by proposing the following 14 major components for reading comprehension that reading teachers must ensure their students possess:

1. Fluency and reading speed
2. Automaticity and rapid word recognition
3. Search processes
4. Vocabulary knowledge
5. Morphological knowledge
6. Syntactic knowledge
7. Text-structure awareness and discourse organization
8. Main-ideas comprehension
9. Recall relevant details
10. Inferences about text information
11. Strategic-processing abilities
12. Summarization abilities
13. Synthesis skills
14. Evaluation and critical reading.

(Grabe, 2009)

- (4) Writing, which focuses, at the micro-level, on students producing words and sentences that may have no context, and, at the macro-level, on paragraphs and compositions that may be contextual. Teaching writing is also associated with error correction, that is, “editing (correcting and improving the text)” and “proof-reading (checking for mistakes in accuracy)” (Spratt et al., 2005, p. 27). At the macro level, EL teachers deal with how to teach students to produce real-life (authentic) texts and a variety of text types. Brown (2007b, p. 402) proposes the idea about “real writing” as a type of classroom writing performance, which falls under three categories: “academic,” “vocational/technical,” and “personal.” In the Indonesian context, this reflects the basic tenet of the genre-based approaches (GBA)—often confused with “text types” (Derewianka, 2003, p. 135). Defined as “all purposeful uses of language” (Derewianka, 2003, p. 134), “genre,” as in GBA, is based on M.A.K. Halliday’s Systemic Functional Grammar (Emilia, 2011, p. 4; Derewianka, 2003, p. 134). The approaches are echoed by Brown (2007b, p. 403), supported by Ur (1996, pp. 159–166), and prescribed by the MNERI in the EL curriculum (TEFLIN, 2011). (To give an idea of the uses of language taught in GBA, a list of basic educational genres, their sub-genres, and examples is provided in Appendix 29.)

Finally, EL teachers must be able to teach the language components of grammar and vocabulary. Renandya (2013, pp. 4-8) stresses the following points:

- (1) Even though the teaching of grammar used to be quite controversial, the current thinking is that it is too important to be ignored;
- (2) The teaching of vocabulary develops students’ vocabulary size and this is strongly related to language skills such as reading, writing, and listening; and
- (3) Included in vocabulary are lexical chunks and fixed expressions called ‘formulaic expressions’ such as “off the top of my head,” “I’m on my way,” and “on the other hand.”

3.7.2.4. Assessment and Evaluation

Assessment and evaluation refer to what teachers should be able to do at the end of an instructional program in order to look into what has and has not been achieved (assessments or tests) and what to do to improve it (evaluation). However, assessment is often used as an “overarching term” (Inbar-Lourie, 2008) to refer to all methods and approaches to testing and evaluation, rather than just testing or tests.

It is essential that IETs are able to design tests that meet the quality criteria regarding validity, reliability, and achievability (or practicality)—three of the principles of language assessment mentioned in the literature. According to Brown (2007b, pp. 446–453), the principles also include *authenticity* and *washback*. IETs need to be able to construct English tests that are based on the lesson goals and assessment criteria. These are two different things: lesson goals are the ones designed for teaching the lesson and the students’ attainment of these goals is measured through the test. A link should be established between lesson plans and assessment procedures. Assessment criteria are those that IETs are expected to design in order to assess students’ performance in EL. The terms *norm-referenced* and *criterion-referenced* methods of assessment (Brindley, 1990; Brown, 2007b), may be applicable here to describe IETs’ lesson objectives and test criteria.

EL learning assessment is also recognised in the literature as a way to evaluate the attainment of curricular objectives and goals. For example, it is a part of the Standards for Teacher Competence in Educational Assessment of Students developed by the American Federation of Teachers, National Council on Measurement in Education, and National Education Association (Brookhart, 2011, p. 3) and is included in Bell’s (2005) report of her study of the behaviours and attitudes of effective foreign language teachers obtained from 457 teachers across the U.S.

3.7.3 Teacher Dispositions

Teacher dispositions are described in the literature as what teachers are expected to be like in terms of their behaviour, attitudes, moral, and ethics. The literature reviewed for this study

point to two main aspects, namely personality and pedagogic dispositions and professional dispositions. These are shown in Table 3.17.

Table 3.17 EL teacher dispositions based on the reviewed literature

Main Aspect	Component	Sub-component	
Personality & Pedagogic Dispositions	Being inclusive and non-discriminatory		
	Being open-minded		
	Being resourceful		
	Having a balanced life		
	Socio-cultural expectations	Conducting themselves with respect to the religious, legal, social, and cultural norms Having a noble character and being a role model for students and community Having a solid, mature, wise, and charismatic personality	
Professional Dispositions	Being sensitive to students' background, needs and interests in relation to EL	Showing positive attitudes to EL	
	Being reflective of teaching and students' EL learning experience		
	Collegiality	Being involved in professional development	
		Collaborating with colleagues in improving student learning	
		Capability for professional leadership and advocacy.	
Having connections with students' families, school community, and the larger community.			

3.7.3.1. Personality and Pedagogic Dispositions

Personality and pedagogic dispositions (also referred to as personality traits) reviewed in the literature cover a wide range of favourable or less-favourable qualities. For example, Murray, Rushton, and Paunonen (1990) give the following as examples of the traits: meek, ambitious, sociable, aggressive, independent, changeable, seeks definiteness, defensive, dominant, enduring, attention-seeking, harm-avoiding, impulsive, supporting, orderly, fun-loving, aesthetically sensitive, approval seeking, seeks help and advice, intellectually curious, anxious, intelligent, liberal, shows leadership, objective, compulsive, authoritarian, extraverted, and neurotic (see Murray et al., 1990, p. 253 for abbreviated definitions of all the traits). Citing Myers and McCaulley's (1985) Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), Rushton, Morgan, and Richard (2007) listed teacher personality traits as "*Extraversion* (E) and

Introversion (I), Sensing (S) and Intuition (N), Thinking (T) and Feeling (F), and Judging (J) and Perceiving (P)” (p. 434; emphasis in original).

For teachers in general, though, the personality and pedagogic dispositions are those “good,” “outstanding,” or “effective” teacher characteristics (e.g. Beishuizen, Hof, van Putten, Bouwmeester, & Asscher, 2001; Liando, 2006, 2010; Sockett, 2006; Stewart, 2006; Stronge, 2002). In societies such as Indonesia, these include such dispositions as being religious, being humble, and being sincere in undertaking teaching responsibilities, as reported in Yuwono and Harbon’s (2010) study of Indonesian EL teachers’ professionalism.

The literature also suggests that teacher dispositions are so much about social expectations of teachers and the moral dimension of teaching. The social expectations correspond with some of the behaviours and attitudes of effective foreign language teachers reported in Bell (2005). The moral dimension of teaching has been addressed by many authors and researchers such as Ornstein (1995), Stewart (2006), Schwartz (2007), and Osguthorpe (2008). Ornstein (1995, pp. 12–14), for example, states that the moral dimension of teachers is vital for teaching students and that they should combine truth, kindness, and caring attitudes with their teaching.

3.7.3.2. Professional Traits

EL teachers’ professional traits are discussed in the literature in terms of professional practice, i.e. “traits of effective teachers” (Polk, 2006) and collegiality, i.e. “collaboration” (Richards, 2010).

When reflecting on their professional practice, i.e. professional traits, teachers in general need to be sure that they have the four traits that, according to Polk (2006, p. 23), transcend “content area boundaries and universality,” namely professional development, personality, communication, and teacher ability or modelling (Polk, 2006). EL teachers, in particular, should ask themselves the following reflective questions:

1. What kind of teacher am I?
2. What am I trying to achieve for myself and for my learners?
3. What are my strengths and limitations as a language teacher?
4. How do I, my students and colleagues view me?
5. How and why do I teach the way I do?
6. How have I developed as a teacher since I started teaching?

7. What are the gaps in my knowledge?
8. What role do I play in my school and is my role fulfilling?
9. What is my philosophy of teaching and how does it influence my teaching?
10. What is my relationship with my colleagues and how productive is it?
11. How can I mentor less experienced teachers?

(Richards, 2010, p. 119)

The response to the above questions seems to be offered, philosophically, by Sockett (2006, p. 23) with the following definition of teacher dispositions:

Dispositions. The professional virtues, qualities, and habits of mind and behavior held and developed by teachers on the basis of their knowledge, understanding, and commitments to students, families, their colleagues, and communities. Such dispositions—of character, intellect, and care—will be manifest in practice, will require sophisticated judgment in application, and will underpin teachers' fundamental commitments to education in a democratic society, such as the responsibility to set high standards for all children, harbor profound concern for each individual child, and strive for a classroom and school environment of high intellectual and moral quality.

Dispositions as professional qualities of *character* imply such virtues as self-knowledge, courage, sincerity, and trustworthiness. Qualities of *intellect* imply such virtues as truthfulness, accuracy, fairness, and impartiality. Qualities of *care* imply such virtues as tolerance, tact, discretion, civility, and compassion. Institutions will determine their own emphases and commitments across these three broad categories, enriched by their own traditions, experiences, and orientations.

(Sockett, 2006, p. 23)

In their professional work, it is necessary for EL teachers to work collegially. Therefore, it is essential that EL teachers be involved in three forms of collaboration, namely:

Collaboration with fellow teachers. This often involves a focus on teaching issues and concerns, such as use of the textbook, development of tests, and course planning.

Collaboration with university colleagues. This may involve collaborative research or inquiry into issues of shared interest, such as exploring aspects of second language acquisition or learning strategies.

Collaboration with others in the school. This may involve working with administrators or supervisors on issues of concern to the school.

(Richards, 2010, p. 118)

This section has discussed what the literature has to say about what EL teachers, IETs included, should or must be competent in in order to enter and/or succeed in ELT profession. The discussion has filled the gap in our current understanding about the knowledge, skills, and dispositions that EL teachers, including IETs, should or must have. However, another gap is immediately visible and worthy of further investigation, and that is the views of those

to whom PTS really matter: the IETs themselves. It is the aim of the present study to fill the gap left by the absence of such an inquiry. One of the theoretical justifications for such an investigation is teacher cognition. What follows is a discussion on the teacher cognition theory.

3.8 Teacher Cognition Theory

As stated earlier, this study looks into IETs' perspectives on PTS. The PTS are contained in a document referred to as *SKAKG 2007* in this study. They consist of academic qualifications and competency requirements currently applied by the Indonesian Government in *PSG*. Both *SKAKG 2007* and *PSG* have been implemented nationwide by the MNERI since 2007.

The word 'perspectives', taken from the field of teacher cognition research in education (more about teacher cognition will be elaborated in the next section), is used as an umbrella term to describe the teachers' thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs about the various aspects pertaining to *SKAKG 2007* and *PSG*. Notwithstanding the fact that input from non-teacher respondents (i.e. key informants) including teacher educators, teacher trainers, PTS developers, and policy makers have also been used in this study, the teachers' perspectives constitute the primary data of the study. More importantly, rather than looking at the perspectives of teachers in general, this study is focused specifically on the perspectives of IETs.

Such a focus is fundamental for this research because the teachers involved (IETs), as described by Borg (2006a), have distinctive characteristics as foreign language teachers. As educators, their professional characteristics, according to Krishnaveni and Anitha (2007, p. 157), include "subject knowledge, teaching prowess, updating knowledge, collegiality, commitment, teacher student relationship (sic.), empowerment, self-development, remuneration, and ethical code of conduct" in general.

Therefore, IETs are also viewed in this study as specialists teaching a distinctive group of learners (e.g. primary school children) or a distinctive school subject (e.g. EFL). Their cognitive dimension of teaching revolves around the specific type of learners they have, the subject they teach, and a host of other factors. To focus on subject-specific teaching, this

dimension is to do with the teaching of EFL in Indonesia. In the teacher cognition research tradition, such a focus is approached specifically using the LTC theory, which will also be described in the next sections.

It is expected that by using teacher cognition in this study, some significant theoretical contributions could be made to teacher cognition studies generally and, more specifically, to LTC studies. Similarly, teacher cognition and LTC theories could inform and strengthen the theoretical framework of subject-specific PTS formulation and/or studies conducted on it.

Therefore the aims of this second part of the chapter are as follows:

1. To describe the development of the fields of teacher cognition in general education and in language teaching;
2. To situate the fields of teacher cognition and LTC in the discourse of generic and subject-specific PTS formulation;
3. To situate the discourse of generic and subject-specific PTS formulation in the teacher cognition and LTC literature, and
4. To situate this study in the discourses of LTC and PTS formulation.

To achieve these four aims and gain an understanding of the theoretical framework, I will first present a description of the teacher cognition and LTC theories in the next sections. Then, focusing on LTC, I will discuss how LTC relates to the topic of this research, namely, IETs' perspectives on the PTS in the *SKAKG 2007* in the context of *PSG* in Indonesia.

3.8.1 Teacher Cognition in General Education

Teacher cognition research seeks to understand what teachers think, know, and believe about various aspects of their profession, including teaching, teachers, learning, students, subject matter, curricula, materials, instructional activities, and self (Borg, 2006b). It has been a research tradition in education since the mid-1970s, during which research on cognition made its way from the field of cognitive psychology into the field of teacher education (E. M. Ellis, 2009; Van Gorp, 2008). The past two decades has seen the development of teacher cognition as a well-established field in educational research.

The development of teacher cognition was marked by a shift of focus in educational research from studying what teachers do in teaching, which characterised research on teachers, teaching, and learning before the 1970s, to studying what teachers—and also teacher candidates (Pajares, 1992, p. 307)—think and decide regarding teaching, and the reason behind their thoughts and decisions. In short, teacher cognition is concerned primarily with ‘the mental lives of teachers’ (Clark & Lampert, 1986). (It should be noted, nevertheless, that other researchers such as Woods and Çakir (2011, p. 383) have argued for the notion of “what teachers do” to be added to the scope of teacher cognition research. This argument is supported by Borg (2006b, p. 273).

One of the most significant contributions that marked the shift towards the end of 1970s was that of Shavelson and Stern (1981). They reviewed research on teachers’ pedagogical thoughts, judgments, and decisions over a decade and identified areas of substantive and methodological research needed to improve the practice of teaching (Shavelson & Stern, 1981, p. 455). Unlike the prevailing view at that time which saw learning as “the product of teaching” (E. M. Ellis, 2009) which follows “a process-product approach” (Omoniyi, 2008), their ground-breaking view was that research on the thought processes of teachers rests on two assumptions:

1. Teachers are rational professionals who make judgments and carry out decisions in an uncertain, complex environment.
2. Teachers’ behaviours are guided by their thoughts, judgments, and decisions.

(Adapted from Shavelson & Stern, 1981, pp. 456–457)

These two assumptions are considered relevant to this study as they imply the view that teachers—as professionals—are capable of making such judgments and decisions, and assumed to be able to reflect the thoughts, judgments, and decisions in teaching-learning-related matters.

This study adopts Borg’s (2009, p.1) definition of teacher cognition (TC) which is described as being about “what teachers think, know and believe...[concerning] the unobservable dimension of teaching - teachers’ mental lives,” Borg’s definition is based on the argument that “in order to understand teachers, researchers needed to study the psychological processes through which teachers make sense of their work” (Borg, 2009,

p.1). In this thesis, the term ‘teachers’ work’ is used to refer to contextual factors which include educational policies. In the scope of this study, intervention measures such as PTS-based teacher certification programs are regarded as educational policies that may affect teachers’ work, and how teachers make sense of it is worthy of further investigation. (See sections 3.7.7.1. and 3.7.7.2. for a complete discussion of the term LTC as it is used in this thesis.) The following section discusses teacher cognition studies in general education, and it will be followed by another section on teacher cognition in language teaching.

3.8.1.1 Teacher Cognition Studies in General

In the past, studies have been conducted on aspects ranging from teachers’ belief/beliefs, conceptions, knowledge, orientation, pedagogy, theories, to other areas. For example, between 1977 and 1995, there were 40 different teacher cognition studies reviewed by Borg (2006b). The studies came up with 35 different terms on what teachers think, know, and believe. These are shown in Table 3.18.

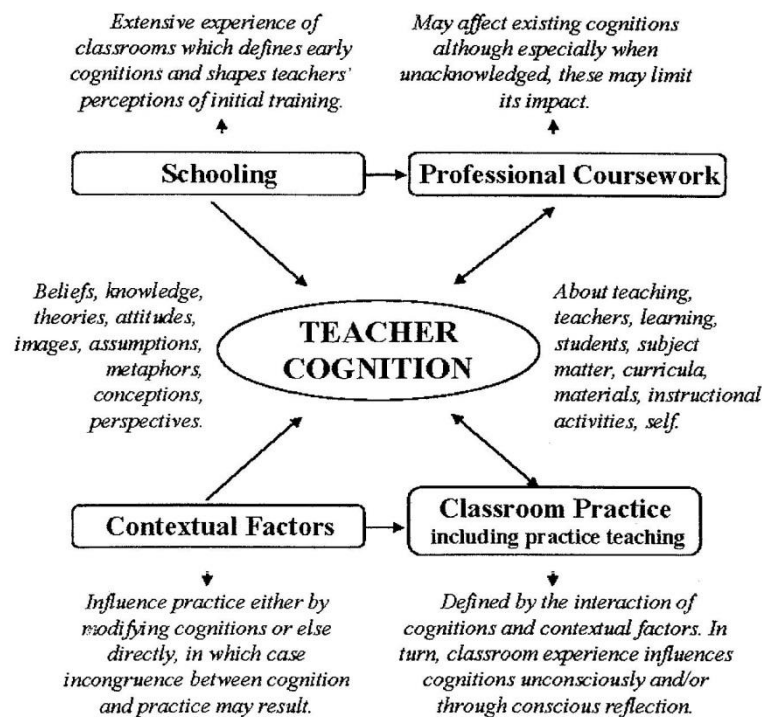
Table 3.18 Teacher cognition concepts in educational studies published between 1977 and 1995, in alphabetical order (adapted from Borg, 2006b, pp. 36–39)

Category	Term and Source
Belief/Beliefs	‘belief’ (Tobin & LaMaster 1995; Kagan 1992b); ‘beliefs’ (Pajares 1993; Ford 1994; Crawley & Salyer 1995)
Conceptions	‘conceptions of subject matter’ (Thompson 1992); ‘conceptions of teaching’ (Thompson 1992; Hewson, Kerby & Cook 1995)
Knowledge	‘case knowledge’ (Shulman 1986); ‘conditional/situational knowledge’ (Roehler et al. 1988); ‘content knowledge’ (Grossman, Wilson & Shulman 1989); ‘craft knowledge’ (Zeichner, Tabachnick & Densmore 1987); ‘curricular knowledge’ (Shulman 1986); ‘general pedagogical knowledge’ (Wilson, Shulman & Richert 1987); ‘knowledge of learners’ (Wilson, Shulman & Richert 1987); ‘knowing-in-action’ (Schön 1983); ‘pedagogical content knowledge’ (Shulman 1986); ‘pedagogical knowledge of teaching’ (Shulman 1986); ‘personal practical knowledge’ (Connelly & Clandinin 1988); ‘practical knowledge’ (Elbaz 1981; Calderhead 1988a); ‘practical knowledge of teaching’ (Shulman 1986); ‘professional craft knowledge’ (Brown & McIntyre 1986); ‘prototypical/case knowledge’ (Calderhead 1991); ‘situated knowledge’ (Leinhardt 1988); ‘subject matter knowledge’ (Shulman 1986); ‘substantive knowledge’ (Grossman, Wilson & Shulman 1989); ‘syntactic knowledge’ (Grossman, Wilson & Shulman 1989);
Orientation	‘orientations to teaching’ (Brosseau, Book & Byers 1988); ‘theoretical orientations’ (Harste & Burke 1977)
Pedagogy	‘personalized pedagogy’ (Kagan 1992b)
Theories	‘implicit theories’ (Dirkx & Spurgin 1992); ‘lay theories’ (Holt Reynolds 1992); ‘practical theory’ (Handal & Lauvas 1987); ‘practical theories’ (Sanders & McCutcheon 1986)
Other	‘cognition’ (Kagan 1990); ‘images’ (Calderhead & Robson 1991); ‘perspective’ (Tabachnick & Zeichner 1986); ‘schema’ (Carter & Doyle 1987) ‘teaching criteria’ (Halkes & Deijkers 1984b)

In recent years, numerous teacher cognition studies in general education have looked into “teacher perceptions” (e.g. Watson, Miller, Davis, & Carter, 2010), “teacher perspectives” (e.g. McGrail, 2005), “teacher decision making” (Lai & Lam, 2011), and “teacher practice” (e.g. Battey & Franke, 2008). “Perceptions” and “decision-making” are the “new” terms compared to the ones listed in Table 3.18, while the two others have been used before. These examples show that, perhaps due to the nature of its subject, teacher cognition research was and is still characterised by a proliferation of terms and concepts. The field is described by Pajares (1992) as “a messy construct” of what he prefers to call simply “teacher beliefs.”

Therefore, Borg’s (2006b) overview of teacher cognition studies, following Kagan (1990) and Woods (1996), has been hailed as a successful feat of “imposing some considerable order on a youthful field” (E. M. Ellis, 2009). Figure 3.1 is Borg’s representation of teacher cognition based on his overview of the studies.

Figure 3.1 Teacher cognition, schooling, professional education, and classroom practice (Borg, 2006b, p. 41; with permission from the author)



According to Borg (2006b, pp. 40–41), teacher cognition studies, as mentioned in Table 3.18 and illustrated in Figure 3.1, have shaped our current knowledge about teacher cognition. Consisting of teachers' own "beliefs, knowledge, theories," etc. "about teaching, teachers, learning, students," etc., cognition is a vital part of teaching and teachers' lives. It is in constant interaction with a teacher's learning experience (i.e. schooling and professional education), classroom practice, and contextual factors, all of which influences the teachers' cognition.

Teacher cognition's emergence as an established field of study in education in the past two decades seems to prove the truth of Gary Fenstermacher's prediction in 1979. He said that the study in this area (teacher beliefs, in particular) "would become the focus of teacher effectiveness research" (cited in Pajares, 1992, p. 307). To understand the above statements in the context of this study, I suggest that 'teacher beliefs' in Fenstermacher's vision are tantamount to teacher cognition because teacher beliefs are what teacher cognition is essentially built upon. On the other hand, in the context of this study, his point regarding 'teacher effectiveness' could translate to at least two possibilities:

1. Teachers materialising in their teaching the virtues of the official PTS or the ones that they articulate themselves;
2. Teachers becoming more aware of their professional status and the importance of doing their job professionally.

These two possibilities are the potential contributions offered by the present study to teacher cognition's body of research.

3.8.1.2 Teacher Cognition Studies on Teachers' Perspectives on Standards-Related Matters

Teachers' thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs about their profession have been factored in to varying degrees in PTS development around the world. In countries where teachers were actually consulted, they have been used in addition to the views of other stakeholders. Even in Indonesia where teacher input for PTS development was sidelined they are at least claimed as a part of the *SKAKG 2007* development process (Jalal et al., 2009).

The *SKAKG 2007* situation is noteworthy as it pertains to this study. It seems that policy makers' lack of trust in teachers was responsible for why they were sidelined from

SKAKG 2007 development. Citing Joint ILO/UNESCO¹² committee of experts' response in 1998 to the application of the recommendation concerning the status of teachers, Mowbray (2005, p. 16) critically noted that there are "increasing community perceptions that teachers have failed to deliver on their higher standards of education now expected." These lead to "reduced likelihood of teachers being granted the privilege of self-regulation which is characteristic of a profession" (p. 16). Mowbray is here criticising the notion that teachers as a whole have the privilege of self-regulation when their quality is in question. Indeed, the Indonesian Government's perceived low quality of teachers has been the official justification for teacher professionalisation efforts, including PSG (and SKAKG 2007 for that matter).

A number of teacher cognition studies have been carried out so far which look at teachers' perspectives on matters related to standards in education. Before looking at these studies, however, it is necessary to describe the choice of the word 'perspectives' in this present study.

As described earlier, the word 'perspectives' is an umbrella term to describe IETs' thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs about the various aspects pertaining to SKAKG 2007 and PSG. It is defined as "a particular attitude towards or way of regarding something; a point of view" (OUP, 2011). This definition is in line with the concept of "what teachers believe or think about a subject", as used by Tichenor and Tichenor (2005) in their study of teachers' perspectives on professionalism. The subject in the present study is the PTS contained in SKAKG 2007 in the context of PSG. However, this definition is at odds with the view that defines perspectives as:

a coordinated set of ideas and actions which a person uses in dealing with some problematic situation; perspectives differ from attitudes since they include actions and not merely dispositions to act; similar to beliefs and implicit theories.
(Tabachnick and Zeichner, 1980, cited in Borg, 2006b, p. 38; my emphasis)

The definition above is noteworthy as it contains some radical elements, which are italicised in Tabachnick and Zeichner's definition. These elements are not shared by this study for three reasons.

First, in this study, even though the teacher's perspectives are 'a set of ideas', they are not viewed as 'actions'. They are only articulated as ideas in response to a 'situation' that I,

¹² International Labor Organization/United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization

as a researcher, have problematised. The situation is the implementation of *SKAKG 2007* for *PSG* that, in my view, lacks teacher authorship, teacher ownership, and subject-specification.

Second, the perspectives dealt with in this present study may be regarded as the teachers' attitudes to both *SKAKG 2007* and *PSG*. Given the limitation of this study, they were considered sufficient for further data analysis and there was no need to see how they are put in practice (e.g. through classroom observations).

Finally, the perspectives are treated as being similar to the teachers' 'beliefs and implicit theories' because I believe that as professional practitioners teachers have their own beliefs and theories. Based on these arguments, this study focuses on the perspectives only, i.e. what the teachers think, know, and believe about PTS. Therefore, Pajares' (1992) suggestion that teacher cognition research should include "what teachers do" is beyond the scope of this study.

Teacher cognition studies about teachers' perspectives on standards in education conducted so far have investigated topics related to the notions of teaching as a profession and teachers as professionals. These include;

- "professionalism" (Tichenor & Tichenor, 2005),
- "educational standards" (Case, 2004),
- "standards for teachers" (Radford, 1997),
- "professional standards" (Zionts, Shellady, & Zionts, 2006),
- "professional teaching standards" (Mowbray, 2005),
- "professional standards for teachers" (Mayer, Mitchell, Macdonald, & Bell, 2005),
- "professional standards of teaching" (Cherubini, 2010),
- "professional development" (Mundy, 2005),
- "performance assessment" (Okhremtchouk, et al., 2009),
- "NBPTS participation" (Burns, 2007; Tracz, Daughtry, Henderson-Sparks, Newman, & Sienty, 2005).

All these studies are related to PTS, but here I intend to focus on the four that are most germane to the topic of the present study.

Tichenor and Tichenor (2005) is a study of teachers' perspectives on professionalism, a fundamental part of SME and has been explicit or implicit in various PTS documents

including those discussed earlier in this chapter. They asked the question “What does it mean to be a professional and to exhibit professionalism?” during focus group interviews with 40 teachers at four primary schools in the U.S. The findings indicate that teachers’ agreed with the proposition that teacher professionalism is reflected through qualities, attitudes, and behaviours. The researchers put these under four categories as follows:

- *character* (e.g. patience, determination, and confidence),
- *commitment to change and continuous improvement* (e.g. reflective and evaluative, not satisfied with status quo, and look for resources to aid in lessons),
- *subject knowledge and pedagogical knowledge* (e.g. have a knowledge of curriculum, teach a broad spectrum of curriculum [primary school teachers only], and have various teaching strategies and know when to use them), and
- *beyond the classroom* (e.g. collaborate and cooperate with faculty, staff, administration, parents, and community members)

(Tichenor & Tichenor, 2005)

The research findings above show that teachers have understandings about the fundamental aspects of teacher professionalism expressed in various PTS documents. That is, self, career and professional development, subject matter, instruction, and connections and collegiality.

With an argument that a key policy consideration in relation to developing quality teachers is to use professional standards as tools for extending professional learning and/or and appraisal, Mayer et al. (2005) sought teachers’ perspectives on Education Queensland’s Professional Teaching Standards for Teachers (EQPTST) pilot in Queensland, Australia. The pilot focused on using a set of standards as a framework for professional learning. Two hundred and thirty teachers from across the state spent a three-day immersion workshop and had an opportunity to talk about the standards, their own professional practice and learning, and how they might use the standards for their own work. The key findings are:

- The teachers endorsed the standards in the EQPTST and their use, particularly as they could be used as framework for professional learning;
- The teachers saw that it is central to the development of EQPTST standards to encourage teachers to experiment with them. They believed that this gives teachers the opportunities to learn and build a sense of professionalism; and
- The teachers considered it useful to follow-up the EQPTST pilot by developing particular collaborative projects initiated by teachers and aligned with current school policies.

The above results indicate once again that teachers generally have good understandings of the merits and benefits of PTS. They were aware that PTS statements allowed them to engage in teacher learning, an excellent way of reflecting on one's own practice that in turn contributes to professional development. The teachers were also aware that for further teacher learning, they could make more sense of the standards by practising them. There might be nothing more satisfying and confidence-boosting than feeling better professionally after putting 'theories' (i.e. PTS statements) into practice (e.g. classroom activities with students). In all these, the teachers realised their central role in delivering change to the education/school systems.

Mowbray (2005) is a doctoral comparative study of Australian teachers' perceptions of PTS and teaching practice. Based on the findings of his two studies in this research, one quantitative and the other qualitative, he made four conclusions. The fourth one is germane to this study as it says:

Finally, the importance of getting the professional standards for the teaching profession 'right' cannot be understated. Teachers must have confidence in them. They must see them as being relevant to their current practice and to their on-going development. Hopefully, this thesis has made a timely contribution towards ensuring that the voice of teachers in the development of standards is heard and heeded, and to better positioning teaching as a profession able to take responsibility for its own standards of practice. (p. 300)

Mowbray here is addressing the issue of teacher authorship and/or teacher ownership of PTS. The 'right' PTS are those that put teachers in the centre in terms of articulating them and bringing them to life in classroom interactions. Controversies around certain PTS statements could lead to a more productive discussion because, in this case, teachers' voices are heard.

Tracz et al. (1995) collected quantitative and qualitative data about teachers' perceptions of their teaching skills after completing the portfolio requirements in the first field test for the NBPTS Certification and their reactions to the certification requirements. The data were obtained from 48 teachers at seven sites in the U.S., i.e. two sites in California and at one site each in Kansas, New York, Michigan, Texas, and Washington State. The teachers were asked to be involved in mainly four activities:

- a. Evaluate their teaching skills on a 10-point continuum on a survey with 37 items.
- b. Rate their abilities before beginning work on their portfolios.
- c. After the portfolios were completed, give two ratings of their perceptions of their teaching ability, the first before they began their portfolios and the second their current abilities after they have completed their portfolios.
- d. Keep personal journals during the time while they were compiling their portfolios and from individual interviews with teachers which were taped and transcribed after the portfolios were completed.

(Adapted from Tracz et al., 1995, p. 7)

The quantitative results, which are based on how the teachers rated their performance before and after compiling their portfolios, indicate that the teachers did not think that their ability decreased. The qualitative data supported this finding: teachers overwhelmingly felt positively about the portfolio process. They saw the portfolio preparation as ‘a catalyst for them to examine their teaching critically and rethink the decisions they make on a daily basis in the best interest of children’ (Tracz et al., 1995, p. 11).

The studies reviewed above indicate at least four important conclusions. First, teachers in general are professionals who know what it means to be professional teachers. They know what knowledge, what skills, and what dispositions they are expected to have. Second, teachers are aware of the importance of PTS in advancing their profession. They know what should be expressed in the standards, what to do with them, what to learn from them, and how they should be formulated. Third, given their awareness and capability, teachers should be given the opportunity to formulate the standards. If they have not been given the opportunity, then it is necessary to get a reasonable number of teacher representatives to be involved in PTS development. Finally, the results of the studies described and discussed above support the view that the standards concerned should be subject specific.

Until now, there have never been any studies carried out to investigate teachers’ perspectives or the relevant topics in the context of countries such as Indonesia where generic PTS are applied for implementing generic teacher certification programs that are regulatory and controlling in nature. The next section will shed some light on what language teachers specifically think, know, and believe about PTS.

3.8.2 Language Teacher Cognition (LTC) Theory

Studies on what teachers think, know, and believe in general education eventually attracted the interest of researchers in the field of second and foreign language education. According to Borg's (2012b) *Language Teacher Cognition Bibliography*, studies on what was referred to as 'teachers' preferences', 'teachers' conceptions', and 'teachers' beliefs' in language teaching had begun to appear in the late 1970s and throughout the 1980s. Despite this, however, some authors stated that it was not until the early to mid-1990s that teacher cognition research began to make a significant presence on the language teaching research landscape (e.g. Borg, 2003; E. M. Ellis, 2003). More than 20 years on, a new body of research referred to as LTC has been an established field of inquiry in language teaching/teacher education. From its beginnings, teacher cognition studies in general education developed hand in hand with LTC studies.

3.8.2.1 LTC Studies in General

Just like teacher cognition, the development of LTC is marked by a proliferation of terms and concepts regarding what language teachers think, know, and believe. For example, studies that can be described as LTC studies from the past two decades have referred to this in a variety of ways, such as:

- "teachers' attitude and approaches" (Jafar, 2010);
- "teacher awareness" (Andrews, 2001);
- "teachers' beliefs" (Ganjabi, 2011; Inozu, 2011; Mak, 2011), "teachers' pedagogical beliefs" (Allen, 2002), "teachers' beliefs and values" (Hiep, 2007), and "teachers' beliefs and practices" (Phipps & Borg, 2009),
- "teacher cognition" (Borg, 1999; Mori, 2011; Woods, 1996),
- "pre-service teachers' comments" (Moloney, 2009); 'teacher comments" (Richards, 2010);
- "teachers' conceptualization" (Zapata & Lacorte, 2007),
- "teachers' conceptions (and misconceptions)" (Scarino, 2009);
- "teachers' decision making" (Manara, 2007),

- “grassroots’ voice” (Sulistyo, 2009); “teachers’ voice” (Chowdhury & Ha, 2008),
- “teacher knowledge” (Freeman, 2001),
- “teacher knowledge and beliefs” (Woods & Çakir, 2011),
- “teacher knowledge and thinking processes” (Freeman & Richards, 1996),
- “the mental lives of teachers” (Clark & Lampert, 1986),
- “teachers’ perceptions” (Bell, 2005; Cray, 1997; Marwan, 2009; Rini, Widiati, & Widayati, 2008); “teachers’ opinion/perception” (Rehman & Baig, 2012);
- “teachers’ perspectives” (Gere & Berebitsky, 2009; Lee et al., 2008; Liando, 2010; Moloney, 2009; Tracz et al., 1995), “professional perspectives” (van der Burg, 2009), “perspectives of NCTE members” (Dudley-Marling et al., 2006), or “perspectives of principals and Foreign Language Department Chairs” (Sullivan, 2004);
- “teachers’ practical theory” (Feryok, 2008);
- “teachers’ reflection” (Mann, 2005);

The above terms and concepts of LTC were used in a wide variety of research focus in the areas of language teaching (pertaining to novice and experienced in-service teachers) and language teacher education (pre-service and inexperienced teachers). The research focuses are presented alphabetically in Table 3.16 under the two areas. Note that each dot means that the corresponding LTC focus in that area(s) has been researched and reported.

In Table 3.16, there are one hundred language teaching and learning aspects that language teachers think about and that have been the focus of LTC research studies over the past 35 years. Despite the variety, on the one hand, the focuses of LTC research have something in common. That is, they express the various researchers’ or authors’ common interest in language teachers’ cognition in order to better understand language teaching and aspects associated with it. Freeman and Richards (1996) refer to the research focuses collectively as:

what [language teachers] do, how they think, what they know, and how they learn. Specifically...how [they] conceive of what they do: what they know about language teaching, how they think about their classroom practice, and how that knowledge and those thinking processes are learned through formal teacher education and informal experience on the job. (p. 1)

Table 3.19 Focuses of LTC research, 1976–2012 (adapted from Borg, 2012b)

Research Areas	LT ¹³	LTE ₁₄	Research Areas	LT	LTE
Applied linguistic theories		•	Peer coaching		•
Attitudes		•	Personal history/personality	•	
Beliefs (pre-existing)		•	Personal theories	•	•
Bilingual education	•		Policy changes	•	
Classroom activities	•		Practical knowledge	•	
Classroom interaction	•	•	Practicum		•
Classroom practice	•		Professional development	•	
Curriculum development	•		Professionalism	•	
Code switching	•		Pronunciation	•	
Colleagues	•		Prior knowledge	•	
Communicative language teaching	•	•	Psycholinguistic theories	•	
Competencies	•		Qualification (e.g. DELTA ¹⁵)		•
Context of ELT	•		Reading in EFL	•	•
Decision making	•		Reflection (reflective writing)	•	•
Effective EFL teaching	•		Research	•	
Evaluation of teaching	•		Self and change		•
Expertise	•		Spelling practices	•	
Feedback	•		Students	•	
Fieldwork experience	•	•	Struggling readers (children)		•
Foreign immersion program		•	Subject knowledge	•	•
Grammatical knowledge	•		Supervision		•
Grammar teaching/learning	•		Systemic functional linguistics	•	
Group discussion		•	Task-based pedagogy	•	
Intercultural communication	•		Teacher attitudes	•	
Knowledge development/construction	•	•	Teacher autonomy		•
Second language acquisition	•	•	Teacher education	•	
Language and culture	•		Teacher efficacy	•	
Language assessment	•		Teacher identity	•	
Learner autonomy	•		Teacher learning	•	•
Language awareness	•	•	Teacher practice	•	
Language knowledge	•		Teacher role	•	
Language learning	•	•	Teacher talk	•	
Language policy	•		Teacher training		•
Language proficiency		•	Teachers as readers		•
Language teaching	•	•	Teaching English to young learners	•	
Lesson planning	•	•	Teaching grammar		•
Learners		•	Teaching pronunciation	•	
Learners' language background		•	Teaching reading	•	•
Learning styles		•	Teaching the four English skills		•
Learning to teach a second language	•	•	Teaching vocabulary	•	
Linguistic knowledge	•		Teaching writing	•	•
Literacy	•	•	Tests		
Materials	•		Textbooks use	•	
Mentoring		•	Use of target language	•	
Motivation	•		Use of technology (ICT)	•	

¹³ Language teaching

¹⁴ Language teacher education

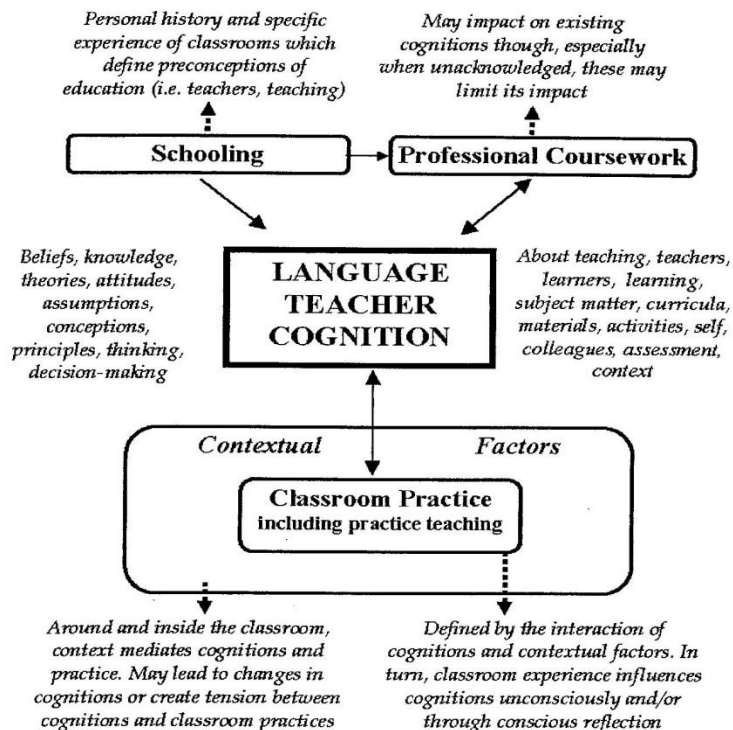
¹⁵ Diploma of English Language Teaching to Adults

Table 3.19 (Continued)

Research Areas	LT ¹⁶	LTE ¹⁷	Research Areas	LT	LTE
Non-native speakers as models		•	Values in teaching	•	
Observation	•	•	Vocabulary teaching/learning	•	
Oral production	•		World language teachers		•
Pedagogic knowledge	•		Writing challenges		•
Pedagogic teaching		•	Types of instruction	•	

On the other hand, Table 3.16 also shows that LTC is a psychological construct shaped by several factors. To refer to Borg's (2006b) diagram shown in Figure 3.2, LTC constitutes a language teachers' set of 'beliefs, knowledge, theories, attitudes,' etc. about 'teaching, teachers, learners, learning,' etc. In turn, such cognition influences their teaching, which then influences their students' learning process and outcomes.

Figure 3.2 Elements and processes in LTC
(Borg, 2006b, p. 283; with permission from the author)



¹⁶ Language teaching

¹⁷ Language teacher education

Teacher learning and teacher practice are the two factors that play a significant role in the development of LTC. Teacher learning is made up of the teachers' schooling experience as a student (e.g. language learning and personal history) and professional coursework as pre-service and in-service teachers (e.g. applied linguistic theories and second language acquisition). Teacher practice is shaped by the teacher's classroom practice (or a pre-service teacher's teaching practicum).

A language teacher's cognitions and classroom practice are described in the diagram as being mediated, changed, or affected by contextual factors. Because these factors can be interpreted quite broadly to include a variety of things, this present study therefore argues for the need to clarify and expand them to include educational policies and/or policy development. The literature reviewed here has shown that there is potential in exploring what language teachers' think, know, believe, and do with regard to policies or policy documents made for them by the authority. Teachers' right to participation in decision making in educational reforms is guaranteed by the Joint ILO/UNESCO Committee of Experts on the Application of the Recommendations concerning Teaching Personnel (International Labour Organization and United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (ILO-UNESCO), 2009, p. 26). However, there is tension between what the government and society think about teachers and what the teachers think of themselves. It has been stated earlier that such tension may result in teachers' losing their privileges to the self-regulation that characterises a profession, resulting in teachers' having no voice in policy formulation.

It is important to note, however, that despite the large body of LTC literature on the various aspects of language teaching, very few studies have looked specifically into LTC in relation to PTS and teacher certification programs internationally, and, apart from this present study, none has been done in Indonesia. A search of current literature in this area returned only five relevant studies; two studies were carried out in the U.S. and three others were conducted in Australia.¹⁸

¹⁸ A detailed review of the five selected studies is presented in section 3.7.2.3 based on teachers' perspectives on standards and standards implementation, teachers' perspectives on teacher quality standards, and teachers' perspectives on professional development programs.

This review indicates the significance of this present study which addresses an area where there is only a little information available internationally and where there is no information available from Indonesia where the study was conducted and data were generated. As shown in the following section, 3.7.2.2, such an empirical and theoretical gap was obvious when the LTC literature from the foreign language (FL), EFL, Asian, and Southeast Asian contexts, in which the present study is situated, was analysed to a greater degree.

3.8.2.2 LTC Studies in the FL/EFL and Asian/Southeast Asian Contexts

Based on Simon Borg's (2013) *Language Teacher Cognition Bibliography*, LTC studies have been conducted in the FL or EFL and Asian or Southeast Asian context since the beginning of LTC research development in the mid-1980's. Among the earliest contributions in this area is Burnaby and Sun's (1989) study on Chinese teachers' views of Western language teaching, Nunan's (1992) research on teachers as decision makers, Shi and Cumming's (1995) study of teachers' conceptions of second language writing instruction, and Rainey's (2000) investigation into EFL teachers' views of action research.

Most of the current LTC studies were carried out in Japan, China, Turkey, Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong, Singapore, Malaysia, and Iran. Some of them were conducted in countries such as Venezuela, Chile, Brazil, Argentina, Slovakia, Greece, Jordan, Yemen, Thailand, and Vietnam. Only one of the studies (Zacharias, 2005) was done in Indonesia. By and large, the countries represent the FL/EFL and the Asian/Southeast Asian contexts of the LTC literature reviewed in this section.

The last twelve years (2001–2012) have seen a significant increase in the number, topics, and locations of LTC studies on the teaching and learning of FL, particularly EFL, in the Asia-Pacific and Southeast Asian regions compared to that in the 1991–2000 period. This development has contributed to the current size of the LTC body of literature.

The trend looks set to increase. The growing demands for teaching and learning FL (especially English)—attributable to the regions' strong economic growth—and an increasing number of qualified researchers to carry out the studies may be among the contributing

factors for this increase. Barnard and Burns' (2012) book, which contains eight case studies of qualitative research projects conducted in the Asia-Pacific context (including Australia and New Zealand), supports this argument. Despite this new offering, however, there remains a gap in our understanding about language teachers' perspectives on PTS in the FL, EFL, Asian or Southeast Asian context. The present study attempts to address the issue.

Due to space limitations, this section describes only the development of LTC studies in the FL/EFL and Asia/Southeast Asian contexts in the last twelve years. I have identified twelve areas of LTC research and further categorised them into five fields that I term concept, learning, teaching, context, and competencies. Most of the citations provided serve as examples only.

a. Concept

The conceptual perspectives of foreign language teachers in the Asia/Southeast Asian countries have been the subject of a number of LTC studies. For example, the study of teachers' conceptions of language was conducted by Absalom (2003), and that concerning the English as a global language phenomenon was by Pan and Block (2011).

b. Learning

In this part of the literature, learning concerns two factors: language learners and language learning. The LTC literature includes studies on language learners in content area classes (e.g. Polat & Mahalingappa, 2013), learner autonomy (S. Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012; Yoshiyuki, 2011), and student inclusion (Mady, 2012). In terms of language learning, the literature includes those on aspects of language learning in various contexts (e.g. Diab, 2009; Kuntsz & Belnap, 2001; Wong, 2010) and teaching and learning strategies (Özmen, 2012).

c. Language Teaching

As language learning concerns the agents (i.e. learners) and the process (learning), so does teaching. It concerns the agents (language teachers) and the process (language teaching), and it consists of a rather large body of literature.

In terms of language teachers, LTC studies include those on teacher identity (Trent, 2011a, 2011b; Trent & DeCoursey, 2011; Tsui, 2007), teachers' language ideology (Razfar, 2012), teacher profiles (Tejada, Del Pino, Tatar, & Sayáns, 2012), native English speaker teachers vs. non-native English speaker teachers (Clark & Paran, 2007; Liyanage & Bartlett, 2008; Ma, 2012), teacher experience (Chiang, 2008; Jones & Fong, 2007; E. J. Kim, 2011), the experience of early career teachers (Mattheoudakis, 2007; Trent, 2011b; Watson Todd, 2003), teacher learning (Zeng & Murphy, 2007), teachers' professional development (Kubanyiova, 2006), teachers' methodology courses (professional training) (Kunt & Özdemir, 2010), and teachers' 'professional vulnerability and cultural tradition' (Gao, 2008).

A large body of literature on a host of aspects of language teaching is available, and growing. Previous studies have included those on teachers' perspectives on ELT (Hung, 2012), postmethod and teaching (Zeng, 2012), teacher effectiveness (Brown, 2009; Khodabakhshzadeh & Shirvan, 2011; Kubanyiova, 2006; Polat, 2009), teacher education (Chambers, 2007; I. Lee, 2010; Muthanna & Karaman, 2011; Xu & Connelly, 2009), teachers' use of the target language as opposed to the first language (Hayes, 2005; S. H. O. Kim & Elder, 2008; Macaro, 2009; McMillan & Rivers, 2011), the variety of English language used in teaching EFL (Young & Walsh, 2010), the use of EL textbooks or materials (Al-Barakat, Bataineh, & Al-Karasneh, 2006; Lee & Bathmaker, 2007; Zacharias, 2005), teaching knowledge and competencies (Kömür, 2010), literacy (Lim, 2010; Lim & Torr, 2007), teaching practicum (Yan & He, 2010), supervision (Ong'Ondo & Borg, 2011), reflection and reflective writing (A'Dhahab, 2009; Kabilan, 2007; Y. Liu & Fisher, 2006; Polio, Gass, & Chapin, 2006; Wyatt, 2010), multiple intelligences (Savas, 2012), teacher or teaching efficacy (Chacón, 2005; Liaw, 2009; Yildirim & Ates, 2012), task-based L2 pedagogy (Andon & Eckerth, 2009; Jeon & Hahn, 2006; McDonough & Chaikitmongkol, 2007), communicative language teaching (Butler, 2005; Gorsuch, 2001; Nishino, 2008, 2011; Taguchi, 2005; Tayjasanant & Barnard, 2010; Yoon, 2004), and learning and teaching strategies (Hu & Tian, 2012).

An integral part of the LTC studies on language teaching has to do with teaching the language skills and the language components. In regards to teaching language skills, there

is a growing body of literature which discusses teachers' perspectives on teaching writing (Nguyen & Hudson, 2010; Xiao, 2005), translation (Cam, Topcu, Sulun, Guven, & Arabacioglu, 2012), reading (Cabaroglu & Yurdaisik, 2008; El-Okda, 2005; Goldfus, 2012; Tercanlioglu, 2001), and pronunciation (Chavez, 2007; Drewelow & Theobald, 2007). In terms of teaching the language components, studies reviewed for this research include those on form-focused (grammar) instruction (Andrews, 2003a; Asassfeh, Alshaboul, & Alodwan, 2012; Chia, 2003; Haim, Strauss, & Ravid, 2004; Jean & Simard, 2011; Ng & Farrell, 2003; Seferoğlu, Korkmazgil, & Ölcü, 2009), grammar in writing (A. A. Zhou, Busch, & Cumming, 2013), and vocabulary (Gao & Ma, 2011).

d. Context

Context is the word I use here to refer to those studies on teacher research and policies affecting foreign language teachers. Previous studies have looked at teachers' research engagement (Borg & Liu, 2013), and teachers' drive for research (Gao, Barkhuizen, & Chow, 2011). Included in this category are pieces of writing on LTC research (e.g. Borg, 2012a)

In terms of policies, the LTC literature currently has studies on curriculum innovation (Kirkgöz, 2008), language policy, teacher beliefs, and classroom practices (Farrell & Kun, 2008), educational reform or policy changes (Chang & Su, 2010; Richards, Gallo, & Renandya, 2001; Sakui, 2004 ; Su, 2006; Zappa-Hollman, 2007), and classroom-level curriculum development (Shawer, 2010).

e. Competencies

A growing number of studies on teacher competencies now comprise the LTC body of literature. I categorised the competencies into teacher knowledge, teacher skills, and teacher dispositions. Previous LTC studies on teacher knowledge include those on teachers' moral knowledge (Akbari & Tajik, 2012), teachers' practical knowledge (Arıoğul, 2007; Chou, 2008; Mangubhai, Marland, Dashwood, & Son, 2004; Sun, 2012), and teachers' pedagogical reasoning (Allen, 2002; Flores, 2001; Li & Wilhelm, 2008; Sakui & Gaies, 2003).

Among the LTC studies on teacher skills are those that looked into what motivates or demotivates language learners (T.-Y. Kim & Seo, 2012; Ruesch, Bown, & Dewey, 2012;

Sakui, 2002), teachers' intercultural competence (Cheng, 2012; Cortazzi & Jin, 2011; Derin, Zeynep, Pinar, Kaslioglu, & Gökçe, 2009; Göbel & Helmke, 2010; Sercu, 2006; Y. Zhou, Xu, & Bayley, 2011), teachers' multilingual competence (Griva & Chostelidou, 2012), teachers' metacognitive strategies (Güven, 2012), teachers' ICT/technology integration (Chen, 2008; Hismanoglu, 2012; Ihmeideh, 2010; Mathews-Aydinli & Elaziz, 2010; Shin & Son, 2007), teachers' feedback or corrective feedback (Jodaie & Farrokhi, 2012; Mori, 2002, 2011; Yoshida, 2010), teachers' (classroom) language use (Cohen & Fass, 2001; D. Liu, Ahn, Baek, & Han, 2004; Yayli, 2012), including code-switching (Macaro, 2009), teachers' decision making (Kuzborska, 2011; Vanci Osam & Balbay, 2004; Yang, 2010), teachers' evaluation, assessment, or EL testing (Burden, 2008; Cumming, 2001; Shohamy, Inbar-Lourie, & Poehner, 2008; Wu, 2008), and teachers' classroom language assessment (Yin, 2010).

LTC studies on teacher dispositions includes those on good FL teacher quality (Borg, 2006a; Zhang & Watkins, 2007), teachers' multicultural beliefs and attitudes (Bodur, 2012), teachers' emotions about students, colleagues and work (Cowie, 2011), and collegiality among teachers (Sato & Kleinsasser, 2004).

In summary, the studies from the FL/EFL and Asian/Southeast Asian contexts reviewed in this section offer more insights into teacher cognition and its four dimensions. Borg (2006b) refers to these as teachers' 'schooling, professional coursework, classroom practice (including practicum), and contextual factors' (p. 41). More specifically, they make us more aware of the three 'elements and processes' in LTC (Borg, 2006b, p. 283). Borg says that these consist of schooling, professional coursework, and contextual factors, which include classroom practice and practice teaching (p. 283).

Despite the wealth of empirical and theoretical information, however, at least three important questions beg to be answered. If 'contextual factors' have a role in shaping a teacher's beliefs, can those factors be extended to include official PTS documents (e.g. *SKAKG 2007*)? Can EL teachers' beliefs about such a PTS document be generated so that teachers could challenge and/or improve its contents? What are the implications of such attempts for teaching, learning, pre-service and in-service training, teacher certification, and

the teaching profession? These are some of the questions that gave rise to the research questions of the present study, which none of the studies reviewed here has been able to address. Therefore, an empirical investigation is in order.

The next section presents further justification for this study by discussing studies on the development, contents, and implementation of professional teaching standards.

3.8.2.3 LTC Studies on Standards and Standards Implementation

Language teachers have responded to the implementation of standards, whether they are in the form of PTS, student learning standards, or other standards. These can be seen in studies by Allen (2002), Sullivan (2004), Farmer (2009), Saunders (2009), and Moloney (2009). With a focus on the views by both practising teachers and pre-service teachers—following Borg’s (2006b) classification of current LTC studies—these studies fill a gap in our current understanding of language teachers’ perspectives on standards, including PTS and content standards for students which these studies deal with.

Allen (2002) is a study involving 613 foreign language teachers in the Midwestern region of the U.S. It investigated the extent to which their beliefs are consistent with the major constructs underlying the Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century. Rather than a PTS document like *SKAKG 2007* or ENL NBPTS, these Standards are content standards outlining “what students should know and be able to do—in foreign language education” (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), 2012). According to ACTFL’s Web page, the Standards were first published in 1996 thanks to a grant from the U.S. Department of Education and the National Endowment for the Humanities. Drafted by an eleven-member task force, the Standards have been used by teachers, administrators, and curriculum developers at state and local levels to improve foreign language education in the U.S. The current revised Standards document is the third edition, which also includes standards for Arabic (ACTFL, 2012).

The rationale for Allen’s study is that:

If the standards for foreign language learning are to achieve their potential impact, research that investigates what teachers know and believe about the standards is needed. Results of the studies would provide direction for

preservice teacher education, in-service professional development, and future research. (Allen, 2002, p. 518).

Teachers were also requested to rate how familiar they were with the standards and give information that was later used in determining the factors influencing their beliefs. The findings were under three themes:

- *Foreign Language Instruction (FLI)*: The teachers believed in the importance of delivering FLI in the target language, making it available to all students, conducting it in accordance with the 'Weave of Curricular Elements', including it in the early primary school curriculum, and offering it within the coverage model;
- *Familiarity*: The teachers felt that they were somewhat familiar with the standards;
- *Influencing factors*: The teachers were influenced by urban versus rural location, professional organisation membership, gender, percentage of FLI assignment, their highest academic degree, and private versus public school.

The study conducted by Sullivan (2004) is a close look at school principals and foreign language (FL) Department Chairs' perspectives on the Rhode Island Beginning Teacher Standards (RI-BTS) which are based largely on the widely-used Interstate New Teachers Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC) standards. The RI-BTS were developed in 1995 by a committee consisting of teachers, administrators, and teacher educators from all over the state of Rhode Island in the U.S. to create a vision of teaching excellence for the state. A 17-item questionnaire was mailed to 84 principals of high schools and middle schools and their 83 FL Department Chairs across the state to obtain their views of RI-BTS. The results revealed that both groups strongly agreed with RI-BTS as accurate descriptors of good teaching. Sullivan's (2004) study suggests, among other things, that FL educators should continue efforts "to translate these generic teaching standards into FL terms with discipline-specific exemplars and benchmarks to help beginning (and experienced) teachers gauge their teaching performance against these commonly used frameworks" (p. 397).

Three other publications are on three different topics but evaluate the same standards document, namely PSPL. The project was funded by the DEEWR of the Australian Government through its School Languages Program. Since 2008, the project was developed and implemented by AFMLTA, with the Modern Language Teachers Associations (MLTAs) in

each state and territory, and University of South Australia's Research Centre for Languages and Cultures Education (RCLCE) (cf. Liddicoat et al., 2005; Professional Standards Project (PSP) Languages (PSPL), 2012). Throughout the PSPL consultation processes, a total of 622 languages teachers from all the states and territories took part (Saunders, 2009). The PSPL has two main tasks:

1. Developing language specific versions of the *Standards* for seven languages (Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Spanish).
2. Developing a series of professional learning modules relating to the *Standards* which will allow teachers to investigate their own practice in the light of the *Standards*.

(Adapted from PSPL, 2012, emphasis in original)

When it was delivered in 2008, the project consisted of two streams, namely:

- Stream A: two x three hour modules to familiarise teachers with the standards
Stream B: eight x three hour modules focusing in depth on educational theory and practice, language and culture, and language pedagogy.
(Farmer, 2009, p. 9)

Farmer's (2009) work describes Stream B of PSPL. In this stream teachers undertook ongoing 'classroom investigations', which she described as giving:

an opportunity for teachers to apply the learning and knowledge gained through the project to their own contexts. It was also a process which supported teachers in developing their awareness of themselves as teachers, as reflected in the Standards. (Farmer, 2009, p. 9)

For two months teachers in Stream B investigated one aspect of their practice to support their professional development in light of the Standards. With an emphasis on "going deeper rather than broader", the participant teachers were encouraged to base their investigations on one of the PSPL modules. She reported that the investigations provided an excellent opportunity for professional learning to the teachers. For example, among the types of investigations undertaken by languages teachers in Victoria, the topics included:

1. *Learning, learners and their life worlds*: e.g. encouraging students to set goals for their learning and provide feedback to the teacher (an Italian teacher);
2. *Identifying language-specific needs*: e.g. developing a set of language annotations from the Standards to help guide and clarify teaching;
3. *Language learning and language awareness*: e.g. examining different thinking tools to engage all students and enable them to understand how language works (a French teacher);
4. *Understanding the interrelationship of the intercultural and the intracultural*: e.g. investigating the effectiveness of approaching language study via a 'cultural corridor'—the culture of the target language is explored using the target language as a means of communication (an Indonesian teacher);

5. *Resources for language learning*: e.g. using Web tools such as Skype, wikis, blogs, and e-pals to develop connections for teachers and students and motivate students in their language learning (a German teacher).
(Adapted from Farmer, 2009, pp. 9-10)

The highlight of the above activities is that the language teacher representatives around Australia had an opportunity to make a deeper sense of the PSPL. The Standards were used as a springboard for professional development and professional learning, rather than just as meaningless documents containing standards of competencies. Indonesia's *SKAKG 2007* was not developed in such a way, nor has it been interpreted and explored in such a creative way.

Saunders (2009) took her inspiration for research from what she described as 'reflective professional renewal' made possible by the financial support and structured opportunity for Australian languages and cultures teachers under the auspices of AFMLTA through PSPL. Some 622 teachers took part in the program across the country. Saunders focused her work in the state of Queensland and regarded this as the opportunity for teachers in Queensland to "engage in a substantial discussion about language teacher professional standards" (Saunders, 2009, p. 12). She found the Queensland teachers highly enthusiastic. With a combined total of 179 teachers doing both Stream A and Stream B, Queensland had the largest number of teachers for the program.

The teachers were engaged in a reflection on their practice by referring to two sets of standards: the PSPL and QCoT. They could readily make the links between the discipline-specific PSPL standards and the generic QCoT standards, but not vice versa because the latter "seldom had the same reverse transferability" (Saunders, 2009, p. 10). The program gave the teachers the chance to learn actively about their practice and profession from a discipline-specific standards point of view, which seems to explain their generally positive response to the PSPL standards. It can be seen from Saunder's evaluation that a discipline- or subject-specific PTS document has a lot to offer teachers in terms of professional development and professional learning than a generic standards document such as *SKAKG 2007*.

Moloney (2009) uses the completed PSPL standards, which were originally conceptualised for practising teachers, to embed aspects of the PSPL in her methodology

courses for pre-service language teachers in the Teacher Education Program in the Department of Education at Macquarie University. She believes that pre-service teachers should be engaged in developing a critical perspective on the profession they are about to join because:

What students learn in teacher education programs can have an enormous impact on the attitude and practices that teachers bring with them to schools where they work, if they undergo a process of personal transformation based on their own identities and experiences (Nieto, 2000, p. 186, cited in Moloney, 2009, p. 16)

From her students' discussion of the PSPL, Moloney was able to see the 'value of the [Standards] to my students in terms of their emerging professional identity' (Moloney, 2009, p. 16). She summarised her students' comments in two categories, as described below:

1. PSPL and Pre-service Teacher Identity: One student said that the PSPL has changed the way she thought about professional improvement—bringing oneself into teaching with one's own strengths (skills, interests, passion).
2. Applying the PSPL to Pre-service Languages Teacher Education: The PSPL could be used in four ways:
 - To provide an introduction to the professional community;
 - To stimulate intercultural development in pre-service teachers;
 - To model learning through inquiry and collaboration;
 - To promote initiative in personal development projects.

(Adapted from Moloney, 2009)

Moloney's students' enthusiastic response to the application confirms her beliefs. In the case of *SKAKG 2007*, Indonesia's pre-service IETs would certainly learn a lot about their future occupation if they were given the same opportunity that Moloney's students had with her.

The studies reviewed above have something in common. The language teachers (or school administrators in some cases) involved in the studies are generally different from their Indonesian counterparts. They are familiar with the idea of or, even better, have been involved themselves in developing standards documents and critiquing standards statements. The question that needs to be answered is: "What if teachers who were not involved in PTS development in the first place are given the chance to voice their perspectives on the PTS document and the profession?" Therefore it is important to find out the answer to this question.

3.9 Summary

In this chapter, I have discussed two main bodies of literature, the first being the standards movement and the second being teacher cognition theory. They are discussed in this section to address the seven points listed in the introduction to this chapter.

1. Standards Movement. I have looked at the Standards Movement from both the international and Indonesian perspectives, and its most important implications, namely, PTS and credentialing processes around the world. The general standards movement originates from improvement in quality management and accountability for the industry, business, and professions. The movement has made its way into education as the field and the teaching profession responded to the demands for quality education in terms of teachers and their improved effectiveness and students and their improved learning outcomes.
2. Standards Movement in Education (SME). Having its roots in the U.S., following the publication of the report *A Nation at Risk* in the early 1980s that led to the establishment of NBPTS in 1987, the SME inspired governments, professional organisations, and educators around the world to take similar action in improving the quality of education. In the Indonesian context, SME coincides with the demands of the late 1990s' *Reformasi* movement in the education sector, resulting in the enactment of *UU Sisdiknas 2003*. The subsequent reforms have since paved the way for the establishment of *PSG* and *SKAKG 2007*. The literature on SME indicates the teaching profession's growing awareness of the importance of teacher quality improvement, teacher professionalisation, and PTS. The latter is based on 'best practice' in teaching and promulgated by or in consultation with the teaching profession. PTS documents (e.g. *SKAKG 2007* in Indonesia) are then used for regulatory purposes in credentialing new teachers through licensure or registration as well as accomplished teachers through teacher certification (e.g. *PSG* in Indonesia). They may, however, be used for developmental (voluntary) purposes by the individual professionals.
3. PTS and Credentialing Programs. In the six countries reviewed, two main points can be made. First, except in Hong Kong and, to some extent, the UK, there were widespread

consultation processes with the stakeholders and general public regarding the draft of standards. Even though the initiatives came from or were funded wholly or partly by the government, teachers and their professional organisations were generally involved in and played a key role during these processes. Second, besides generic PTS that apply to all teachers, there are subject-specific PTS documents that apply specifically to subject teachers, such as ESL teachers. The contents of these PTS range from just the required qualifications to detailed, comprehensive teaching competencies. In terms of credentialing processes in the six countries, the review suggests another two main points may be inferred. First, while registration or licensure based on the formulated PTS is compulsory for eligible individuals entering the teaching profession, certification of accomplished teachers is not. In most cases, accomplished teachers are given the choice to use PTS for regulatory purposes (e.g. certification or promotion) or developmental purposes (e.g. reflection for improving teaching practice). Second, even though the credentialing processes were initiated by the government, independent, non-governmental organisations play a central role in the registration or licensing of new teachers and certification of accomplished teachers. None of the above, however, can be said about Hong Kong where the government dominates the scene.

4. *SME in Indonesia*. As far as Indonesia is concerned, *SKAKG 2007* is the first PTS document ever produced in the country. The minimum *S1/D4* qualification stipulated in it reflects stronger emphasis on teacher professionalism and competencies. For the Teflindo¹⁹ profession, *SKAKG 2007* is the first official document that specifies IETs' qualification and competencies, albeit in only two broad statements on linguistic and communicative competencies, leaving IET classroom teaching skills and dispositions up to one's imagination. Additionally, the fact that the basic standards statements for teaching all foreign languages are identical means that the developers thought that all foreign languages share identical characteristics and can be taught in exactly the same way. Nevertheless, these shortcomings imply an opportunity to expand the standards to include more subject-specific competencies for all subject teachers, IETs included.

¹⁹ See section 5.2.1 in Chapter 5 for an explanation of the term 'Teflindo.'

5. Debate on PTS for IETs. Apart from Jalal et al. (2009), no scholarly work has been published about *SKAKG 2007*, let alone the PTS for IETs. As a consequence, many things about this document and its contents, e.g. the theoretical and practical justification for its development, the formulation of its standards, and the extent to which teachers were involved in its development, remain unknown, despite the current debate on PTS in Indonesia. The present study is the first detailed study that looks at *SKAKG 2007* from a critical point of view, especially in terms of how the standards were developed and what they comprise. Compared to the lively yet inconclusive debate, this study proposes something concrete that can be done. As informed by PTS developments and credentialing processes in the countries reviewed, this means getting IETs involved in formulating the subject-specific PTS for their profession.
6. Teacher Professionalism and Competencies. A large body of literature, both standards documents (including *SKAKG 2007*) and non-standards-document texts, were consulted to prepare this section. The results are lists of teacher competencies grouped under the themes of teacher knowledge, teacher skills, and teacher dispositions. In addition, a literature review is provided for each of the main aspects of the three themes.
7. Teacher cognition. I have established how this body of literature came to be used as a theoretical justification for this study. I have provided an overview of the development of teacher cognition studies in general education and in language education in the last three decades. In the process, I noted the increasing shift of interest to the research area of the mental lives of teachers (i.e. LTC)—the very things explored by the developers of PTS for language teachers in countries where they were actually consulted. In order to situate the present study in the current LTC discourse, I have also identified the areas and focus of LTC studies conducted in the last three decades. Evidently, there is a gap in our current understanding about the perspectives of language teachers regarding PTS-related issues, particularly in situations where the PTS are used for regulatory certification of language teachers. Simultaneously, by using teacher cognition and LTC research in this study, I have also contextualised the two

bodies of literature in the discourse of generic and subject-specific PTS formulation in which teachers are expected to be or have been involved.

The two large bodies of literature above leave two basic questions unanswered. The first question is to do with LTC, that is: *What should we do with the rich body of knowledge we now have about what EL teachers think, know, and believe in ways that are accessible to them that they could use to improve their professionalism and competencies?* The second question pertains to PTS, that is: *What is it about EL teachers that makes it necessary to consult them in developing PTS?* The answers to these questions will become clear at the end of this thesis.

These two basic questions have inspired the formulation of the central and subsidiary research questions which, have guided the methodology of this study, and which is described in the next chapter.

Chapter 4

Methodology

4.1 Introduction

Chapter 4 describes the methodology of the study. It essentially describes what research design was adopted for the study, where the research was carried out, who the two groups of respondents were, what methods of data generation¹ were employed, how the data were analysed, and how the results of the study are described in the thesis.

It is important to note that two groups of respondents participated in this study. In the first group were sixty-six IETs and in the second group were thirty-two key informants. The teacher respondents are further referred to specifically as the teachers in order to distinguish them from the key informants and so that they could be differentiated from teachers or IETs in general (see section 4.9.2 for further explanation).

This chapter begins with a restatement of the research questions.

4.2 Research Questions

As described in the summary of Chapter 3, the bodies of literature reviewed for the present study leave two basic questions unaddressed that have inspired the formulation of the central and subsidiary research questions of the present study. The central research question is: *Are IETs capable of articulating their perspectives on crucial issues related to teacher professionalisation efforts and IET competencies that are recognised in the literature on SME and LTC theory?* The subsidiary research questions are:

1. What are the teachers' perspectives on teacher professionalisation efforts in Indonesia?
2. Are the teachers' perspectives on teacher professionalisation relevant to the theories and the practice and/or context of ELT?
3. Are there any elements in the teachers' perspectives on teacher professionalisation that are unique to the Indonesian context?

¹ See section 4.7 for an explanation of this term.

4. What perspectives are the teachers able to articulate about IET competencies?
5. Are the teachers' perspectives on IET competencies relevant to the theories and practice and/or context of ELT?
6. Are there any elements in the teachers' perspectives on IET competencies that are unique to the Indonesian context?

Since the study is concerned with IETs' perspectives, the method selected to gain them was a combination of semi-structured interviews and focus-group discussions with IETs. The methods were chosen on the grounds that useful insights could be gained from interpreting the teachers' perspectives. The interpretive nature of this study and its implications are described in the next section.

4.3 Research Orientation

The present study is motivated by my desire as the researcher "to understand...social reality" (Bhattacharya, 2008, p. 465). Social reality here refers to the social action involving the teachers and their perspectives on PTS in terms of *PSG*. This reality is situated within the specific context in which the teachers operate and which influences the way they generally operate. Such reality is understood by way of "interpretive practice" (Holstein & Gubrium, 1997, p. 121), which is the orientation of the present study.

4.3.1 Interpretive Practice

Interpretive practice is defined by Holstein and Gubrium (1997, p. 121) as the procedures and resources used to apprehend, organise, and represent reality. This definition implies research activities as a whole, aimed at describing reality under study. In any research inquiry, reality may be available in the form of *quanta* or *qualia* (Bhattacharya, 2008), and, I should add, both *quanta* and *qualia* in some cases. In this regard, *quanta* refers to quantitative data and *qualia* to qualitative data, which are the type of data generated for this study. Understanding the reality, and therefore, addressing the research questions, can only be achieved by interpreting the social reality.

The interpretiveness of this study is due not only to the process involved in analysing its qualitative data which involves “making meaning of specific experiences, and therefore, is inherently an **interpretive** practice” (Bhattacharya, 2008, p. 465; emphasis in original), but also to its characteristics as a qualitative study in which “[t]here is interpretation all along, from the very start of [the] research project until the very end” (Gummesson, 2003, p. 482).

The interpretive orientation puts this study in the vicinity of qualitative research approaches such as narrative research, phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, and case study, among other things, that have been conducted in the fields of education, nursing, sociology, psychology, and social sciences (Creswell, 2006). The present study is clearly in the field of education as it deals with *educational phenomena* in an *educational context*. The research approach that applies to it is described in the next section.

4.3.2 Case Study

Based on Creswell’s (2006, pp. 79, 80, 120) descriptions of the five research approaches above, this study can be categorised as a case study. Table 4.1 describes the characteristics of a case study and how this present study fits into them. Note that the other four research approaches are not included here.

It can be inferred from Table 4.1 that the case is the phenomenon being studied within its context. A “case” is defined as being in the present, complex, and integrated with its context and “study” is an investigation grounded in the case or phenomenon and its context (Gillham, 2000, p. 1, Stake, 1994, pp. 236–37, Sturman, 1999, p. 103, and Yin, 1994, p. 13, all cited in Jazadi, 2003, pp. 66–67).

According to Yin (2003, p. 13), a case study is “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context”. In the present study, the teachers, their perspectives, and *SKAKG 2007* are the *phenomena*, and the *PSG* and the Indonesian educational system and educational reforms are their *context*.

Table 4.1 Characteristics of a case study applicable to the present study
(based on Creswell, 2006, pp. 79, 80, 120)

No.	Characteristics	Case study	The present study
1.	Focus	Developing an in-depth description and analysis of a case or multiple cases.	Developing an in-depth description and analysis of a case.
2.	Type of problems best suited for design	Providing an in-depth understanding of a case or cases.	Providing an in-depth understanding of a case.
3.	Discipline background	Drawing from psychology, law, political science, medicine.	Drawing from professional teaching standards and LTC theory.
4.	Unit of analysis	Studying an event, a program, an activity, more than one individual.	Studying a program; involving more than one individual.
5.	Data generation forms	Using multiple sources, such as interviews, observations, documents, artifacts.	Using interviews and focus groups.
6.	Data analysis strategies	Analysing data through description of the case and themes of the case as well as cross-case themes.	Analysing data through description of the case and themes of the case.
7.	Written report	Developing a detailed analysis of one or more cases.	Developing a detailed analysis of the case
8.	General structure of study	(1) Entry vignette; (2) Introduction (problem, questions, case study, data collection, analysis, outcomes); (3) Development of issues; (4) Detail about selected issues; (5) Assertions; (6) Closing vignette.	Problem, questions, case study, data collection, analysis, outcomes
9.	What is traditionally studied? (sites or individuals)	A bounded system, such as process, an activity, an event, a program, or multiple individuals.	A bounded system: a program <i>and</i> multiple individuals.
10.	What are typical access and rapport issues? (access and rapport)	Gaining access through the gatekeeper, gaining the confidence of participants.	Gaining access through the gatekeeper, gaining the confidence of participants.
11.	How does one select a site or individuals to study? (purposeful sampling strategies)	Finding a "case" or "cases," an "atypical" case, or a "maximum variation", or "extreme" case.	Finding a "case" or "cases," an "atypical" case, or a "maximum variation", or "extreme" case.
12.	What type of information typically is collected (forms of data)	Extensive forms, such as documents and records, interviews, observation, physical artifacts.	Documents and records, interviews, focus groups.
13.	How is information recorded? (recording information)	Fieldnotes, interview, observational protocols.	Fieldnotes, interview, interview protocols.
14.	What are common data gathering issues?	Interviewing and observing issues.	Interviewing and observing issues.
15.	How is information typically stored?	Fieldnotes, transcriptions, computer files.	Fieldnotes, transcriptions, computer files.

4.4 Research Design

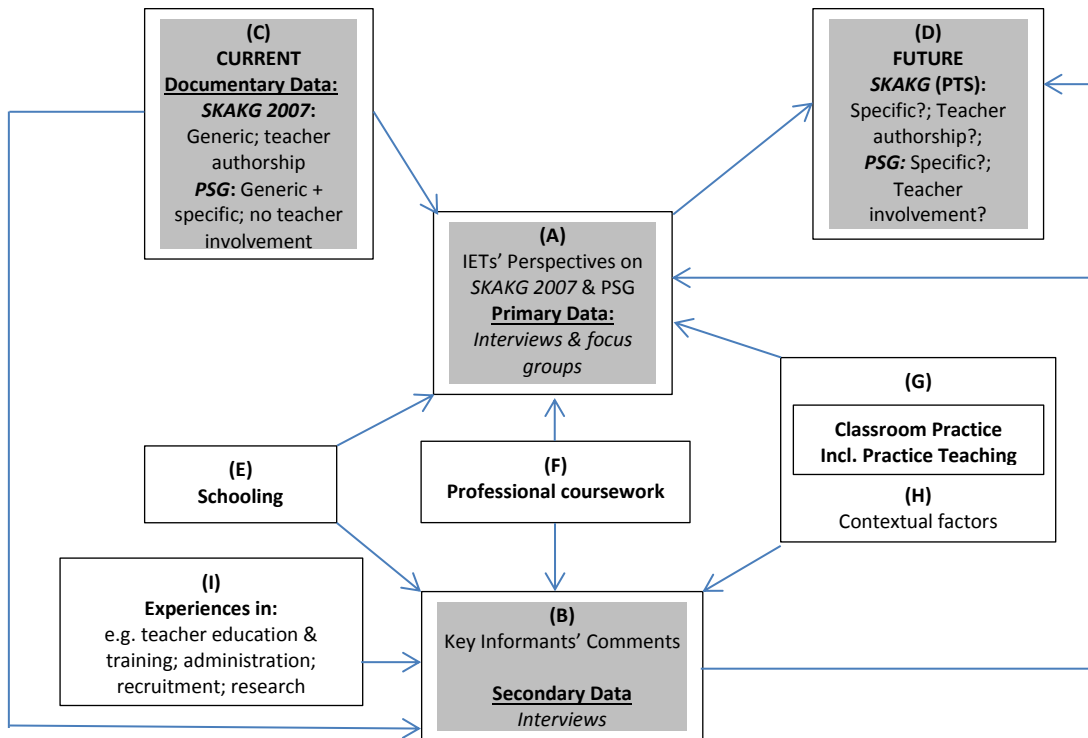
To achieve its objectives and address the research questions, the present study adopted a design inspired by the common characteristics of the previous teacher cognition and LTC studies on teachers' perspectives on PTS. These studies were discussed in Chapter 3.

The previous studies, namely, Tichenor and Tichenor (2005), Mayer et al. (2005), Mowbray (2005), Tracz et al. (1995), as well as Allen (2002), Sullivan (2004), Farmer (2009), Saunders (2009), and Moloney (2009) have at least four things in common. First, they pertained to the generic or discipline-/subject-specific PTS documents applied nationwide or statewide in developed, Anglophone countries. Second, they generally focused on teachers' perspectives on these PTS documents, with regard to the teachers' contextual background and cognitive capabilities. Third, in terms of research approach, they were generally qualitative, or they combined qualitative and quantitative approaches. Finally, the findings of these studies in general offered support for discipline-/subject-specific PTS over generic PTS, or to translate the latter into the former, for development in the future. In a developing, non-Anglophone context such as Indonesia, there has never been a study that shares these general characteristics until now.

In Figure 4.1, the design shows the primary data (A), secondary data (B), and documentary data (C) for the present study. These components and the research design as a whole reflect the general characteristics of the previous studies but they are situated in the context of the implementation of *SKAKG 2007* and *PSG* in Indonesia.

The primary data are made up of the teachers' perspectives on *SKAKG 2007* (PTS) and *PSG* (A). According to Borg (2006b, p. 283), such perspectives, or language teachers' cognitions, are influenced by teachers' schooling experience (E), professional coursework (F), and classroom practice (in the case of in-service teachers), including practice teaching (in the case of pre-service teachers). Note that classroom practice (G) is shaped by contextual factors (H). IETs' in-depth perspectives on *SKAKG 2007* and *PSG* (A) were generated using interviews and focus groups.

Figure 4.1 Design of an investigation into IETs' perspectives on PTS/SKAKG 2007



The secondary data comprise comments made by key informants (B). Their perspectives are also influenced by the three factors (E, F, G—including H) that influenced IETs because all of them are educators like IETs and most of them have ELT backgrounds. Besides the three factors, I argue that their perspectives were also influenced by their experiences in teacher education and training, teacher administration, teacher recruitment, and teacher research (I), just to name a few.

The documentary data consist of official *SKAKG 2007*, *PSG* documents, and other references (C). These documents were instrumental and/or referred to throughout the research activities, i.e. in the literature review process, research preparation, generation of data, analysis of data, and discussion of data.

Besides being influenced by the three factors (E, F, G—including H), the teachers' perspectives and the key informants' comments, I believe, were also influenced by the contents of *SKAKG 2007* and other *PSG* documents (C) that they were aware of or shown or that I discussed with them during the interviews and focus group. In fact, the teachers, in particular, were expected in this study to respond to the documents because it is their

responses that would constitute the “IETs’ perspectives” (A). On the other hand, the key informants were asked to comment on various aspects of the subject matter under study, particularly the main points of the teachers’ perspectives (A), the contents of *SKAKG 2007*, and the implementation of *PSG* (C). These data were generated via interviews.

Finally, based on the teachers’ perspectives (A), the ideal *PTS* and *PSG* implementation in the future eventually emerged (D). Some of the key informants’ relevant comments (B) were used to support the teachers’ perspectives (D). When expanded with findings of the study, this is where the research questions are addressed in full.

Having described and illustrated the design of the study, I will now describe the other parts of this chapter under five main headings: (1) research sites; (2) respondents; (3) data generation; (4) data analysis; and (5) presentation of the results.

4.5 Research Sites

The data were generated from four different locations in Indonesia between May and November 2009. These are the cities of Makassar, Padang, Malang, and Jakarta, respectively. (See Figure 4.1 for the four locations on the map of Indonesia.) The following sections present brief descriptions of these four locations.

Figure 4.2 The four research sites in Indonesia
(Source: Google Maps: <http://maps.google.com.au/maps>)



4.5.1 Makassar

Also known as Ujung Pandang, Makassar is the capital city of South Sulawesi Province (*Sulawesi Selatan*), one of the six provinces on the island of Sulawesi.

Located on the south-western coast of Sulawesi, this major port city faces the Makassar Strait, which separates the island from Kalimantan (Borneo). It has an area of 17,577 square kilometres (*Pemerintah Kota Makassar, 2011*) and is inhabited by approximately 1.5 million people. The population is made up of the major ethnic groups of Makassar, Bugis, Mandar, Chinese, Javanese, and other ethnic groups from Sulawesi and other parts of Indonesia. It is the largest city in Sulawesi and the Eastern Indonesia region.

Makassar has a few nicknames, including “education city” not only for the province but also for the whole region. It is home to a large number of state and private educational institutions from the lowest to the highest level of education. For example, it has a total of 240 state and private higher degree institutions, making it one of the “big 10” in Indonesia in this respect and the biggest in the region. One of the institutions is *UNM (Universitas Negeri Makassar)* [State University of Makassar], the former *IKIP Makassar*, that since 1961 has produced teachers, including most of the teachers and key informants who participated in this study.

In 2009, Makassar had 14,484 out of the 123,874 teachers in South Sulawesi (MNERI, 2009a). A former chairman of *Musyawaharah Guru Mata Pelajaran Bahasa Inggris (MGMP)*² [School-Cluster EL Teacher Working Group] in Makassar estimated that there were around 800 IETs in Makassar between 2010 and 2011. About 70 per cent of them work in secondary schools, and 30 per cent or less in primary schools.

Data generation in Makassar was conducted in two stages, during the pilot study and the main study. The pilot study was conducted with a small number of respondents in May 2009. With insights and input obtained from this stage of the study, I came back to Armidale to improve the research methods and instruments.

² *MGMP* is essentially a working group of teachers of a subject at the secondary level of education, i.e. *SMP/MI*, *SMA/MA*, and *SMK/MAK*.

Further data generation (the main study) in Makassar was conducted with a larger number of respondents throughout September and in early October 2009. That is, after the completion of data generation fieldwork in Padang.

4.5.2 Padang

Padang is the capital city of West Sumatra Province (*Sumatera Barat*), one of the ten provinces in Sumatra. The oldest and largest city on the western coast of Sumatra, this port city overlooks the Indian Ocean. Its current area is 69,496 square kilometres and has a population of approximately 850,000 people (*Pemerintah Kota Padang*, 2012). It is home to the Minangkabau people and other ethnic groups such as Javanese, Chinese, Nias, Mentawai, and Batak.

The Minangkabau people are the largest ethnic group in West Sumatra, and Padang is the name often associated with Minangkabau, who are among the most educated and outward-looking peoples of Indonesia. Minangkabau intellectuals, scholars, politicians, literary figures, religious leaders, and businesspeople, have played an important role in Indonesian history and development for a long time.

With a total of 117 state and private higher degree institutions (*Badan Pusat Statistik Republik Indonesia (BPS)*, 2011), West Sumatra has the second largest concentrations of tertiary educational institutions in Sumatra and is the eighth in Indonesia in this respect. It is for this reason that Padang, just like Makassar, is also known as an “education city”. Padang is home to one of the oldest and most prominent teacher training institutions in Indonesia now known as *UNP* whose history stretches back to 1954. Most of the teachers and key informants from Padang who participated in this study were *UNP* alumni.

As far as teachers are concerned, out of the 82,490 teachers in West Sumatra in the year 2009, 12,669 of them worked in Padang (MNERI, 2009a). The founder of the Indonesian English Teachers' Association (IETA)³, which is based in Padang, estimated that IETs made up about 600 to 700 of the above figure.

³ Established in Padang on 23 July 2008.

Data generation in Padang was part of the main study. It was conducted between early August and early September 2009, during the second stage of my fieldwork in Indonesia which lasted from August to December 2009. Being part of the main study, data generation in Padang was carried out using the revised data generation instruments which were based on the pilot study in Makassar two months earlier.

4.5.3 Malang

Unlike Makassar and Padang that are capital cities of their respective provinces, Malang is a municipality in East Java Province. It is located in a mountainous area approximately 90 kilometres to the south of the provincial capital Surabaya, where a small part of the study was also conducted. Malang has a temperate climate and is surrounded by four volcanoes. The city is 11,006 square kilometres in size, and is inhabited by over 800,000 people, mostly ethnic Javanese. Minority groups in Malang include people of Madura, Chinese, and Arab backgrounds, as well as people from all over Indonesia and overseas.

A favourite place to live for Dutch families during the colonial time, Malang is now the second biggest city in East Java after Surabaya and has been particularly known as an “education city” since after Independence. Out of 449 higher degree institutions in East Java (*BPS*, 2011), Malang has a share of four state institutions and tens of other institutions. One of the state institutions is *UM*. This former *IKIP* Malang is one of the most prominent teacher education institutions in Indonesia and, as far as ELT in Indonesia goes, it has been at the forefront of Teflindo, the profession, and TEFLIN, the professional organisation, since 1954. Most of the teachers and key informants from this city graduated from *UM*.

The City of Malang was home to 10,214 out of the 383,881 teachers in East Java when this study was conducted in 2009 (*MNERI*, 2009a). According to the estimate of one prominent member of *MGMP* in Malang, around 1,200 of them were IETs.

Data generation fieldwork in Malang was carried out as part of the main study from early October to mid November 2009.

4.5.4 Jakarta

Jakarta is the capital city of the Republic of Indonesia. It is located on the northwest coast of Java island and has a population of approximately 9 million people. It is the seat of the Indonesian Government, and, consequently, nearly all important government offices and their staff are based in this city. These include two national institutions under the then MNERI, namely, *BSNP* and *Pusat Pengembangan dan Pemberdayaan Pendidik dan Tenaga Kependidikan (PPPPTK Bahasa)* [Centre for Development and Empowerment of Language Teachers and Educational Personnel].

I conducted a small part of the research in Jakarta to interview a few key informants at *BSNP* and *PPPPTK Bahasa*, and to obtain some documentary data from the two institutions.

The fieldwork in Jakarta was conducted in the last two weeks of November 2009. As it was meant for interviewing key informants only, there were no IETs in Jakarta taking part in this study.

4.6 The Respondents

This section describes the recruitment of the two groups of respondents and their profiles.

4.6.1 Recruitment of Respondents

In recruiting the two groups of respondents in each of the four locations, I was assisted by one or two local contact persons and one guide. They accepted the personal requests I made to them prior to leaving Australia for my fieldwork to assist me in finding potential respondents both for the pilot study and main study.

4.6.1.1 The Pilot Study

As stated earlier, the pilot study was conducted in Makassar between May and June 2009 involving a group of IETs from one vocational senior high school. This was where my local contact person worked.

The contact person agreed to invite several of his own colleagues to take part in the pilot study. He also agreed to be one of the respondents at this stage of the study. Being an

active member of the local *MGMP*, he knew his colleagues well. He was instrumental in recruiting the teacher respondents from all over Makassar to participate in the main part of my study which I began more than a month later. It should be noted that the results of the pilot study had influenced the design of the main study. The decisions I made on my return to Australia after the pilot study in regards to the alteration of some of the sections in the biodata sheets and the omission, rewriting or addition of some of the interview questions were made in light of the results of the pilot study and the discussions I had with my supervisors in this regard.

4.6.1.2 The Main Study

The contact persons' and local guides' assistance were central to my respondent recruitment. For recruiting the teachers in the three cities I relied on the knowledge of the contact persons, all whom were IETs and leaders or active members of the local *MGMP* or IETs' professional organisations. My contact persons for recruiting the key informants in Makassar, Padang, and Malang were lecturers in the English Departments of *UNM*, *UNP*, and *UM* respectively. However, there were times when I had to rely on my teacher contact persons and guides for suggestions about contacting some key informants. In Jakarta, the contact person was an official at the MNERI.

The local guides were instrumental as they were the ones who took me to the places (schools, offices, or homes) where I had appointments to meet the respondents, especially in Padang, Malang, and Jakarta. I did not need a guide in Makassar as I knew my way around the city quite well.

In general, the process of recruiting both the teachers and key informants was quite straightforward. I credited this to my personal acquaintance with the contact persons and guides and to their acquaintances with the potential respondents.

As soon as I arrived in each location, I had a meeting with my contact persons and guides to describe my research, the purpose of my fieldwork, and my plan of activities. During the meetings, my contact persons gave me a list of up to 30 potential EL teachers or

25 key informants whom they knew personally or professionally. The list usually came complete with home, office, and/or mobile telephone numbers of the potential respondents.

An important initial step undertaken involved obtaining a letter of research permit from local authorities. In Makassar, Padang, and Malang, the permits had to be obtained from the local education offices. I was required to put in an application and attach it with documents such as a research proposal and an official letter from UNE (see Appendix 15). It took me between one and two weeks after my arrival to obtain the research permits. The permit I obtained from Malang was a little different, though, because I was able to secure it, thanks to my contact persons, weeks before I arrived there. To my relief, a permit letter was not required in Jakarta.

The next step involved making phone calls to the potential respondents. To recruit the interviewees, I introduced myself, explained my research and purpose, and asked them if they would like to participate in my study. Most of them accepted my request and agreed to make an appointment for an interview in their schools and offices or, sometimes, residences. In the end, I was able to recruit a total of 66 teachers and 32 key informants in the four locations.

To recruit the focus group participants, I invited half the number of the teachers whom I had interviewed to a session held at the end of my fieldwork activities in each city (except Jakarta).

4.6.2 Profile: The Teachers

Sixty-six IETs who worked within the Indonesian formal education system, teaching students in primary schools (years 1 to 6), junior secondary schools (years 7 to 9), and senior secondary schools (years 10 to 12) took part in this study.

Of these, there were 27 teachers from Makassar, 20 teachers from Padang, and 19 teachers from Malang. Their profile is presented in this section in terms of gender, age grouping, highest academic qualifications, school grouping, lengths of teaching experience, participation in the teacher certification programs, certification program undertaken or to be

undertaken, and affiliation with professional organisations. An additional section (4.6.2.9) has also been added to give an idea of the teachers' EL proficiency level.

This information, except the teachers' EL proficiency level, was obtained from the biodata sheets completed at the beginning of the interviews. (See Appendix 16 for the teachers' biodata sheet.)

4.6.2.1 Gender

Female teachers dominated the landscape in the three cities. Out of the 66 teachers, 67% were female and 33% were male teachers. Padang had the largest number of female teacher respondents with 90% out of 20 teachers. Malang was next with 63% female teachers and 37% male teachers. With 52% females and 48% males out of 27 teachers, Makassar was where there was a little balance between the two genders, but female teachers were still the majority. This gender make-up seems to reflect the popular notion of the prevalence of female EL teachers in Indonesian schools, and that of female EL teacher-trainees at EL teacher education institutions.

Gender may not be an issue as far as LTC theory is concerned. However, it is generally believed in Indonesia that female teachers, for example, are more suitable to teach EL at primary schools, and male teachers would make good EL teachers in all-male or male-dominated classrooms such as those in technical vocational high schools. However, the present study was not aimed at investigating the differences between the perspectives of male IETs and those of female IETs.

4.6.2.2 Age Groups

Seventy-one per cent of the 66 teachers were in the mature ages between 31 and 50 years old. Within this age range, Padang had the largest percentage of teachers, with 75% of the 20 teachers, Malang is next with 74% of the 19 teachers, and finally Makassar with 67% of the 27 teachers. In terms of the youngest and the oldest, two teachers were in the lowest age group of 20–25 years and one teacher was in the highest age group of 61–65 years.

Given a large majority of teachers aged between 31–50 years old and assuming that most EL teachers obtain their first degrees at their early twenties, most of the 66 teachers had been in the profession for around 15–20 years. This means that the perspectives obtained from them were based on sufficient ELT experience or classroom practice, which is recognised in LTC theory as a contributing factor to teacher cognition.

4.6.2.3 Highest Academic Qualifications

The teachers' highest qualification generally complied with the academic qualification required of teachers in *SKAKG 2007*. Sixty-five per cent of them held an undergraduate degree in ELT (*S.Pd.*), 26% had a master's degree in ELT, and the rest (9%) had a *D1* [One-Year Diploma] and *D3* [Three-Year Diploma] in ELT, an undergraduate (*S1*) degree in English literature or linguistics, or a master's degree (*S2*) in a non-language, non-educational discipline.

Most of the teachers obtained all their degrees from local universities. Among the 26% of the teachers who had a master's qualification, one teacher had a second master of education degree from a U.S. university.

From the viewpoint of LTC theory, a relevant academic qualification provides an IET with professional coursework experience which contribute to their perspectives.

4.6.2.4 Status of Employment

An overwhelming majority or 78% of the 66 teachers had a civil servant (*PNS*) status. With 80% of the 20 teachers, Padang had the most *PNS* teachers of the three cities. Makassar was next with 74% of the 27 teachers being *PNS*, and Malang was last with 73% of the 19 teachers working as *PNS* teachers. The remaining 22% comprised teachers with a non-civil servant status.

Even though all teachers are treated equal, *PNS* teachers generally have more advantages than do non-*PNS* teachers. Besides having occupational benefits, social recognition, and personal prestige as government employees, *PNS* teachers usually enjoy better access to professional development programs and other facilities. This was

communicated to me by several of the non-*PNS* teachers and *PNS* teachers assigned at non-government (private) schools.

However, being government employees, especially in the current political system where school teachers are hired by the local district chief (*bupati*) or mayor (*walikota*) through the local education offices, often has its disadvantages. For example, because many district or city governments want to secure a high percentage of students being successful in the National Final Examinations (*UAN*) [Ujian Akhir Nasional]⁴, teachers of final year students were particularly under pressure to ensure their students pass *UAN*. They may be pressured by their school principals, who could have been pressured by the local education office head, who might have also been pressured by the *bupati* or *walikota*, who has his or her own political agendas. Consequently, it is a public secret now that year 6, year 9, and year 12 EL teachers in particular are busy “preparing” their students to pass *UAN* than teaching the subjects. As reported in many recent Indonesian newspapers, given such an obligation many teachers have even “helped” their students cheat during *UAN*.

Referring to LTC theory, complexities in relation to the teachers’ employment status may be categorised as contextual factors that could influence or affect their classroom practice.

4.6.2.5 Schools Taught

As much as 77% of the 66 teachers taught EL at senior high school level, both for general education (*SMA*) and vocational education (*SMK*), and in both government and private schools. The remaining 23% consisted of IETs teaching junior high schools (*SMP*) and primary schools (*SD*). Some of the teachers worked for Islamic primary-level *madrasah (MI)*, junior-high-level *madrasah tsanawiyah (MTs)*, and senior-high-level *madrasah aliyah (MA)* or *madrasah aliyah kejuruan (MAK)*.

This information suggests that the majority of the teachers had experience in teaching both general and specialised EL materials taught to students at general and vocational senior high schools. Also, depending on their students’ grades, academic areas (e.g.

⁴ Alternatively referred to as *Ujian Nasional (UN)* [National Examinations].

Science or Social Studies at general senior high schools), and departments (in the case of vocational high schools), they could also teach up to approximately eleven 80-minute lessons per week. This teaching load is the heaviest among all IETs.

In terms of LTC, this means that these teachers' perspectives could be influenced by classroom practice characterised by the various focuses of the EL materials taught at senior high school level.

4.6.2.6 Teaching Experience

As indicated in section 4.6.2.2, on average, the 66 teachers in the three cities had been in the Teflindo⁵ profession for quite a long time, that is, 15 to 20 years. However, it should be noted that the shortest teaching experience was 2 years and the longest was 44 years.

Of all the teachers, the 27 teachers in Makassar had been in the Teflindo profession for the longest time, averaging 16.5 years. This was followed by the teachers in Malang, with the 19 teachers having taught EL for an average of 15.89 years. The 20 teachers in Padang had the shortest average, with 12.8 years of teaching experience.

As far as LTC is concerned, this means that the teachers had had sufficient influence from classroom practice, including practice teaching during their pre-service and/or novice stage. This background and the contextual factors that surround it should have an effect on the teachers' perspectives.

4.6.2.7 Participation in PSG

The 66 teachers' participation in *PSG* varied according to local or personal circumstances. It could be described based on a combination of several situations, including whether: (1) they had passed *PSG*, (2) they were awaiting the outcomes of *PSG*, (3) they were taking part in *PSG* (as they had just submitted their portfolios or attended the teacher training program), (4) they were preparing the portfolios to be submitted, (5) they were waiting for the formal approval from the local Education Office to take part in *PSG*, and (6) they did not take part in *PSG*.

⁵ See section 5.2.1 in Chapter 5 for an explanation of the term "Teflindo."

Across the board, 30% of the 66 teachers in the three cities were awaiting approval to take part in the programs, 26% had successfully passed *PSG*, and 24% were preparing their portfolios for assessment in *PSG*. Among the remaining teachers, 12% did not take part in *PSG*, 6% had taken part in the programs and were awaiting the outcomes, and 2% were in the process of taking part in *PSG*.

Having teachers with these backgrounds means that first-hand experience of the teachers who had taken part, were currently taking part, or did not take part in *PSG* could be obtained. The backgrounds may count as a contextual factor that can have an influence on the teachers' perspectives.

4.6.2.8 Professional Affiliations

The 66 teachers were generally enthusiastic about being or becoming members of EL subject teachers' organisations both at the local and national levels. In total, 82% of the teachers were members of their local *MGMP*. Members of general teachers' organisations accounted for 3%. Thus, the total percentage of the teachers with teachers' organisation membership is 85%. However, it is important to note that 15% of the teachers claimed to have no affiliation with any teachers' organisation.

It should be noted that out of the 85% of teachers who were members of various teachers' organisations, 65% of the 20 teachers in Padang also claimed to be members of other IETs' organisations. Thirty-five per cent were members of English Teachers' Forum of West Sumatra (ETFOWS), 25% had membership with IETA, and 5% belonged to TEFLIN. This phenomenon was not found in Makassar and Malang.

The teachers' involvement in teachers' professional organisations could count as contextual factors that might influence their perspectives. They had this influence through professional networking, development, and collaboration, as well as social activities.

4.6.2.9. English Language Proficiency

This is the only sub-section in this thesis that is not based on the biodata sheets completed by the teachers prior to the interviews. This sub-section was added because it was later

considered important to speculate on the expected level or standard of proficiency in the context of Indonesia, the information of which I did not manage to obtain during my data collection fieldwork.

The only reliable source available to achieve this purpose is Coleman (2011, p. 7) which reports a 2009 survey by the MNERI to gauge the English proficiency of 27,000 teachers in Indonesian *RSBI* (international standard) schools. The survey used the following categories of assessment on the scale of 10-900. They are Novice (score range: 10-250), Elementary (255-400), Intermediate (405-600), Basic Working (605-780), Advanced Working (785-900), and General Professional (905-990). The results of the study show that 1.1% of the teachers surveyed were at the General Professional level, 4.4% were at the Advanced Working level, 21.7% at the Basic Working level, 39.4% at the Intermediate level, 26.1% at the Elementary level, and 7.4% at the Novice level.

Based on my assessment of the teachers' level of English during the interviews and focus group discussions, it was found that 9.1% were at the General Professional level, 16.66% at the Advanced Working level, 28.79% at the Basic Working level, 33.33% at the Intermediate level, 9.09% at the Elementary level, and 3.03% at the Novice level. It can be said therefore that, on average, the teachers had a reasonably good level of EL proficiency.

Using the result of the survey and my own assessment of the teachers, I can speculate that the realistic expectation of the standard of IETs' proficiency, especially with those having a *D4* or *S1* qualification in the context of ELT in Indonesia, should be between the Elementary and Basic Working levels.

4.6.3 Profile: Key Informants

The key informants for this study were 32 individuals within the Indonesian education system other than the teachers. They were interviewed because of their direct or indirect involvement in teachers' education, professional development, professional standardisation, and certification programs. These generally included university professors, lecturers (i.e. teacher educators), committee members of professional standardisation or teacher certification, assessors and trainers in *PSG*, teacher trainers, and regional education

officials. Their profile was obtained from the biodata sheets completed at the beginning of each interview. (See Appendix 17 for key informants' biodata sheets.)

Out of the 32 key informants, 9 of them took part in this study in Makassar, 10 in Padang, 10 in Malang (including Surabaya), and 3 in Jakarta. Most of them worked for three state universities (*UNM*, *UNP*, and *UM*). These universities were once *IKIPs* until their conversion into full-fledged universities between the late 1990s and 2000.

According to their status and responsibilities, the 32 key informants may be categorised into four groups referred to here as the *Academics*, *Certifiers*, *Trainers*, and *Policy Makers*, respectively. It should be noted that the *Certifiers* and some of the *Policy Makers* are academics, due to their main occupation as university lecturers or professors. The *Trainers*, however, are not academics.

Academics made up 72% of the key informants. They were lecturers, senior lecturers, heads of department, heads of study programs, faculty deans, and professors in the three universities. Most of them were based in the three universities' English Departments, which are part of the universities' faculties of languages, literature, and arts.

Certifiers comprised 52.17% of the 23 lecturers from the *Academics* group. They had an official, additional responsibility as local certification commissioners, and assessors, as well as trainers⁶ in the two-week remedial program (for teachers who failed the Portfolio Program). Some of them were appointed as trainers in the one-year Teacher Training Program as well. They were based at the *PSG* Centres at *UNM*, *UNP*, and *UM*.

Trainers consisted of five *widyaiswaras* 'teacher trainers' from the province-based, nationally-coordinated *LPMP* in Makassar (2 trainers), Padang (1 trainer), and Surabaya (2 trainers). One teacher trainer at the national-level *PPPPTK Bahasa* in Jakarta also took part in this study. Note that a *widyaiswara* is an experienced teacher with high academic qualifications recruited by *LPMP* or *PPPPTK Bahasa* to work as a teacher trainer.

Policy Makers consisted of one mathematics professor from the Bandung Institute of Technology (*ITB*) [*Institut Teknologi Bandung*] in Bandung and an ELT lecturer from *UM*.

⁶ This is a temporary duty for the *certifiers* and should be distinguished from that of the five full-time *trainers* from *LPMP* and *PPPPTK Bahasa* who took part in this study.

They were employed by *BSNP* in Jakarta. In addition, there was one key informant who used to be the head of the local education office in Malang.

4.7 Methods of Data Generation

The process of obtaining research data is generally described as “data collection”. A number of qualitative researchers, however, have used different terms. For example, Morse and Richards (2002, pp. 87–110) call it “making data” on the grounds that qualitative data do not “pre-exist, ready to be picked like apples from a tree” (p.87). The process engages the researchers and participants in a collaborative, ongoing effort to negotiate the data interactively. For the same reason, the process has been referred to by Gummesson (2003) and Morgan (2008, p. 353) as “data generation”, meaning that “they are the creation of the researcher in interaction with, for example, a respondent in an interview” (Gummesson, 2003, p. 486). I prefer the term “data generation” and will use it to describe what would otherwise be called “data collection” in this research.

As described earlier, the methods selected for generating the data of this study were a combination of semi-structured interviews (henceforth interviews) and focus groups. The former were used with both groups of respondents and the latter were not meant for key informants.

I met my respondents for the first time when I visited them for our interviews. Both the teachers and key informants were given the *Information Statement for Participants* to read (see Appendix 18) and a *Consent Form for Participants* (see Appendix 19) to sign before the interviews or at the beginning of the focus groups. I also used this opportunity to explain the ethical issues pertaining to their participation in the study. The main ethical things that I communicated to them were as follows:

1. My research complied with Australia’s National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research and had been approved by UNE’s Human Research Ethics Committee. (See Appendix 20 for the Committee’s letter);
2. I had obtained permission from their local governments, educational authorities, and school principals; (See Appendices 21, 22, and 23 for the permits.)

3. Their real identities and personal information would not be disclosed and pseudonyms and not real names will be used in the report; and
4. They could withdraw from the study at any stage.

Those who confirmed their participation were then asked to sign a consent form before the interviews/focus group began. The employment of the two methods is described in the next sections.

It is of utmost importance to note, however, that I adopted the above approaches to *data generation* because I wanted my research study to conform to the “research on, for and with researched” paradigm. As discussed by Cameron, Frazer, Harvey, Rampton, and Richardson (1994, pp. 18–25), this paradigm is based on three choices of power relations that researchers can adopt (Jazadi, 2003, p. 68). The first choice is “research on” or “ethical research”. The researcher conducts his or her study in full awareness of the potentially exploitative and damaging effects of being researched. Apart from the four ethical issues above, I asked the respondents to “speak their minds,” instead of saying something they thought I wanted to hear. I also compensated with transport money and meals those attending the focus groups, which were conducted outside their working hours.

The second is “research for” or “advocacy research”. The researcher uses or is asked to use his or her skills and authority as an expert to defend subjects’ interests, thereby getting involved in the latter’s campaigns and speaking on their behalf. Even though I tried as much as possible not to pretend that I was an expert in my profession and research area, I did tell the teachers that my research was designed to give them their voices and that my study of their perspectives was my means of speaking to the wider audience on behalf of them.

The third choice is “research with” or “empowerment research”. The researcher uses interactive, dialogic research methods as constructivist strategies, as opposed to the distancing or objectifying strategies that positivists are constrained to use. I had chosen this paradigm since I decided to use the term “data generation” instead of “data collection”. I believed that the present study should adopt the constructivists’ view of research as the researcher’s and participants’ collective effort in knowledge construction.

I believed that by adopting the “research on, for, and with researched” or a combination of “ethical, advocacy, and empowerment research” I have maximised the reliability or truthfulness of the respondents’ or, in particular, the teachers’ perspectives in this study. As stated by Kouritzin (2000, p. 25), there is little perceivable benefit for the respondents to lie to researchers and misrepresent their stories if they are asked the type of questions that educational researchers tend to explore; they will not purposely lie if stringent moral and ethical guidelines, respect, confidentiality, and acceptance are in place; nor will they lie if they take part in the study voluntarily (cf. E. M. Ellis, 2003, p. 158).

4.7.1 Semi-structured Interviews

Semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions were used to generate the perspectives of the teachers and key informants on the topics raised by the study. In this thesis, the individual interviews are further categorised as *teacher interviews* and *key informant interviews*.

It is important to point out that the individual interviews served a different purpose from the focus group discussions. While the interviews sought the personal perspectives of all the 66 teachers and 32 key informants, the focus group discussions were conducted to gain the collective perspectives of only some of the teachers on the leads provided by the interviews, including those expressed by the key informants. The leads were the issues that I thought would make interesting topics of discussion in the focus group discussions, as it was considered essential to have the collective views of the teachers. Therefore the focus group discussions added more understanding regarding the issues (see section 4.7.2 for further information).

I used four instruments when conducting the interviews. They were: (1) a respondent biodata sheet, on which I wrote down some of the respondents’ personal and professional details; (2) a list of open-ended, semi-structured interview questions which I prepared for the teacher respondents (see Appendix 24) and for key informants (see Appendix 25); (3) an interview guide, where I listed my open-ended interview questions in the first column and

made notes of the respondents' replies in the second (see Appendix 26 for an example); and (4) a digital audio recorder.

Each interview was a one-on-one, direct interaction between a respondent and me. The interviews were conducted in venues convenient to the respondents. Most of them decided to have the interviews at their schools, campuses, or offices. Some interviews were conducted at the respondents' residences

After the respondents had read the information statement and signed the consent form, I asked them if they would like the interviews to be recorded. Out of the 66 teachers and 32 key informants, only one teacher in Padang declined to be recorded. Then I asked the respondents to answer a number of biographical questions. I needed their information to develop their collective profiles. When I asked them whether they wanted to speak English or Indonesian, most of them chose to use English or code-mix English and Indonesian. Personally, I found this stage of the interviews to be very much like an ice-breaker, especially because most of the respondents had never met me before.

Each of the interviews lasted approximately one hour. At the start, I often allowed the respondents to go through the list of questions for a few minutes. I wanted to ensure they had understood all the questions before they answered them and before I actually started recording. This allowed me to clarify the questions, too. Some of the teachers did use the lists I gave them, but many others, especially key informants, were happy to just let me ask the questions for them to answer. Given that I had to interview up to 30 respondents in a relatively short period of time in each location, I found this question-and-answer type of interview an efficient way in ensuring each interview lasted only about one hour.

On many occasions I tried as much as possible to ask, or let the respondents answer, all the questions. However, for efficiency, I tried to be flexible by not asking certain questions where the answers to which had been articulated elsewhere by the respondents. For example, when they were answering question 3 regarding teacher professionalism, they often talked about the *S1/D4* qualification being the ideal requirement for professional teachers, which is the information sought by question 10 regarding IETs' minimum academic

qualification. Therefore, I then decided not to ask question 10. Also, I often moved back and forth through the interview guide on the basis of the respondents' answers.

The data I was able to generate from the teacher and key informant interviews were the respondents' perspectives and other pieces of information contained in approximately 97 hours of interview recordings, approximately 294 pages of interview notes, approximately 388 pages of interview transcripts, and 98 biodata sheets.

It is important to note that the teacher interviews and the key informant interviews were used for different purposes. The teacher interview data were used to inform the focus group discussions and later developed as a basis of the data presentations in Chapters 5, 6, 7, and 8. The key informant interview data provided macro information about the research topic and were used as sources of information for the study as a whole, ranging from the literature review, data generation stages during the fieldwork, data categorisation during the data analysis stages, to data presentation in the writing up of the thesis.

4.7.2 Focus Group Discussions

As described in section 4.7.1, focus group discussions (henceforth focus groups) were designed to generate data in the form of collective perspectives from some of the teachers regarding the topics of the study.

The aim of the focus groups was to find out if the themes of the teachers' perspectives gained through the teacher interviews could also be identified in their collective perspectives. In other words, by conducting focus groups, I wanted to see the extent to which the teachers' perspectives articulated in the *individual interviews* were consistent with those articulated in the focus groups.

Focus groups were restricted to the teachers because this study deals with teachers' perspectives as its primary data. Sixty-eight per cent of the 66 teachers, attended the focus groups in their respective locations. Nine teachers took part in the focus group in Makassar on 27 June 2009; 20 teachers participated in Padang on 29 August 2009; and 8 teachers were present in Malang on 14 November 2009.

Because the focus groups are basically researcher-led group discussions, or some say group interviews, to generate data, I took the role of leading the focus groups with the materials that I had previously prepared.

However, rather than running the focus groups simply like group interviews, I designed them to be like a workshop, where I engaged the teachers not only in discussion but also in activities during the one-and-a-half to two-hour sessions. To this end, I put the teachers into small groups to work together. I also asked for the teachers' consent to my recording the focus groups, which none of them objected to.

To ensure mutual intelligibility between the teachers and I, I decided to use Indonesian throughout the focus groups, especially at the beginning of the sessions where I had to describe my research topic and explain the purposes of my research and the focus groups. However, I was aware that English is the preferred code among IETs, lecturers, and teacher educators when they meet in conferences, seminars or workshops nowadays, and my focus group sessions was not an exception. Therefore, in the course of the sessions, it was only natural that the teachers and I code-switched between Indonesian and English, or switched entirely to English. It is important to note that even though the teachers spoke English most of the time during the interviews and focus groups, they occasionally used standard Indonesian and their respective local languages such as Makassarese-Malay in Makassar, Minang in Padang, and Javanese (East Javanese style) in Malang. They mainly used these local languages when they talked to each other.

In Makassar, the teachers worked in 3 groups of 3 (see Photo 4.1); in Padang, they were in 7 groups of 4 (Photo 4.2), and in Malang they worked in 2 groups of 3 and 1 group of 2 (Photo 4.3).

In general, the three focus group sessions gave the teachers the opportunity to articulate collectively what they thought, knew, and believed about ELT under four themes: (1) the international standards movement in general education and ELT in particular and how it is applied in Indonesia; (2) *SKAKG 2007*, *PSG*, and what needed to be done to improve them in light of international standards documents and teacher input; (3) a model of professional teaching standards for IETs; and (4) IETs' competencies.

Photo 4.1 Focus group in Makassar, 27 June 2009



Photo 4.2 Focus group in Padang, 29 August 2009



Photo 4.3 Focus group in Malang, 14 November 2009



4.8 Data Analysis

Data analysis was conducted in the inductive process of abstraction (Morse & Richards, 2002, p. 134) or data reduction (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996, p. 28), which means that the process started from describing the “small picture” in order to arrive at the “big picture”. The analysis was based on the teachers’ perspectives obtained from the interviews and focus groups (primary data). This approach was taken because this study was aimed at investigating IETs’ perspectives, in which the bulk of the data was contained. Therefore, data analysis was focused more on teacher interviews and focus groups.

To inform my understanding of the context the teachers were in when articulating their perspectives, the key informant interviews were also used. Their insights were important because, perhaps due to their positions, responsibilities, and experience, they could be aware or more aware of the context surrounding the teachers’ perspectives. However, even though the key informant interviews were recorded, transcribed, and coded, it is the teachers’ perspectives, not the key informants’ perspectives, that were used to form the basis of the data presentation (see Chapters 5, 6, 7, and 8). In other words, the key informants’ insights were used only to gain input for understanding the teachers’ perspectives in their larger context.

In the following sections I will describe the processes involved in analysing the teacher interview data and focus groups.

4.8.1 Interview Data

Given the large amount of interview data, I could only transcribe three teacher interviews and four key informant interviews. Therefore, to allow myself time to focus on the data analysis process, the remaining transcription work was done by a team consisting of final-year undergraduate students and lecturers at the Center for Language Services (CLS), *UNM* in Makassar. Before commencing their work, the transcribers were trained and given written and oral guidelines. The result was the 388 pages of transcripts mentioned earlier.

The interviews were transcribed verbatim. I did not ask the CLS team to translate into English any interviews that were entirely or partially in Indonesian as I wanted to do the

translation myself. Because the translation and further data analysis were dependent upon the accuracy of the CLS team's transcription, I conducted a check-and-recheck process on all the transcripts they made to ensure they were accurate. I replayed each of the recordings and checked the completed transcripts for errors. I found many errors indeed, and I made every effort to correct them. Given the sheer number of respondents and amount of data, it was not possible to consult the respondents regarding the accuracy of my transcripts and interpretations of their responses. However, most of the respondents were consulted by phone several times during the data processing and analysis stages to gain clarification about many aspects of the interviews and focus groups.

Having ensured that the transcripts were free from inaccuracies, I continued the process of "thematic coding and analysis" (Ayres, 2008), "coding" (Morse & Richards, 2002), or "coding and categorizing" (Flick, 2002) of data. I had been doing this interpretive activity, which I prefer to call "coding", on my research data since I had conducted the pilot study. As described by Ayres, coding is aimed at reducing the qualitative data into segments and categories so that they could be summarised and reconstructed in a way that captures the important concepts within the data set (2008, p. 868). The process of reducing (summarising and reconstructing) qualitative data in such a way is referred to as "abstracting" by other authors, e.g. Morse and Richards (2002).

I carried out the abstracting process manually but systematically by myself by taking an inductive approach, that is, moving from the specific categories to the general ones, from "categorising" to "conceptualisation" (Morse & Richards, 2002, p. 131), the two major steps in data abstraction.

With categorisation, the first step I took was coding the interview data, which I carried out in six stages. First, as shown in Table 4.2, each teacher was assigned a code and a pseudonym to facilitate identification, analysis of data, and presentation of results. The code consists of two consonantal letters from the name of the city where they came from and a number, as shown above. The number signifies the order in which they were interviewed. For example, as shown in the table above, Mg1 was the first teacher to be interviewed in Malang and Pd20 was the last one I interviewed in Padang.

Second, using the categories that I had developed since the pilot study and during the main study, I read and reread each teacher's transcribed interview print-out to familiarise myself with the data. This is in line with "Phase 1: familiarizing yourself with your data" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, pp. 87–88).

Table 4.2 Teacher respondents, their codes, and pseudonyms

Makassar		Padang		Malang	
Code	Pseudonym	Code	Pseudonym	Code	Pseudonym
Mk1	Ima	Pd1	Fitri	Mg1	Felix
Mk2	Anna	Pd2	Eva	Mg2	Tika
Mk3	Tiro	Pd3	Ellie	Mg3	Wahid
Mk4	Wawan	Pd4	Lina	Mg4	Ayu
Mk5	Vina	Pd5	Neni	Mg5	Ria
Mk6	Andi	Pd6	Alya	Mg6	Widya
Mk7	Diana	Pd7	Jefri	Mg7	Nur
Mk8	Arie	Pd8	Fifi	Mg8	Ani
Mk9	Nasir	Pd9	Wini	Mg9	Riani
Mk10	Chaya	Pd10	Nia	Mg10	Ati
Mk11	Yunus	Pd11	Yani	Mg11	Lisda
Mk12	Lexy	Pd12	Rahma	Mg12	Anton
Mk13	Hamid	Pd13	Isti	Mg13	Marni
Mk14	Ardi	Pd14	Asni	Mg14	Zaki
Mk15	Arief	Pd15	Alam	Mg15	Alim
Mk16	Nestor	Pd16	Mulia	Mg16	Lily
Mk17	Amir	Pd17	Erna	Mg17	Linda
Mk18	Muchtar	Pd18	Sinta	Mg18	Adi
Mk19	Tita	Pd19	Risna	Mg19	Amat
Mk20	Rina	Pd20	Mega		
Mk21	Yola				
Mk22	Ismi				
Mk23	Tati				
Mk24	Nisa				
Mk25	Lita				
Mk26	Yaya				
Mk27	Rosa				

Third, while I was familiarising myself with the data, I used the interview notes I took during the fieldwork to begin making a list or a mind map of the codes. In doing this, I was mindful of the importance of organising my data into meaningful groups. To this end, I often had to create new codes, change the wording of the codes, or move them around on the list/mind map. "Phase 2: generating initial codes" in Braun and Clarke (2006, pp. 88–89) concurs with this procedure. At this stage, I had begun coding the transcripts manually, e.g. by using highlighters or coloured pens.

Fourth, I organised the codes into larger classifications: themes. Each of the themes consists of several relevant coded parts of the data (i.e. transcripts). To make it easier for me to work on these, I used the word processor on the computer to create lists of coded themes, complete with the number of and the code of the teachers whose statements had been included under the themes. By knowing how many of the teachers shared an opinion about something, I could organise the themes and their components in a descending order, from the top to the bottom. According to Braun and Clarke (2006, pp. 89–91), this stage is “Phase 3: searching for themes”.

Fifth, the themes identified in the fourth step above were later reclassified as “sub-themes” and placed under overarching “themes”. This involved organising and reorganising, arranging or rearranging, and naming or renaming the sub-themes and themes. This procedure is in line with Braun and Clarke’s “Phase 4: reviewing themes” (2006, pp. 91–92). When engaging myself in this exercise, the coding process did take me “‘up’ from the data to more abstract ideas or categories...[and] ‘down’ from the idea to all the material [that I] have linked it to, and down from any of those segments to the whole document” (Morse & Richards, 2002, p. 115).

Sixth, after developing the lists or mind maps using themes and sub-themes based on the coded teacher interview transcripts, I studied the categories carefully in order to decide whether further definition or refinement would be necessary. I decided then that the categorisation of the teacher interview data would be based on the themes that I had identified from the literature reviewed for the study. These are the four major themes of the findings, namely: (1) EL teacher professionalisation in Indonesia, (2) EL teacher knowledge, (3) EL teacher skills, and (4) EL teacher dispositions, all of which reflect IETs’ general perspectives on the topic under study. This final process is very much in agreement with the principle described by Braun and Clarke (2006, pp. 92–93) as “Phase 5: defining and naming themes”, albeit the process I undertook related more to the final major themes of the data as a whole. It is important to note that throughout the above data processing, the coding and categorisation were checked by the two supervisors.

The final stage is about presenting the results of the study using the themes and sub-themes developed throughout the six stages of thematic analysis above. This will be described in section 4.9 on presentation of the results.

4.8.2 Focus Groups

As described earlier, the focus groups were conducted with the aim of finding out if the themes of the teachers' perspectives gained through the teacher interviews could also be identified in their collective perspectives. I wanted to see the extent to which the teachers' perspectives articulated in the *individual interviews* were consistent with the *collective* ones articulated in the focus groups.

In the context of the teachers' perspectives as the primary data of this study, the focus groups were a "supplementary source of data...a source of follow-up data to assist the primary data" (Morgan, 1997, pp. 3–4). Given the large amount of data already available from the interviews in this study, the focus groups were not designed to be analysed and presented as rigorously as the primary source of data. Findings from focus groups were to be used only for confirming the perspectives obtained from the teacher interviews. Therefore, even though the focus groups were recorded, they were not transcribed for further analysis.

Because the three sessions of focus groups in the three cities were conducted in the form of workshops in which the teachers were engaged in activities that I had planned, the data consisted mainly of the teachers' group work results. They are in the form of completed worksheets on which the group members articulated in writing their perspectives of the topics being discussed. The completed focus group worksheets were then analysed textually. After coding the points that these materials contained, I transferred the main points onto a list of themes. These were then analysed further and categorised based on the four major themes that emerged from the teacher interviews.

The perspectives obtained from the focus group sessions are not presented and discussed in a separate section in this thesis. Instead, they are integrated with the teachers' perspectives as a whole which are described in Chapters 5, 6, 7, and 8, and in Chapter 9 where I discuss the results and conclude the thesis.

4.9 Presentation of the Results

This stage of the study is to do with the writing up and presentation of the report on the basis of the thematic analysis of the data. It began after I had four sets of “fully worked-out themes” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 93) of the teachers’ perspectives. These themes are treated in this study as the *major* themes.

As stated earlier, the four major themes are (1) teacher professionalisation; (2) teacher knowledge; (3) teacher skills; and (4) teacher dispositions. Each of the major themes consists of a number of themes, and each of the themes has a number of sub-themes. Therefore, unlike the data analysis that was conducted inductively, the results of the study are presented deductively. That is, starting from “the big picture” to the “small picture”.

4.9.1 The Four Major Themes

The four major themes are key categories of the points made by the teachers in their responses to the issues raised during data generation activities. They reflect what Borg (2003) refers to as “what teachers think, know and believe”, specifically, about:

- what needs to be done to make IETs professional (teacher professionalisation);
- what teachers should know (teacher knowledge);
- what they should be able to do (teacher skills);
- what they should be like (teacher dispositions).

These key categories were informed by both an interpretation of all the research data, i.e. interviews and focus groups, and review of the literature, especially TESOL (2008). To provide detailed discussion, the key categories have also been broken down into sub-categories.

The order in which teacher knowledge appears, before teacher skills and teacher dispositions, was decided on the basis of two sources of information. The first source was the research data itself, in which the respondents often mentioned points related to teacher knowledge before mentioning other points related to teacher skills and teacher dispositions. The second source was the literature of the study, e.g. TESOL (2008), in which the major

areas of professional teaching standards are classified as teacher knowledge, teacher skills, and teacher dispositions, and are put in this order as well.

As stated in Chapter 1, the four major themes of the results are presented in this thesis in four consecutive chapters and discussed in the final one. The first major theme of teacher professionalisation is presented in Chapter 5 which sets the scene for the next three results chapters. The second major theme of teacher knowledge appears in Chapter 6. The third major theme is described in Chapter 7 on teacher skills. The fourth major theme of teacher dispositions is presented in Chapter 8.

Throughout the presentation, quotations from the interview transcripts are provided as evidence of the themes within the data. The quoted statements made in English are presented verbatim with syntactic, grammatical and/or conceptual adjustments where necessary. Statements made in Indonesian are quoted as translated statements. (See Conventions for an explanation of the symbols used in the quotations as well as in other parts of the thesis.) In my analytic narratives (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 93) of the quotations in each description of the theme, I develop an argument (Morse & Richards, 2002, p. 185) in relation to the relevant research question (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 93). The four results chapters are made up of such analytic narratives.

Finally, having presented the four major themes in these chapters, in Chapter 9, I discuss the key findings from the four chapters in relation to the literature of the study. Chapter 9 also concludes the thesis. From a theoretical point of view of research methodology, the presentation of the major themes as described above is in agreement with Braun and Clarke's (2006, p. 93) "Phase 6: producing the report". This phase is described as involving the final analysis and write-up of the report.

It is important to note that in Chapters 5, 6, 7 and 8, where I described the data qualitatively, I do not state how many teachers made a statement about something as in quantitative research. Instead, using the "qualia and quanta" terminology from Bhattacharya (2008), I described the "qualia" using "quanta" phrases such as "a small minority", "some of the teachers", "none of the teachers," etc. So I do not rely on using specific numbers since the ultimate goal of a qualitative study such as the present one is to search for meaning and

interpretation rather than precise numerical descriptions of the data (see Liamputtong, 2013, p. xi & p. 79).

An important part of the write-up stage was the use of terms in reference to certain specific aspects of the research. Two of these are described in the next section.

4.9.2 Terminology

Some of the terms used in this thesis can be found on the list of abbreviations and acronyms at the beginning of the thesis. Two essential terms are described in this section.

4.9.2.1 “Indonesian EFL teachers” (IETs)

The term “Indonesian EFL teachers” (IETs) is used to refer to the Indonesian teachers of EFL (English as a foreign language) in general, including the sixty-six teachers who took part in this study. Throughout this thesis the term is abbreviated as IETs (plural) and IET (singular).

There are three reasons why the term IETs is used in this thesis. First, following Moussu and Llurda’s (2008) view point about “native speaker” and “non-native speaker” being the constructs that generalise “the perceived differences among people with a diversity of expertise and experience as language users” (p. 318), the word *Indonesian* in this case means “non-native speakers of English”. In my view, they should be distinguished from the *native-speaker EFL teachers* employed by many private schools and English language courses in Indonesia. “EFL teachers” means that they teach the English language for the purposes of communication, rather than for the studies of English literature or linguistics, in a context where the language is used as a foreign language. This means that the teachers and all the IETs they represented are Indonesian nationals working as EFL teachers in Indonesia’s educational context. The context is uniquely Indonesian, given Indonesia’s social, cultural, linguistic, economic, historical, and political backgrounds in relation to the English language (Lauder, 2008). In other words, *IETs* have their own unique characteristics which may influence their cognitions.

Second, varieties of English as an International Language (EIL) are developing and being spoken by various people all over the world. According to Lauder (2008), in this situation, “features of Indonesian English” or “[a] region-neutral, internationally intelligible variety of English spoken in Indonesian (sic) is not an impossibility” (p. 18). In my view, as parts of international English users, IETs might become speakers of the variety of EIL indicated by Lauder above. Anecdotal evidence has shown that in Indonesia today people have begun talking about the so-called “Indonesian English”, usually in reference to the “typical” Indonesian pronunciation of English sounds and the common grammatical mistakes that Indonesian English speakers often make (Lauder, 2008). I believe that the prospect of Indonesian variety of EIL brings with it a set of speakers’ attitudes towards English itself, the teaching of English, and other relevant aspects, which may also influence the speakers’ cognitions.

Third, IETs’ qualification and employment backgrounds are different from those of their native-speaking counterparts. In terms of qualification, as regulated by the government, IETs generally have a minimum undergraduate degree in ELT or English literature/linguistics obtained from local tertiary institutions. Native-speaking EFL teachers in Indonesia may generally have at least a bachelor degree in various fields of study obtained from their home countries as well as an ESL teaching qualification such as the University of Cambridge’s Certificate and/or Diploma in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA/DELTA). When it comes to employment, the employers of most IETs are regional governments or foundations running public or private units of education in the formal education sector. Native-speaking EFL teachers generally work for private educational institutions offering general education or English language tuitions. Based on my own experience working as a non-native EFL teacher both among expatriate teachers and among Indonesian colleagues, these different backgrounds usually mean that IETs may lag behind their expatriate counterparts in terms of:

- salaries and other financial benefits;
- professional development programs;
- international experience;

- teaching-learning facilities;
- exposure to English language culture; and
- social and professional recognition.

These three backgrounds mean that I need to refer to all Indonesian teachers of EFL in a specific way. As described above, the term I have chosen is IETs.

4.9.2.2 “The teachers”

As stated in the introduction to the chapter, it is important to distinguish between the sixty-six teacher respondents and the thirty-two key informants who have taken part in this study. Because the teacher respondents and their perspectives are the main focus of the presentation and discussion of the data, they will be substantially referred to throughout the thesis, particularly in Chapters 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9. Therefore I have adopted the term “the teachers” as an efficient way to refer specifically to the teacher respondents.

It can be inferred from the above explanation that the term “IETs” includes “the teachers”, while the term “the teachers” refers only to the sixty-six IETs involved in this study.

4.10 Summary

In this chapter I have described the research methodology adopted for conducting this study on IETs’ perspectives on PTS in the context of the implementation of *PSG* in Indonesia.

The description has addressed the questions of *what*, *where*, *who*, *how* and *why* of this qualitative study. The question *what* is addressed at the beginning of the chapter with a restatement of the central and subsidiary research questions that guided the study, and then when I described the design of the study. The question *where* is described in the four sites from where data for this research were generated. The question *who* is addressed by the description of the two groups of respondents who took part in this study as well as the terminology used in describing them generally and specifically. Finally, the questions *how* and *why* are described at length in terms of the methods of data generation, analysis of data, and presentation of the results.

In the next chapter, I will present the first major theme of the teachers' perspectives. That is, their views about teacher professionalisation efforts in Indonesia.

Chapter 5

Teacher Professionalisation

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the teachers' perspectives on teacher professionalisation in Indonesia, particularly with regards to IETs. It is the first of four chapters in this thesis that present the findings of the study. The next three chapters present the teachers' perspectives on teacher knowledge, teacher skills, and teacher dispositions respectively.

The major theme, teacher professionalisation, comprises three themes presented here as the teachers' appraisals of the professionalisation efforts currently taking place in Indonesia. They are specified as IET professionalism, standardisation of IET qualifications and competencies, and certification of IETs. An analytical discussion of the themes is integrated into the conclusion of the chapter.

There is a reason for dedicating a chapter to teacher professionalisation in this thesis. That is, during the stage of data analysis, three themes (professionalism, standardisation, and certification of IETs) were identified and were later separated from the teachers' perspectives on teacher knowledge, skills, and dispositions, which were later developed into Chapters 6, 7, and 8. The three themes of teacher professionalisation described in this chapter serve as background information for the next three chapters.

The basic notion of this chapter is: *What teacher professionalisation efforts should be made to create professional IETs?*

5.2 Themes and Sub-themes

The themes and sub-themes of the teachers' perspectives on teacher professionalisation are summarised in Table 5.1. The sub-themes were obtained from the coding process. The themes were obtained later when the sub-themes were being categorised.

Note that the use of a new term "Teflindo," which I deliberately coined to refer to "the teaching of English as a foreign language in Indonesia," is explained in section 5.2.1 for this

chapter. Teflindo is used once in the summary of Chapter 3 and four times throughout Chapter 4. It is used in this thesis vis-à-vis TEFLIN, another term or acronym which stands for exactly the same words as Teflindo.

Table 5.1 Themes and sub-themes of the teachers’ perspectives on teacher professionalisation

Section	Theme	Sub-section	Sub-theme
5.2.1	The Professional Status of Teaching/Teflindo	5.2.1.1	‘Teaching/Teflindo is a profession’
		5.2.1.2	‘Teaching/Teflindo is a profession, but....’
		5.2.1.3	‘Teaching/Teflindo is not yet a profession’
5.2.2	Do we need PTS?	5.2.2.1	‘We need PTS’
		5.2.2.2	‘We need PTS, but....’
5.2.3	Strengths and Weaknesses of <i>SKAKG 2007</i>	5.2.3.1	Weaknesses of <i>SKAKG 2007</i>
		5.2.3.2	Strengths of <i>SKAKG 2007</i>
5.2.4	The importance of Subject-specific PTS for IETs		
5.2.5	Who Should Formulate Subject-specific PTS for IETs	5.2.5.1	IETs/IET Representatives
		5.2.5.2	Education/ELT Experts
		5.2.5.3	The Government
		5.2.5.4	Schools
		5.2.5.5	Other Stakeholders
5.2.6	Subject-specific PTS and <i>PSG</i>	5.2.6.1	‘ <i>PSG</i> should be based on subject-specific PTS’
		5.2.6.2	‘ <i>PSG</i> should be based on subject-specific PTS, but....’
		5.2.6.3	‘ <i>PSG</i> should not be based on subject-specific PTS’
5.2.7	Qualifications for IET Recruitment and Certification	5.2.7.1	Teaching Experience
		5.2.7.2	Academic Qualification (<i>S1/D4</i>) Requirement <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perspectives In Favour of <i>S1/D4</i> Requirement • Perspectives Not In Favour of <i>S1/D4</i> Requirement

5.2.1 The Professional Status of Teaching/Teflindo

It was important to obtain the teachers’ perspectives on the professionalism of IETs as these would show the relevance of subject-specific PTS and *PSG* in the debate about professionalism itself. As implied by Nunan (2001), professionalism, professional standards, and professional certification are inseparable.

In this section I will discuss the teachers' perspectives on IETs' professionalism by using the specific term "Teflindo" to refer to the "Teaching of English as a Foreign Language in Indonesia" as a profession. This is to avoid confusion with TEFLIN (Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Indonesia)¹, the name of the oldest and largest professional organisation of EL teachers in Indonesia, which is also used in this thesis. This approach is different from Madya's (2003, p. 1) use of the term TEFLIN to refer to both the profession and the organisation, which could create confusion. Nunan (2001) did the same thing as Madya when he used TESOL (Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages) to refer to the profession and the professional organisation.

I am of the opinion that Teflindo is more specific than other terms such as "English language teaching" (ELT) and "teaching English to speakers of other languages" (TESOL), in the same way that IET is more specific than "English language teachers" and "teachers of English to speakers of other languages" (also abbreviated as TESOL). Nevertheless, both ELT and TEFLIN will be used in this chapter, with ELT being more general than Teflindo, which refers specifically to ELT in Indonesia and IETs.

In this regard, I asked the teachers about what makes "good" IETs and whether Teflindo is really a profession. These two questions were fundamental because my research was essentially about the "good" practice in teaching EFL expected of the practitioners themselves. IETs' occupation is increasingly being seen, and this has been hotly debated, as a profession, and IETs are increasingly being expected to be, or are demanding to be recognised as, professionals. The perspectives of EFL teachers in general, let alone IETs, in this regard have largely been unheard until now.

I was interested in knowing the extent to which the teachers were able to articulate the professional status of Teflindo. In particular I wanted to see whether their views would match the views expressed by ELT experts. I also wanted to know whether they shared the Indonesian government's view, through the implementation of *PSG*, that teachers need to improve themselves and become professional educators.

¹ Established in Yogyakarta on 25 September 1970.

5.2.1.1 'Teaching/Teflindo is a profession'

In the teachers' opinion, there is no doubt that teaching, and Teflindo for that matter, is a profession. There are five main reasons for this stance.

First, teaching/Teflindo means educating. Teachers do have instructional tasks, but more importantly, they also have the moral duty of instilling character and values in students.

Teaching is a profession because what we do is not only transferring our knowledge but also building students' character. (Alam)

Teachers humanise human beings....It is a noble task. I still remember, when I graduated [from IKIP], the rector told me..."You are a *guru!*" This is [a] small but nice [word]; it has a large meaning. (Mega**)

Alam viewed teaching as a comprehensive responsibility due to the educational aspect it is associated with. Mega concurred by referring to the word *guru* 'teacher' itself, stating that *guru* has a large meaning because of the 'noble task' it carries. This task is inherent in the trust that society gives them to prepare human beings for their future, a task much more important than simply transferring knowledge and developing skills. The views described here are in line with the philosophy of *mengajar dan mendidik* 'to teach and to educate' widely held by Indonesian teachers. *Mengajar* is perceived to have the narrow meaning of delivering the materials in a lesson, while *mendidik* has a broad and deep meaning that includes teaching and shaping students' character. The teachers see the integration of this noble duty in the instructional task of a teacher as something that makes teaching deserve its professional status.

Second, Teflindo is viewed as a profession because teachers are required to meet professional qualifications and standards. These are obtained through formal *S1/D4* in education or other teaching credentials.

We have to pass some levels of education...and get some teacher training to improve our teaching quality...and...our knowledge. (Andi)

When we are granted by...our university...that certificate of being a teacher, *Akta IV*, we are...professional....It is inherent in that....We have that right...(the) qualification to be a professional teacher. (Amat)

Andi's and Amat's comments imply that IETs' professional status is attached to their formal education background in EFL teaching. Therefore, the Teflindo profession should only be for those who have a degree or diploma in Teflindo.

Third, Teflindo is a profession because its members must keep developing themselves professionally. Teflindo is seen as a lifelong career affected profoundly along the way by many things, including new sets of knowledge to be familiar with, skills to be competent in, and dispositions to adopt or practice.

Teaching is a profession. That's why...we need to upgrade our teaching skill over time. If you are not improving it, you can't teach your students well. Just like a doctor...you need to update your knowledge. (Yunus)

Teachers' development...is necessary because...everything is changing. So a teacher cannot just...use past knowledge from...university...They need to keep improving...by joining workshops, etc...or they will be left far behind...Students don't like that...They need something fresh...changing...developing all the time. (Amat)

Continuous professional development is part of Teflindo. For a Teflindo professional, having academic qualifications is the beginning of a further learning process. It may take the form of postgraduate studies or attendance in seminars and workshops.

Fourth, Teflindo is basically a way of serving other people. Teaching EFL means being of service to members of the public or serving their needs for learning.

In my understanding, profession is Latin for "service"...We're of service to our students so that they can become true human beings like us....Human beings are the same, differing only in functions or services. (Lexy*)

They (teachers) give service to the students and the school. When the students ask questions, they answer; when they have difficulties, they help them. (Nia)

We have the profession...because we give something to the customers—the students, and the society (Mulia)

The teachers' description of Teflindo as a service here seemed to be a matter of religious or spiritual conviction, social obligation, and professional duty.

Fifth, Teflindo is considered by the teachers as a profession because IETs have professional organisations:

If there's a profession, there has to be...a kind of professional organisation. (Arief*)

English teaching is a profession because...we (English teachers) have an association, *PGRI*². (Andi)

Indeed, many IETs are associated with non-governmental, professional organisations of IETs at the national level (e.g. TEFLIN and IETA). They are also members of government-

² *Persatuan Guru Republik Indonesia* (Association of Teachers of the Republic Indonesia)

sanctioned assemblies of teachers (including IETs) such as *PKG*³, *MGMP*, and *MGMD*⁴ at the district and municipality levels.

5.2.1.2 'Teaching/Teflindo is a profession, but....'

Many of the teachers were passionate about teaching and viewed it as a profession. However, they pointed out a number of shortcomings in it. There are three main reasons for this position.

First, the profession suffers from poor remuneration.

Personally, teaching is a profession to me—I am passionate about it; but financially, it is not. (Risna*)

My salary is not enough for living.... We should be paid well based on what we give to students. (Vina)

Other teachers said that their financial shortcomings have made it hard for them to focus on their work because they have to moonlight or take up other jobs to make ends meet.

Second, because IETs vary in creativity, fulfilment of professional competencies, and amount of responsibility, there needs to be clear criteria about how IETs should carry out their job. Teflindo does not have very clear criteria for competencies and responsibilities:

I think we need something to refer to....For a long time we didn't know what a professional teacher should be like. It should be made clear...what's meant by being a professional teacher. (Diana*)

In Indonesia, there are no (professional) standards. A year ago I photocopied something from the U.S...standards for professional teachers. It's very detailed...including what's expected from teachers....This is something new for us. (Ayu)

It should be noted, however, that Diana and Ayu made the statements at the beginning of their interviews. They had not yet been shown the standards documents, including *SKAKG 2007*, which I intended to show them.

Third, the Teflindo profession lacks organisational support from the teachers' own professional organisations and schools. Even if they are active, IET professional

³ *Pusat Kegiatan Guru* (Teachers' Activity Centre)

⁴ *Musyawarah Guru Mata Diklat* (Vocational Subject Teachers' Assembly)

organisations were criticised for not being run properly, being out of touch with their members' situation, and failing to boost their members' professionalism.

We have our *MGMP*, but it is not very active....The management is poor and many teachers are left out. We need an organisation to meet and share so that we can become professional English teachers, more professional than other teachers. (Rina*)

Our organisation is *PGRI*...and *IGHI*⁵, but these organisations don't pay attention to my duty. They just hold (social) gatherings. (Chaya*)

Schools' lack of support was criticised by such teacher-activists as Jefri, founder and chairman of a national-level IET organisation:

I didn't get...attention from my school, but other schools [have]...invite[d] me to...train their English teachers. I try to be professional...by engaging [myself] in activities outside my school.

Highly capable teachers⁶ like Jefri said that they were not satisfied with the situation and had been considering applying for the position of *widyaiswara* (teacher trainer) at their local *LPMP* or *PPPPTK Bahasa* in Jakarta.

5.2.1.3 'Teaching/Teflindo is not yet a profession'

Notwithstanding the favourable or less-favourable comments regarding the professional status of Teflindo described in the previous sections, a small minority of the teachers believed that Teflindo is not yet a profession. Two main problems were pointed out.

First, clear professional competencies or standards are lacking:

Teaching is not yet a profession...and we don't have the standards yet, right? If you just study for 2, 3 or 4 years, is it adequate?...And teachers' organisations...have done little to improve English teachers' professionalism. (Yaya*)

Yaya pointed out that Teflindo as a profession should not regard academic qualifications as the only standards for IETs and that continuous professional development is vital for IETs.

Second, there is a morality issue. They referred to many certified teachers who were allegedly involved in corrupt practices to obtain their *Educators' Certificate*.

⁵ *Ikatan Guru Honorer Indonesia* (Non-Permanent Teachers' Association of Indonesia)

⁶ I considered Jefri as a highly capable teacher after learning that he was the leader of a city-level subject teachers' group (*MGMP*) and a national organisation of English teachers, and that he would be promoted to the position of *widyaiswara* (teacher trainer) at *BPPPPTK Bahasa* in Jakarta. This is a promotion offered only to highly capable school teachers.

I don't agree...that teaching is a profession....Many "professional teachers" don't deserve the incentive they have received. There are people who manipulated their data for certification....Teaching is...just a job. (Ellie*)

These teachers were trying to convey that professional IETs must be professionally competent and of high moral standing. Many of their own colleagues, in their opinion, did not fit these two criteria and, as a consequence, did not deserve their professional status.

5.2.2 Do We Need PTS?

5.2.2.1 'We need PTS'

An overwhelming majority of the teachers were of the opinion that developing PTS for IETs is necessary. They had two reasons for this position.

First, PTS state the expected good practice in Teflindo that could be used as a reference for IETs in improving their teaching:

We need this (referring to a PTS document) because we need to know our track ... the standard[s]...what to reach. (Lina)

I've never seen very detailed...statements of standards. What made me grow so far has been my experience because I don't know what's expected of me. So my standard is what I see from my students. If they like me...long for me...pay good attention to me, then I consider I'm a good teacher for them. (Ayu)

Lina and Ayu emphasised the need for Teflindo to have PTS. IETs should not be guided mostly by their intuition about best practice in ELT. The standards should be spelled out in a PTS document. Other teachers supported Ayu's view, believing that PTS could motivate IETs to improve their quality:

A good teacher who has the standards may become motivated to be more competent...and improve her quality. If...she's still lacking in one area...then she could refer to the standards and...improve herself. (Asni*)

Second, PTS make teacher assessment criteria clear. For example, IETs' teaching performance is observed regularly as well as for completing the Portofolio Assessment in *PSG*. For *PSG* purposes, the observer is a school superintendent, a school principal, or one of the senior teachers in the school. They are required to sit in on one of the teacher's lessons, assess the teacher's teaching competencies, and complete the standardised observation form. It is a public secret that this procedure is a mere formality, and principals

tend to give their teachers high to very high scores (E. H. Sujiono, personal communication, 5 June 2011).

Principals...just supervise us...[based] on the administrative aspect; [they do] not come into the classroom....The supervisor (superintendent) is from another subject. If we have made the lesson plan, etc, everything is okay. They don't touch the very essential thing—the teaching, in the classroom. (Adi)

Classroom observations were conducted as an administrative activity rather than for professional development. It might be easier for the observer to focus on the former, especially if they have a non-ELT background or they thought that observing a lesson in person is not necessary. That is why:

They come to the class to observe my lesson without an observation tool. (Nia**)

Nia referred to an observation checklist often used by classroom observers. According to Adi and Nia, classroom observers must have an ELT-background, focus on observing how IETs teach, and observe the lesson in person using an 'observation tool', which must be developed based on best practice criteria or standards in teaching EFL.

5.2.2.2 'We need PTS, but'

The teachers believed that even though PTS are needed, there are at least four important things that need to be taken into account to develop them.

First, PTS for IETs are necessary but they need to be dynamic and should ensure that they are not be perceived as a way of judging IETs negatively:

People don't to like to be judged....Sometimes people...make judgment, but when they have to be judged then maybe they would reject it. (Felix)

To avoid PTS from becoming a tool for judging other people, PTS should only be used as a reflection tool for IETs.

Second, PTS for IETs need to be developed as desirable, governing 'rules' for all IETs to look up to.

Because we are talking about standards, so we need something that make[s] them look like standards...a rule. But, it should not be something that makes teachers stuck. (Alya)

In Alya's opinion, while the PTS document should be applied as a formal regulation, its statements should allow IETs to be creative.

Third, the teachers caution against PTS that, when implemented, are oblivious to the Indonesian situation.

We can maybe...adapt this one, but we should consider our condition....Maybe need to...communicate...modify it. We cannot adopt it totally. (Wini)

The decision to develop PTS for IETs must be informed by sufficient knowledge and understanding of the availability of the resources and the capability of the people involved. Adjustments need to be made with the Indonesian context in mind.

If we make the standards general or the same...it will be difficult...We should have one (PTS document) for teachers at low rank schools, [applied] different[ly] from [the] standards for middle rank schools, and different from standards for top rank schools. (Fifi**)

In Fifi's opinion, the PTS developed for IETs in these schools should vary according to the varying quality of the schools where they teach. Another consideration was expressed by Neni:

As a *PNS* teacher in *SMK*, I teach 26 hours in different classes in a week. To fulfil that kind of standard will be hard.... Can you imagine how many syllabuses I had to write... lesson plans?

Fulfilling the PTS could become an extra burden for IETs when they already have a heavy workload due to the obligation to teach for at least 24 hours in a week.

Finally, the teachers believed that PTS for IETs are so important that they must be written in plain language. For example:

Maybe the teachers would have difficulties to understand...I mean even now I'm doing *S2*, I have difficulty to understand some statements in Government documents because they give us many details...the language. It is important to be clear. (Lisda)

For many teachers, understanding the contents of Government documents can be challenging at times. Therefore they must be written in such a way that enables all teachers to understand them.

In summary, the teachers expressed an overwhelming support for the development of a subject-specific PTS document. The document is expected to meet the following criteria: (1) It is worded in plain, easy to understand language, the good practice in teaching EFL in Indonesia; (2) It has a clear set of assessment criteria; (3) It encourages reflection of practice rather than expresses negative judgment of teachers' competencies; (4) It is applied as a

formal regulation; and (5) It is developed by taking into account the Indonesian circumstances.

5.2.3 Strengths and Weakness of *SKAKG 2007*

The teachers were asked about their views on *SKAKG 2007*, which, alongside other PTS documents from other countries, was shown to them during the interviews. Almost all of them said that they had not heard about, let alone seen, the document until then. In general, they responded to *SKAKG 2007* in terms of its strengths and weaknesses. They were able to point these out perhaps because they had previously been shown PTS documents from countries other than Indonesia.

5.2.3.1 Weaknesses of *SKAKG 2007*

A large majority of the teachers were of the opinion that *SKAKG 2007* had covered teachers' competencies in general. This refers to the *linguistic aspect* of the first standard and the *communicative aspect* of the second one in the specific competencies for IETs (see section 3.5.1.2):

1. To possess the knowledge of the various linguistic aspects of the English language (linguistics, discourse, sociolinguistics, and strategy);
2. To have a good command of spoken, written, receptive, and productive English in all its communicative aspects (linguistics, discourse, sociolinguistics, and strategic).

(MNERI, 2007, p. 30; Tr.)

However, six elements of specific competencies for IETs are not represented in the document.

First, the two statements were perceived to be so broad that they oversimplified the complex enterprise of ELT in just two short sentences. They have not adequately addressed the specific competencies expected of IETs.

So many things (about ELT) are compressed in these two sentences...We can't restrict language in just two aspects. (Lexy*)

The points...need to be expanded, developed further. (Arie*)

The standards need to be elaborated...[into] many explanations that we can see and...read. (Fifi)

Second, the two specific standards in *SKAKG 2007* overlook two interrelated aspects of ELT: knowledge transfer and ELT skills.

These two aspects must be added with the ability to transfer (knowledge). Even though the teacher is fluent, has good mastery of the language and theories, and has broad knowledge, what matters is his/her ability to transfer these to students (Yaya*)

I think [the two statements are] too general...English language teaching methodology needs to be included here. (Jefri)

Yaya's emphasis on 'knowledge transfer' was echoed by the other teachers who emphasised IETs' 'strategies' and skills in 'presentation' and 'instruction'. Jefri, articulated this in terms of 'teaching methodology'. These points were elaborated by Tika:

As English teachers...we must have the skill...[e.g.] to make the classroom dynamic...and then assessment [should be] also included...determining [the] objectives of learning and teaching.

Tika focused on three main stages on which the 'transfer of knowledge' takes place at any given educational setting. These are 'planning' the teaching to ensure learning occurs in students, 'instructing' a dynamic classroom—whereby students are involved, and 'assessing' students' attainment and the teacher's own performance.

Third, the two specific standards fail to address the affective, cognitive, and socio-cultural, and personal aspects of ELT:

This [document] does not include dispositions....It's only about knowledge. (Mulia)

I didn't see aspects related to...[the] affective factors...it's mainly about cognitive factors...doesn't contain specific competencies required of English teachers...too general. (Arief**)

This is more about the linguistic aspects, right?...We need also social, personal [characteristics] of the English language teacher. (Erna)

A related weakness was identified by other teachers. Wini, for example, questioned the absence of the following in *SKAKG 2007*:

Social awareness...critical thinking...and also culture.

In Wini's opinion, English must be taught by teachers who themselves have a good grasp of 'social awareness, critical thinking, and culture', which are inseparable from learning any foreign language. IETs are seen here as being responsible not only for making their

students proficient in English, but also for nurturing their positive attitude to English and shaping their personal, social, and cultural characteristics at the same time.

Fourth, the two statements were viewed as being so broad that they need to be broken down into measurable criteria.

We need criteria, actually...more specific than these (two standards)...Without criteria, how can we know [that] the teachers' level of ability is high or middle or low? (Hamid)

The standards for teachers are important...to be used in the requirements and...[for] certification. These standards are very general, and we need something specific...to be developed into very clear indicators. (Adi)

Hamid and Adi were probably referring to how the two standards could be implemented by IETs at different educational settings. Criteria or indicators could perhaps be formulated based on IETs' teaching experience, e.g. beginning, practicing, or accomplished. They could also be based on their school's levels, e.g. primary, junior secondary, and senior secondary.

Fifth, the two specific standards assume that foreign language teachers need to have identical sets of competencies. This is a false assumption, according to Anton:

Our government made some criteria without making any differences between the criteria for English teachers and Arabic teachers, and actually we can't understand the criteria....The Government just made these without interviewing the source...They didn't know about the Arabic language...English...German. They thought languages are all the same.

Anton was referring to the identical standards describing all foreign language teachers' competencies. The standards seemed to have been based on the incorrect assumption that all foreign languages share common characteristics and that they can be taught in the same way by teachers who have the same sets of competencies.

Finally, the teachers found the way the standards were formulated as another weakness of *SKAKG 2007*. In general, the formulation can be described as 'out of touch'.

The authority should have begun from the bottom, not from the top. They wouldn't know about the problems...if they kept looking at the top. English teachers must have specific competencies. When standards are made for them, they must be realistic, and based not only on theories. (Amir**)

Amir implied here that IETs' input have generally been sidelined during the development of *SKAKG 2007*.

5.2.3.2 Strengths of *SKAKG 2007*

Some of the teachers had a positive review of *SKAKG 2007*. They had two main reasons for their position.

First, *SKAKG 2007* contains adequate and comprehensive standards. The two specific standards statements for IETs in *SKAKG 2007* were believed to cover a broad range of aspects of ELT.

I think the standards cover a wide range of aspects of language. (Tiro)

From a theoretical point of view, I think these standards are adequate. (Rina)

Tiro thought that the focus on the linguistic and communicative aspects in *SKAKG 2007* reflects the wide spectrum of IETs' competencies. Rina echoed this view by referring to the fact that the two standards state some of the theoretical elements of linguistic and communicative competencies.

Second, *SKAKG 2007* was believed to have been formulated by *the experts*.

I think the people who [made] these (standards) must be the expert[s in their fields]. They...must be professor[s] or doctor[s] (PhDs) or whatever ... not just *SI* [holder] like me.

Rosa did not question the credibility of the two standards and the people who made them. Her attitude shows how much she respected those in authority.

5.2.4 The Importance of Subject-specific PTS for IETs

The teachers were asked about their perspectives on the idea of subject-specific PTS. This hypothetical topic was raised to obtain their views about whether developing a PTS for IETs in the future would be viable. Generally, the teachers were supportive of this idea for three main reasons.

First, professional development programs for IETs would benefit from subject-specific PTS. Such programs may be run officially by the government or done personally by the IETs themselves.

The Government can design a program that can help teachers [who] need the training....The Government...doesn't have basic standard[s] [about] what kind of training teachers need [and] also [for] designing the curriculum or...evaluat[ing] teachers' performance. (Andi)

By 'the Government', Andi might have in mind institutions such as *LPMP* whose responsibility is to provide training to teachers as part of the Government's educational quality assurance efforts. Andi's comment is in line with those made by teacher trainers at *LPMPs* in South Sulawesi and West Sumatra who were interviewed as key informants. They said that their training programs for subject teachers (e.g. IETs) were based on IETs' requests and on their analyses of what IETs need, rather than on PTS. They were aware of *SKAKG 2007* but regarded them as PTS made:

[F]or certification, not [for] teacher training purposes. (Rusman, *LPMP* South Sulawesi).

IETs committed to improving their competencies individually could also benefit from subject-specific PTS.

With (subject-specific) standards, every teacher could be motivated to keep learning. (Chaya)

We will have [a] kind of reference in doing our profession. So if we're not or still in the low standard of (based on the) reference, we'll try to improve ourselves to reach [the] minimum standard. (Arief)

Chaya's and Arief's point was that subject-specific PTS can be used by IETs as their *self-reflection* tool. IETs need to reflect on their practice in order to improve their effectiveness and their students' learning outcomes.

Second, the criteria in PTS can be used for teacher education and recruitment. In terms of teacher education:

It would be a great idea to use standards for recruiting well qualified teachers...inform[ing] student teachers at universities about what they've mastered and what they haven't. (Tiro*)

For the recruitment of new teachers, we have to use standards....The local government just [uses] a general test...[I]f you don't want [to do this], I think Indonesia isn't [going to] change. (Wawan**)

Tiro and Wawan had a legitimate point to make here. For a long time, the curricula and academic activities in teacher education institutions such as *UNM*, *UNP*, and *UM* have always been guided by traditional theories and practices, with a few state-of-the art innovations here and there. Their idea that the program should be guided by subject-specific PTS for IETs has never been heard until now.

In terms of teacher recruitment, PTS could be used to improve the current practice. Applicants for teaching positions in Indonesia are assessed solely on their fulfilment of the documentary requirements and their test results, which also apply to all the other applicants.

During the selection:

They just do the multiple choice test...mostly about...Civics. (I think) when I want to become an English teacher, I must [do a] test in English...the subject. But in Indonesia, [that's] no[t the case]. Some good teachers (candidates)...don't pass because they don't understand Civics. (Hamid)

Hamid here is criticising the general 'criteria' applied by local governments for *PNS*-status teacher selection. The criteria, which translate to such tests as Civics Education, are far from subject specific because the whole procedure is meant to recruit school teachers in general. As a consequence, given their undergraduate credentials and possible teaching experience prior to selection, English teaching applicants are always assumed to be competent enough to teach.

The third reason was that subject-specific PTS for IETs could be used for developing assessment procedures for IETs in the future.

If we want to assess teachers, we need to have the criteria...to assess them correctly. (Tita*).

Assessment of teachers in the teacher certification (program) should be based on competencies or specific knowledge after [they have been] teaching for some time. (Anton**)

These teachers thought that the criteria or competency statements for assessing IETs are contained in subject-specific PTS. Such criteria could be used by assessors especially when they come to the classroom to observe a teacher's lesson for professional development teacher certification (*PSG*) purposes.

[A]ssessors [must be someone] who come[s] to the class and look at [the] teacher...[they should] not only evaluat[e] from the teacher's portfolio, but [they must] come to the class and...observe the teacher...[with] their own...students. (Jefri)

As described in section 5.2.2.1, IETs' competencies in teaching must only be assessed by way of observing them in the classroom. Observers, or assessors for that matter, should equip themselves with an 'observation tool' that is based on PTS. This is so that the teachers know what is expected of them and the observers or assessors can justify or explain their feedback or assessment to the teachers based on clear criteria from the PTS.

5.2.5 Who Should Formulate Subject-specific PTS for IETs?

5.2.5.1 IETs/IET Representatives

There are two reasons why IETs' (or their representatives') input is required. First, IETs were considered as 'the real practitioners of the profession'; the ones who know what it feels like to face the 'real situations' on a daily basis.

Teachers are the practitioners of this profession and...should be consulted...Their opinions are more credible than those from the experts who don't have first-hand experience teaching in poor areas....The experts' theories may say something that may not always work, and it's the teachers who must figure out their own strategies. (Erna**)

Teachers know exactly what to achieve in teaching (in schools). The people in high places are good at theories. Practice is more difficult than theory. Theory says teachers must give information properly, but what's involved in giving information...only teachers can feel it. (Chaya*)

The views above share a strong conviction that teachers know what they are doing and that their input for PTS development is vital. Their input may determine the quality of the PTS produced.

Additionally, IETs' involvement in the process may also give them the chance to 'develop professionally'. The teachers believed that their involvement in conceptualising best practice in teaching their subject could be enlightening.

The whole process will motivate them to learn. (Ardi*)

Many of the teachers said that it was not realistic to expect each and every IET to be consulted. Teachers' input should be obtained by consulting their representatives, namely professional organisations and accomplished IETs, selected specially for this purpose.

Organisation[s], professional organisation[s] like IETA [and] *MGMP* should all be involved. (Alam)

They can pick the best teachers from all levels....Not all teachers have that (those) (good teacher) traits. But I believe we can always find...them [those] who have knowledge about what they're supposed to be doing.

Second, consulting teachers in developing PTS is important because teachers' voices must be heard especially in this regard.

Teachers...[need] to be involved directly....[T]here should be a survey for standards to all teachers in Indonesia...because teaching in the cities is different from teaching in the villages. We must have an agreement about making the standards that represent everyone[']s idea]. (Ellie*)

The teachers' views may be seen as their criticism of the way *SKAKG 2007* was constructed. It may also be interpreted as the teachers' input for how the national PTS document should be improved in the future.

5.2.5.2 Education and ELT Experts

The teachers mentioned individuals other than IETs who need to be involved in developing subject-specific PTS for IETs. For example:

Indonesian ELT lecturers, especially those who were educated in English-speaking countries such as the U.S., the UK, and Australia. (Mulia)

Experts in psychology, education, and teaching methodology. (Riani)

Experts in language education. (Widya)

Experts and researchers in educational studies and psychology. (Fifi)

ELT experts from the major English-speaking countries. (Wini)

The statements suggest that two groups of experts should be consulted. The first group consists of experts in education in general, including psychology. Their input was necessary because the teachers thought that subject-specific PTS for IETs need to be informed by theories of teaching and learning in general.

The second group is made up of experts in ELT from Indonesia and overseas. It is highly likely that the teachers were referring to the lecturers or teacher educators working for teacher education institutions. It is also possible that they were referring to teacher trainers at *LPMPs*. Many of these experts received their postgraduate qualifications from reputable universities in the major English-speaking countries.

By ELT experts from overseas, the teachers might have in mind those ELT consultants or lecturers from the major English-speaking countries employed by the MNERI and higher education institutions. They might also have in mind the experts employed by such institutions as the British Council, the Regional English Language Office (RELO), and the Indonesia-Australia Language Foundation (IALF) in Indonesia.

5.2.5.3 The Government

The Government here refers to the institutions responsible for education in Indonesia. The involvement of these institutions was considered necessary because of the government's central role in education. The institutions are in two groups.

In the first group are MNERI and its institutions:

The education minister (ministry) must be involved. (Fitri)

The Ministry must be involved because in Indonesia the Government is the decision maker. (Wawan)

Of course, first, we should come to the decision maker[s]...the Government, and [they] will invite teachers. It can be ~~in~~ (done) local[ly]...or...in a province, or...as a big project in Jakarta because it's very important to * our [national] education. (Linda)

The teachers understand that MNERI is the top government institution that makes decisions regarding national education. If the PTS document were to come into being, the highest legal form it could take is *Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional (Permendiknas)* [Minister of National Education Regulation]. It would have to be deliberated through the MNERI's bureaucratic system and signed by the minister himself/herself. According to Eva, for example, the whole process begins from *BSNP*, the institution tasked with producing standards documents:

The Ministry of [National] Education, *BSNP*, *LPMP*, our organisation[s], like *MGMP* [must be involved].

In the second group are the other institutions under MNERI as well as provincial, district, and municipal Education Offices:

The teachers must be involved, as well as [lecturers] from universities that have teacher training programs, the Government, the Local Education Office[s]. (Nur)

Universities, Curriculum Centre, Education Office, English course[s] [should also be involved]. (Erna)

5.2.5.4 Schools

The development of PTS for IETs, should involve the schools as well. By schools, the teachers are referring specifically to students and principals.

Students' views, in their opinion, must be obtained in developing subject-specific PTS for IETs.

The standard[s are] for the teacher[s] but *[it's] for the students, [too]. So we must know what the students need...[as] the customer[s]. So we will ask [them], "What kind of teacher[s]...and lesson[s] do you want?" (Yani)

[We need to hear from] someone who ~~are~~ [is an] expert in education and...language education, and psychology, counsellor. And maybe some student[s] must be one of them (Widya)

The teachers' idea about getting students' input in the formulation of PTS is perhaps based on their understanding that students are the ones who interact with their IETs in the classroom or in other school settings on a daily basis. They know and can be expected to give their ideas about IETs who have the knowledge, skills, and dispositions to be in charge of their English language instruction.

The teachers believed that school principals should also be consulted for their contribution to the subject-specific PTS for IETs.

The first one [should be] *Depdiknas*⁷, it means [those at the] city, province, [and] regency [levels]. And...headmasters, supervisors [superintendents], English course instructors, we should get some ideas from them. (Jefri)

I would say everybody involve[d] in everything...stakeholder[s], teachers, superintendents, headmasters should be heard [from]...like the authority...the administration...the departments...responsible for education. (Amat)

5.2.5.5 Other Stakeholders

The development of PTS for IETs should involve stakeholders of education other than those mentioned in the previous sections. Five parties were mentioned.

First, members of society. Usually, when Indonesians talk about the role of 'members of society' in education, they have in mind students' parents, a religious, charity, or social organisation that owns an educational foundation which runs an educational institution, and members of school committees which consist of a cross-section of the community. This is mentioned in *UU Sisdiknas 2003* (SSRI, 2003), and was articulated by the teachers. For example, in addition to other stakeholders of education, the following should be involved:

The society. (Yani; Neni)

⁷ *Departmen Pendidikan Nasional* (Department of National Education), the former name of MNERI.

Parents. (Felix; Ria)

School committee members. (Mulia; Sofia)

Society members were mentioned here perhaps because they have a stake in their children's success in learning English. IETs should ensure that this happens, so the society's input as to what competencies IETs should have is as important as other parties'.

Second, 'users'. The term 'users' refers to companies and/or individuals who hire IETs. They include businesses or ELT program graduates such as private English language schools or school instructors. Some of the teachers were of the opinion that private English language schools and their instructors should be involved in the development of subject-specific PTS for IETs:

I think private education providers such as English courses [should be involved].
(Erna**)

We should get some ideas from [private] English course instructors....[They] got some brilliant ideas [like how] to make the students stay in the class within two times 45 minutes (enjoy the lessons). (Jefri)

To focus on Jefri's comment, private English language schools and their instructors are often seen as more effective than school teachers (i.e. IETs) in general. Catering mostly to clients from the middle and high levels of the society, they employ highly competent, regularly-trained teachers (including native speakers), use innovative strategies, focus on students' active production of English, have small classes, and enjoy facilities that are the envy of most public schools, among other things. They are believed to know what it takes to make their students succeed in learning English within the shortest time possible.

Third, industry. Comments in favour of the involvement of industry in this context are made by some teachers who teach at *SMK*, vocational senior high schools. Graduates of *SMK* are usually employed by companies in a relevant industry. For example, a mechanical *SMK* graduate may be recruited by a motor vehicle workshop, a tourism or hospitality *SMK* graduate by a hotel or restaurant, and a business administration *SMK* graduate by an office or a retail company.

The shareholders like the compan[ies] who use the graduates. For example, the students want to * [work] in the special (certain) company[ies]....[The] company is a shareholder that can be asked to make the standards. (Wahid)

If we want documents like this in the future...[we must ask the opinions from] users...[the] compan[ies]. (Anton)

As suggested by Wahid and Anton, industry people should know what competencies they would expect *SMK* graduates to have in relation to the use of English in the workplace. IETs need to know what the expectations are so that they can develop their students' competencies. In other words, IETs need to have the competencies that they would like their students to have. Industry people know what the competencies are, therefore their input is important.

Finally, legislators or politicians. A few of the teachers were of the opinion that elected politicians at the national and local levels, particularly those responsible for making the laws, should be involved in the development of PTS for IETs.

The Government needs to be involved, and also the House of Representatives, as this is about producing something new....The document must be made into a Presidential decree. (Ellie*)

The teachers and...the shareholders like the compan[ies and] perhaps politicians (who will legalise the document). (Wahid)

To sum up at this point, the teachers believed that if subject-specific PTS for IETs were to be formulated, all the stakeholders should be consulted for their ideas or comments. This stance reflects the teachers' common understanding of giving everyone a chance to have a say about an important document containing PTS for teachers. Nonetheless, they also believed that among all the stakeholders, it is the IETs themselves, who must be given "their voices" more than anyone else.

5.2.6 Subject-specific PTS and PSG

5.2.6.1 PSG should be based on subject-specific PTS'

An overwhelming majority of the teachers supported the idea that subject-specific PTS should be used as a basis for certifying IETs in the future.

Actually for specific teacher[s], [teacher certification] should be based by (on) specific standard[s], English [standards] for English [teachers], Biology [standards] for Biology [teachers].

According to Nia, the certification of IETs in the future should be based on subject-specific PTS developed especially for IETs. Her comment and those made by the other teachers are based on three main reasons.

First, it was seen as ideal to certify IETs based on subject-specific PTS for IETs because the PTS document should contain the criteria of best practice for Teflindo. Many of the teachers were aware that the English language proficiency and teaching skills of many IETs are still problematic. Therefore, while stressing that it is important for IETs to keep improving their competencies, they also wanted their profession to be guided by a subject-specific PTS document. Therefore, they believed that it is essential for the certification process to be guided by PTS from such a document.

The standards are something that teachers must reach....So [without using standards], we will not be able to judge whether teachers are professional or not. (Wahid)

The standards [should] become our starting point. Some of my colleagues went to Bandung recently for [technical] workshops. They were tested in 7 skills...[on] welding, and others, with all the criteria. Certification should be done that way (subject specific). (Arie*)

IETs should ideally be certified on the basis of their ability to meet the criteria or standards of competencies in teaching EFL. In the absence of clear standards, it is not surprising that even teachers who had passed *PSG* were clueless as to what made them successful.

I passed (certification), [but] I don't really know why. Okay, I've written some books in English...joined a lot of training (programs). Is that what made me pass? So we need to have the standards [that are] clear to all teachers. (Ayu)

A highly accomplished IET, Ayu had officially met all the administrative requirements (e.g. academic qualifications, teaching experience, and participation in professional development programs) to be certified. Yet, she felt the need to see some criteria, currently non-existent, that are essential for determining what specific competencies are expected of IETs.

Second, in the future, the contents of subject-specific PTS for IETs could be used for regular quality assurance and/or *PSG* in which a classroom observation by a superintendent or school principal is required. Because subject-specific PTS contain statements of best

practice in teaching, the teachers understood that the documents could be used for supervision and/or quality assurance purposes that could benefit both IETs and the observer(s). Also, if realised and implemented properly, this might improve the current assessment procedure of IETs' teaching competencies for the purposes mentioned above.

It is important to note that this point was also raised when the teachers were discussing why PTS are important for Teflindo in general (see section 5.2.2.1).

5.2.6.2 'PSG should be based on subject-specific PTS, but...'

The teachers supported the idea that *PSG* should be based on subject-specific PTS. In fact, they regarded such a move as an effort to improve the implementation of *PSG* and the quality of its output. However, they believed that many IETs might find the move demanding, therefore considerations must be taken into account. It is important to note that these teachers' views also reflect their concerns about and criticisms of *PSG* as a whole. In general, the teachers had five main reasons for this position.

First, it would be hard for many IETs to meet the standards, especially if these are set to the maximum. Two teachers articulated this pessimistic view:

If all these competencies for English language teachers are included, then only a few teachers would be able to qualify. (Tiro*)

The regulated standards would make things difficult for many teachers. They have been in their comfort zone for too long, and might think these [standards] are too much of a burden. (Chaya*)

It seems that many IETs were still perceived to have average or below average competencies in the target language and in language teaching pedagogy. Adjusting to PTS-based *PSG* could prove quite challenging for these teachers. Additionally, because many IETs had been doing their job for a long time in an unchallenging climate, they were perceived to prefer the status-quo and be less likely to accept change.

Second, the scale and cost of the initiative. They were aware that the planning and implementation of *PSG* would be decided by the government at the end of the day:

This would be really difficult because the Government will have to develop the PTS for each and every subject. (Anna*)

They believed that developing subject-specific PTS for all school subjects, including EL, would be a huge and costly effort that the Government may be reluctant to fund.

Third, the reason was based on a question asked by one teacher:

All teachers who have passed *PSG* are assumed to have met the current standards, right? But what...if they haven't?...Would they attend a training session, or attend a degree program? These must be made clear. (Ellie*)

Ellie's comment is that it is necessary to design a *PSG* system which rewards IETs capable of meeting the PTS and which gives professional development support to those who have failed. Otherwise, *PSG* would be 'punitive' rather than 'supportive' or 'curative' to IETs who are not so fortunate.

Fourth, allegations of corrupt practices and leniency have tarnished the image of *PSG* in Indonesia in the last 3 to 4 years. The subject-specific PTS-based *PSG*, if it becomes a reality, might put a lot of pressure on IETs. This could lead to some illegal practices to get things done.

According to Tika, many teachers taking part in *PSG* 'are not honest' about the documents that they submitted for Portfolio Assessment. This statement refers to allegations that many teachers had used fraudulent documents in their portfolios. It was also alleged that in regions where a quota is in place to limit the number of teachers taking part in *PSG*, some teachers used family connections or bribes to make it to the final list of participants representing their regions.

Therefore, Ismi said that:

KKN (corrupt practices) are [must be] eliminated....A teacher should pass because they have the competencies...not because they have relatives (in certain positions or institutions). What I've seen so far is far from being fair. (Ismi*)

Besides the corrupt practices mentioned above, there were also concerns about the level of leniency applied by some assessors towards less than competent teachers. One teacher said it emphatically:

Those who don't deserve to pass shouldn't pass. (Ima*)

The *PSG* system in the future, especially with subject-specific PTS becoming part of it, must be designed in such a way that leaves little room for some IETs to commit immoral, unprofessional behaviour.

Fifth, the three components should be considered if *PSG* for IETs are to be based on subject-specific PTS. First, applying a policy that originated in the developed world must take into account the Indonesian situations. Tiro, among others, made this point:

If we need the PTS to be used as reference, it's possible, and for certifying teachers it's even better However, in other countries, they have good education and [excellent] graduates (who become teachers), so when they start teaching in schools, they're competent enough. Most of our (teachers' college) graduates aren't very competent. Some are good, but many are average, and others are very poor. (*)

In Tiro's opinion, the levels of welfare and professionalism (including academic qualifications and competencies) between IETs and their counterparts in the developed countries where subject-specific PTS for teachers have been implemented are incompatible. What works for teachers in these countries may not work for IETs. Second, improving the quality of *PSG* by developing subject-specific PTS in its implementation means that *PSG* must be made more open. That is, IETs' participation in it should not be restricted by a quota implemented by their local government. For example, criticising her city government's policy which only allows teachers with at least 20 years of employment to participate in *PSG*, a policy that does not apply in other regions, Fifi said:

Here...only...teacher[s] who have [had] up (more) than 20 years' experience can enjoy (take part in) the certification. But my friend[s] in other district[s]...have been certified...even though they're ('ve been) teaching for [just] 5, 4, or 3 years....That's the problem with the quota. (Fifi)

Fifi and other teachers could not accept the fact that because they are employed by a *kota* (municipal) government, they must wait several years before they could be allowed to take part in *PSG*, while many of their colleagues with the same qualifications and lengths of service in *kabupatens* (districts) have all been certified. The quota is in place because municipalities usually employ a lot more teachers than districts do, and the number of teachers who can be eligible for certification from each municipality or district each year is limited.

5.2.6.3 'PSG should not be based on subject-specific PTS'

PSG for IETs should not be made subject specific and based on subject-specific PTS. There are two main reasons for these teachers' position.

First, subject-specific PTS are simply too difficult for most IETs to comply with.

If we don't have standards...it's hard for us to control the quality [of] the teachers, but if we have standards...the teacher[s] should follow the criteria. It's hard for the teachers in Indonesia...[to] follow the rule or the regulation because the standards...are difficult...to follow. (Alam)

In Alam's opinion, detailed, subject-specific PTS for IETs would be out of reach for most IETs. He might have thought that the two standards statements for IETs in *SKAKG 2007* were easier for IETs to fulfil. Thus, for him, it is better to keep the standards simple and less complicated for IETs to follow.

Second, developing and implementing subject-specific PTS for IETs would not be suitable for IETs. The level of awareness and welfare of IETs are way below their counterparts in the developed countries.

It's [a] good idea, but [the] fact is [that it's] difficult...to be applied in Indonesia. [In] America...it's not difficult. They have high awareness...and...good payment (salaries), right?...Probably [in] 2020 we will...be the same with (as)...America, Australia, and other countries. (Eva**)

What Eva had in mind might be that it is not necessary to make an effort to develop subject-specific PTS for IETs because it will be in vain. IETs, who are described here as lacking awareness and decent remuneration, may not be interested in them. Their lack of awareness may cause them to behave apathetically to PTS for IETs, and their low salaries may make them focus more on making ends meet rather than aspiring to fulfil what their PTS document says they have to be competent in.

In sum, a large majority of the teachers have favourable opinions about whether or not *PSG* for IETs should be based on subject-specific PTS for IETs. They are also able to articulate a number of ideas about the merits of such an initiative. Many of the teachers, nevertheless, point out many aspects associated with IETs' situation and the current administration of *PSG* that need to be improved if this idea were to be taken as the future direction of *PSG*.

5.2.7 Qualifications for IET Recruitment and Certification

5.2.7.1 Teaching Experience

IETs should be experienced in teaching their subject besides having the qualifications, namely an *S1/D4* in a relevant field of study from a nationally accredited tertiary institution. In

other words, IETs should have some experience in teaching English before being recruited or taking part in *PSG*.

The more you teach then you should be getting mature...and...more prepared. [I]f you have been teaching for ten years, you have ten years' experience. But other[s]...have one only year experience times ten....[E]xperience mean[s] you do something, you analyse...evaluate...improve. (Ayu)

In Ayu's opinion, experience makes better IETs. This means that experience contributes to an IET's development as a person and a professional. Having ten years of experience should be understood in terms of improving as a person and a teacher for ten years as well, which is why experience is vital for IETs. Ayu added:

I think experience also include[s] creativity....It [means]...you're also creative...because only those creative people will evaluate and improve....Even if the theory says it's good, but [if] it doesn't work in your class, (then) you're not creative if you stick with [to] that.

According to Ayu, an IET's experience relates closely to his or her creativity and decision making, the two key ingredients in the art of teaching.

Ayu's perspective refers to in-service IETs' long-term teaching experience, which is relevant for teacher certification requirement. Other teachers' perspectives were in regard to the experience of pre-service IETs, which is relevant for teacher recruitment:

A graduate...[of] *S1*...need to practice just like a doctor...[who does] not directly get license to be a doctor...[and must] have another two years for practicing...and then...examined to be eligible for having the license....[This] must be implemented [in teaching] because this is [a] profession....We can't sacrifice this country to...people who just want to be teacher[s] because they...don't have a job. (Yunus)

Teaching experience for pre-service IETs may be obtained in the form of medium-length teaching practice, which might be similar to the two-year probationary period for student doctors. Not all *S1* holders get the chance to have teaching experience for an extended period of time after graduation. If Yunus' idea were to be adopted, the pre-service teaching experience would serve the purpose of solidifying and consolidating student-teachers' competencies through training and teaching experience.

Ideas about the importance of IETs' being well-qualified and experienced described above provide an introduction to more detailed descriptions of the stipulated academic requirements in the next sections as the importance of teaching experience is further elaborated. Nonetheless, as it transpires later in these sections, despite the above

supportive ideas, a proportion of the teachers voiced their disagreement with the *S1/D4* requirement.

5.2.7.2 Academic Qualification (*S1/D4*) Requirement

a. Perspectives in Favour of *S1/D4* Requirement

An overwhelming majority of the teachers were in favour of the requirement stipulating that IETs must have the *S1/D4* qualifications to be recruited as teachers or to take part in *PSG*. Their perspectives are in two clusters.

In the first cluster were those who argued that the *S1/D4* requirement needs to have a number of additional requirements. They offered five additional requirements.

First, even if candidate teachers have already had the minimum qualification of *S1/D4* (e.g. in *ELT*), they should not be appointed as teachers straight away without having teacher traineeship or apprenticeship in schools for at least a year.

Candidate teachers must be given teaching experience for one year before they're granted their license....What we study in the university can't always be fully applied in schools; [the] teaching practicum program...is only for one or two monthsMany (young) teachers got into the job so quickly...still lacking the basic skills. (Tita*)

Tita here is emphasising the importance of extended teaching experience for pre-service IETs before they apply for or are offered a permanent, full-time teaching position in a school or *madrasah*. She did not consider as adequate the three-month practicum required of all *S1/D4* students of teacher education institutions, such as in the *ELT* Program at *UNM*, *UNP*, and *UM*. In the latest development, Tita's approach has been adopted by the Government with the recent implementation of the Pre-Service Teacher Education Program (see section 2.3.2.2).

Second, candidate teachers having a *S1/D4* qualification must be required to pass a 'fit and proper' test. For IETs, they thought this should include an English language competency and *ELT* test.

It should be added by teaching...performance test. We have only written test...for the teacher[s'] selection. [We need another test] in terms of teaching...[and] English. (Nia)

The current selection process of teachers with *PNS* status conducted by local governments includes a series of generic tests. None of the tests, however, gauges the candidates' subject-specific knowledge and teaching skills. In Nia's opinion, future selections of IETs should include an English language competency and teaching tests.

Third, candidate IETs' teaching competency should not be taken for granted. Therefore, their teaching skill should be observed.

Even though teachers have the *SI* qualification but if they don't teach...I think we must see their [teaching] ability. (Amat)

In Amat's opinion, the *S.Pd.* certificate and/or *Akta 4* [Level 4 Teaching Certificates] awarded to graduates of institutions such as *UNM*, *UNP*, and *UM* should not be seen as a guarantee that they are actually capable of teaching. Note that with the recent implementation of the new Pre-Service Teacher Education Program, *Akta 4* certificates have been abolished.

Fourth, undergraduate qualifications should be complemented with postgraduate education. This is believed to improve teachers' competencies and status.

I think *SI* is good for teachers, but they still need other qualification, not only *SI* but *SI* plus *S2*. (Alam)

[Having *SI/D4*] for the knowledge? I don't think so. They need to upgrade their education...by studying for a master's degree. (Asni*)

The teachers also thought that teachers with postgraduate degrees will make excellent teaching staff at *Rintisan Sekolah Bertaraf Internasional (RSBI)* [International Standard Schools in Preparation] and *Sekolah Bertaraf Internasional (SBI)* [International Standard Schools], whose minimum requirement for teacher recruitment, they say, should be improved to an *S2* qualification in future.

For *SMA* teachers, I think *SI* is enough, but for special schools like *SBI*, *SI* is not enough. (Eva)

Indeed, a master's degree is the current minimum qualification for *RSBI* and *SBI* schools. Other teachers also argued that those who have a master's degree should be certified as professional teachers automatically.

Graduates of (master's programs at) teacher training institutions such as *UNM* should automatically be recognised as professional teachers and shouldn't be required to take part in the teacher certification program. (Arie*)

According to Arie, the time and hard work involved in completing a postgraduate degree should be considered an achievement for teachers who are willing to do it. Therefore, teachers with a postgraduate degree should be certified automatically. Indeed, this idea has been adopted in the current *PSG* system, in which teachers with a masters' or doctorate degree are certified through the *Direct Conferral Program*.

Nevertheless, the teachers also pointed out that teachers should not just have any postgraduate qualification to be certified. It is important for IETs to pursue a postgraduate degree in ELT or related discipline.

One of our...English teacher[s] here...joined a master's degree program, but it was in general management. She teaches English here. Why didn't she learn about English to be a better teacher? I just wonder why she could chose another field of study. (Nisa)

Nisa here is echoing what is commonly referred to in the Indonesian education system as the need to have *linier* 'linear' qualifications. This refers to undergraduate and postgraduate qualifications being in the same field or discipline.

Finally, additional requirements should include what I refer to as *professional engagement and professional competencies*. Professional engagement means that IETs should take part in all kinds of professional development programs.

We need to add a condition (requirement) that even though we have [an] *S1* (degree), we still need to go here and there to participate in...workshops, etc. There's always something we can learn out there. (Anna*)

In Anna's opinion, while the *S1* degree gives IETs a good start, it is not adequate. They must engage themselves by attending workshops, seminars, and other events where they can improve their competencies.

Professional competencies refer to IETs' competency in using the Information Technology (IT)⁸ and having specific, non-linguistic skills.

Because [we are an] *RSBI* school, we should teach using IT. In the future...we will give a task to our student[s] online....The students go to the school's website, [and] they...do the task at home and...check (their work) by themselves. (Linda)

I think it (*S1/D4*) is enough, but [at] *SBI*, teachers should have postgraduate [degrees] and...one...specific characteristic for teacher[s] is a skill. Like me, [I] can

⁸ IT is alternatively referred to as Information and Communications Technology (ICT). Some of the teachers used it and/or its abbreviation in their interviews. However, IT is used in this thesis because this was the most common term/abbreviation used by the teachers.

dancing (dance)...and teach the student[s] about the dance[s] of Java or Bali [L].
(Evi)

Linda and Evi referred to their respective schools, both international standard schools. At Linda's school, an *RSBI*, teachers had been required to be able to use multimedia teaching aids. In Evi's school, an *SBI*, English language teachers like herself are required to have specific skills, such as in traditional Indonesian dances, so that they could teach students the specific skills.

In the second cluster are the perspectives of the teachers who believed that the *S1/D4* qualification is adequate for IETs. The qualifications are believed to equip IETs with the theories and skills needed for teaching.

While learning in university for *S1* degree, we got more experience, methods [about] how to teach well, transfer our knowledge. We got subject[s] like teach[ing] English, how to be a good researcher, a good writer...[and] other skills. (Vina**)

For the basic qualification, it (*S1/D4*) is a must...If you have *S1* qualification, we believe...you have...the pedagogy. You're ready to meet the students in the classroom. (Yunus)

Thus, Vina and Yunus were confident that the *S1/D4* requirement is adequate for IETs.

b. Perspectives Not In Favour of *S1/D4* Requirement

Some of the teachers were not in favour of the *S1/D4* requirement because they were sympathetic towards some of their colleagues who had a *D3* qualification.

During my fieldwork, I met a number of IETs who had a *D3* qualification. They were already in their late 40s or 50s, and some were approaching retirement. They obtained their *D3* qualification in the 1980s or early 1990s, when diploma courses were still offered at *IKIP*, *FKIP*, and *STKIP*. They were now required to undertake a *S1/D4* education program to qualify for *PSG*. These teachers were reluctant to criticise the new requirement, but their colleagues had three main reasons to disagree.

First, the requirement was seen as unfair:

For the senior teacher[s who] have *D3*...It's difficult [for them] because they already have a lot of task[s] and...family. It's unfair because...we have to consider their experience in teaching as well. (Andi**)

Andi, who had an *S1* degree, was clearly sympathetic to his senior *D3*-qualified colleagues. He said that many of them suffered from the new regulation as they had to juggle work, family, and study, while they were approaching retirement as well.

The second reason was that *D3*-qualified IETs could perform better than those younger teachers with higher qualifications:

Maybe [this happens only] in our country but not in other countr[ies] [L]....[T]he non-*S1* degree teachers can be better. [*S1* teachers] they have [the] certificates...but they don't have the...skills...competencies.

In Hamid's opinion, compared with younger teachers with *S1* degrees, many senior teachers with *D3* qualification were better prepared and trained to be EL teachers.

The final reason was that many *D3*-qualified teachers were great achievers:

[Some] *D3* [holders]...have long experience in teaching, [and]...create a champion [student] in every competition....[W]e can't deny that they are professional, too. [M]any of full degree graduates (*S1*) don't have the level of mastery of the knowledge and never create a champion [student], [do] research, improve their teaching method, never get any upgrading, getting the knowledge.

Anton was defending some of his *D3*-qualified colleagues whom he described as more dedicated and high-achieving than those who have the *S1* degree. For example, sometimes they outperformed IETs with an *S1* degree as they are able to train their students to win English debate and speech competitions. Also, some *D3*-qualified IETs proved to be enthusiastic participants in professional development activities. In other words, IETs should be judged based on their experience and achievements, rather than on their qualifications alone.

5.3 Analytical Conclusion

In this chapter, I have presented my analysis of the teachers' perspectives on the professionalisation of IETs. Essential for understanding the results that will be presented in Chapters 6, 7, and 8, this chapter has shown the teachers' generally progressive, favourable, and passionate views on three main ideas. In general, the teachers' perspectives discussed in this chapter have addressed the relevant points in the literature review both explicitly and implicitly.

Firstly, they overwhelmingly supported the status of Teflindo as a profession. The teachers made the following points about what a profession or Teflindo means to them:

- Teachers' role: educating vs. teaching;
- Professional qualifications and standards;
- Continual professional development/support;
- Teachers' "service" role;
- Professional organisations.

This understanding equates with most of the descriptions of 'profession' in the literature reviewed in Chapters 2 and 3, except for "teachers' role: educating vs. teaching" and "teachers' 'service' role." This means that the teachers even discussed two important points not found in the literature.

Implied in their statements, nonetheless, is the need for IETs to keep improving their competencies, i.e. knowledge, skills, and dispositions, in order to convince all stakeholders in education that they do deserve recognition. Nevertheless, some of them disagreed that Teflindo is a profession. However, these teachers blamed it mostly on a lack of financial rewards, competency standards, organisational support, education and training, and teaching-learning facilities, which IETs do not have much collective power to control. The atmosphere conducive to teacher professionalisation must be initiated, created, and maintained by all parties concerned—the Government(s)⁹ in particular. This finding is relevant to the theories and practice and/or context of ELT because it is clear that the teachers would like to see their occupation "gain status and privilege in accord with the community's concept of a profession" (Sockett, 1990, cited by Mowbray, 2005, p. 13). In fact, as a community, the teaching profession in Indonesia has long described themselves as professionals and the government has recognised teaching as a profession (Jalal et al., 2009). This is a legitimate position because teaching is no less complex than other occupations (Rowan, 1994) such as architects, engineers, mathematicians, psychologists, economists, physicians, surgeons, nurses, lawyers, accountants, etc. (U.S. Department of

⁹ These include the Government of the Republic of Indonesia, often referred to as *Pemerintah Pusat* [Central Government] and *Pemerintah Daerah* [Regional Governments] of the *Provinsi* [Provinces], *Kabupaten* [Districts], and *Kota* [Municipalities] all over the country.

Labor, 2012). To achieve this, there are conditions to be met by the teaching profession as noted by Nunan (2001), and there needs to be both “independent professionalism and institutionally prescribed professionalism” (Leung, 2009, cited in Richards, 2010, p. 119). To address teacher welfare issues, Ingvarson’s (2005) demands for “staged career structures and pay systems that provide incentives and recognition for attaining ... teaching standards” (p. 339) adds a substantive dimension to what it means to be a professional teacher.

Secondly, the teachers had strong support for the (hypothetical) ideas of developing and implementing subject-specific PTS for IETs. They thought that PTS are desirable, that the current PTS for IETs (in *SKAKG 2007*) were far from ideal albeit containing reasonably comprehensive aspects of teaching in both generic and specific details, that subject-specific PTS for IETs must strive for, and that IETs themselves, along with all educational stakeholders, must be given their voices in formulating PTS. This finding indicates that the teachers in general recognised the advantages of having a PTS document to regulate the qualification, competencies, practice, and career of the people in the profession. For the profession as a whole, the first advantage of this measure is autonomy which means that teachers move the “control into the hands of the profession” (Ingvarson, 2005), decide what they “should be able to do and what they should know” (Sachs, 2003), are able to “articulate what it is that is valued in the practice of the profession” (Liddicoat, 2006a), and get themselves involved in the process (Abdal-Haqq, 1995). The second advantage is teacher learning, i.e. “the on-going learning of teachers” (Sachs, 2003, p. 182) and “an infrastructure for professional learning” (Ingvarson, 2005, p. 339). The third advantage is collegiality (McQueen, 2001, p. 24) which refers to the PTS development enabling teachers to foster “a professional community” (Ingvarson, 2005), thanks to, among other things, “collaboration and shared norms and values” (p. 354) and “the democratic voice” in the teacher unions (McQueen, 2001).

Thirdly, the teachers were highly enthusiastic about the (hypothetical) prospects of teacher certification programs (*PSG*) that are based on subject-specific PTS. They were immensely in favour of *PSG* based on subject-specific PTS (in this case for IETs). Some of the teachers, however, had some reasons for their conditional support. This finding suggests

that the teachers found the two-sentence standards statements for EL teachers in *SKAKG 2007* inadequate for accomplishing the complex task of teaching EFL in the Indonesian context. I speculate that this result might have been influenced by two possibilities: either the teachers knew that a subject-specific PTS statements are ideal therefore they are desirable, or they had been influenced by the samples of PTS documents from around the world that I showed them and discussed with them in the course of our interviews and focus groups. Nonetheless, the teachers' aspiration for subject-specific PTS has been the norm in the development of PTS in other countries. Examples include PTS documents for English as a New Language (National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS), 2010) and Standards for ESL/EFL Teachers of Adults (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), 2008) in the U.S.; ACTA/ATESOL Standards (ACTA, 2006) and Standard for Teaching Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, and Spanish (Professional Standards Project (PSP) Languages (PSPL), 2012) in Australia; and Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages Standards (Haddock, 1998a) in New Zealand.

It is interesting to note that some of the teachers' perspectives in the first, second, and third points above were framed in terms of "proposition, but..." structures or of negative statements. I assume that these "buts" and objections reflect their understanding, frustrations, and expectations. They understand what a profession and PTS document should be like, as described in the literature review, and they are able to compare and contrast them with the day-to-day reality of their occupation. Sometimes the reality makes them happy, but at other times it makes them disappointed. Many unhappy teachers feel frustrated with all the problems and, when asked for their opinions, they would express their desperations in a critical or apathetic way. However, the teachers' perspectives in this regard may also imply their expectations for the improvements of the various aspects of their profession.

Finally, the teachers were able to articulate their perspectives on the qualifications for IETs in recruitment and certification. The points they made about teaching experience and academic qualification requirement are generally in line with the points in the literature on the

same aspects from various PTS documents (e.g. NBPTS, 2012; TESOL, 2008; OCT, 2012b; TESL Canada Federation, 2010; AITSL, 2012; MENZ, 1999) and teacher certification practices in the Asia-Pacific context (DEEWR, 2008b).

The results in this chapter are evidence of the teachers' reformist approach to ways of improving the quality of Indonesia's national education of which they are a central part, and which has been under the spotlight for its many issues for a long time. Except for very few dissenting opinions, the teachers prove themselves as capable of being conceptual, evaluative, critical, progressive, visionary, and aspirational in their general attitude. This is remarkable given the fact that everything about PTS is an entirely new concept for most IETs.

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Chapter 6

Teacher Knowledge

6.1 Introduction

As stated in Chapter 5, which presents the major theme of teacher professionalisation, Chapter 6 is the first of the three chapters in this study that describe what the teachers thought IETs' competencies should be. The competencies are teacher knowledge, teacher skills, and teacher dispositions. This chapter describes the first of the three, with respect to the teachers' notion of *what IETs are expected to know*.

The main parts of this chapter are set out in the next section. This is where the teachers' perspectives on IETs' knowledge are described under twenty-five sub-themes derived from the teacher interviews and focus groups. During the inductive process of data analysis, these sub-themes gave rise to the five themes of teacher knowledge. An analytical discussion of the themes addressing the research questions, particularly subsidiary questions 4, 5, and 6, is integrated into the conclusion of the chapter.

Notwithstanding the above inductive analytical process, however, a deductive approach was used in describing the teachers' perspectives in this chapter. That is, each of the five themes and their descriptions are presented first. This serves to foreground the elaboration, explication, and interpretation of the sub-themes that are provided under each of the themes.

6.2. Themes and Sub-themes

The themes and sub-themes of the teachers' perspectives on teacher knowledge are summarised in Table 6.1. The sub-themes were obtained from the coding process. The themes were obtained later when the sub-themes were being categorised.

Table 6.1 Themes and sub-themes of the teachers' perspectives on teacher knowledge

Section	Theme	Sub-section	Sub-theme
6.2.1	Knowledge of English and Related Subject Matters	6.2.1.1	English Grammar
		6.2.1.2	English Vocabulary
		6.2.1.3	English Linguistics & Its Sub-fields
		6.2.1.4	English Literature
		6.2.1.5	Culture of Native Speakers of English
		6.2.1.6	Cross Cultural Understanding
		6.2.1.7	History of the English Language
6.2.2	Knowledge of EFL Curricular Matters	6.2.2.1	Curriculum
		6.2.2.2	Syllabus
		6.2.2.3	Lesson Plan
		6.2.2.4	Materials
6.2.3	Knowledge ELT Methodology	6.2.3.1	Uniqueness of ELT Methodology
		6.2.3.2	Dynamics of ELT Methodology
		6.2.3.3	Alternative & Supportive Ways to Teach English
		6.2.3.4	Interesting Ways to Teach English
6.2.4.	Knowledge of Non-EFL Subject Matters	6.2.4.1	General Knowledge
		6.2.4.2	Other School Subjects
		6.2.4.3	Information Technology
6.2.5	Knowledge of Students' Characteristics	6.2.5.1	Students' Social & Economic Background
		6.2.5.2	Students' Behaviour in & Attitudes to Learning English
		6.2.5.3	Students' Problems
		6.2.5.4	Student Motivation
		6.2.5.5	Students' Levels of Ability
		6.2.5.6	Student Needs
		6.2.5.7	Students' Learning Styles

6.2.1 Knowledge of English and Related Subject Matters

6.2.1.1 English Grammar

The teachers often mentioned knowledge of English grammar before mentioning the other areas of teacher knowledge. They considered knowledge of grammar as being knowledge of the language itself and described it in terms of sentence structure, language rules and basics, and patterns. They also expected teachers to have excellent knowledge of grammar as they said it would indicate their commitment to professionalism.

English teacher, should understand about English itself, the rule, the pattern, and so on. That's the point, because this is the basic, the indicator whether the teacher is professional or not. (Anton)

Anton and the majority of the teachers who shared his opinion saw the knowledge of English grammar as the foundation knowledge not only for IETs but also for students.

Grammar is ‘the basic’ as it has ‘the rule’, ‘the pattern’ that they are required to have a good grasp of. They will need this knowledge to teach their students, who, in turn, will also have to have a good knowledge of grammar throughout their learning career. IETs’ good knowledge of English grammar means excellent subject knowledge, which at the end of the day indicates their professionalism.

The teachers’ emphasis on grammar also indicate that despite the various methods of English teaching implemented to improve students’ fluency in English, which is considered poor by many people, and in spite of many teachers’ effort to focus less on the accuracy in order to make students more interested in EL, there was still a firm belief among the teachers that teacher knowledge of grammar remains a fundamental one.

One partial explanation of such an emphasis might be the *final test factor*. This is how I refer to the fact that IETs often experience heavy pressure to ensure all their students pass *UAN* in which English is one of the key subjects. The English tests are still seen by many teachers as ‘grammar-oriented’, even though they are quite comprehensive in terms of the major skills in English they cover. Thus, IETs need to be very conversant in grammar to ensure that their students do well on the tests.

6.2.1.2 English Vocabulary

English vocabulary is an important part of IETs’ knowledge of English because it supports their knowledge of grammar. For example, Marni, who was the oldest of all the teachers, said:

We have to know a lot of vocabulary because without vocabulary it is difficult for us to manage the structure.

Marni’s statement is interesting because it stresses the importance of vocabulary in supporting the knowledge of syntax.

However, vocabulary is not just to do with syntax as it includes, among other things, antonyms, synonyms, morphology, and parts of speech. The phrase ‘to know a lot of vocabulary’ in Marni’s statement may be interpreted to mean having the knowledge of the myriad aspects of vocabulary, including words, idioms, and expressions.

The teachers generally believed that knowing a large amount of vocabulary is useful for two main reasons. First, in relation to English language skills, the knowledge is useful for comprehending (listening and reading) and producing English (speaking and writing). Second, in relation to English teaching skill, the knowledge is useful when they help students with their problems or learning process, e.g. when they have to help students find the right words to use during classroom activities.

6.2.1.3 English Linguistics and Its Sub-fields

In addition to knowledge of English linguistics, it is essential for IETs to have the knowledge of the sub-fields of linguistics. The teachers mentioned 'linguistics', 'sociolinguistics', and 'neurolinguistics' in this respect. Unfortunately, these were not elaborated on as the teachers' answers were too short to be developed into a discussion here.

However, the fact that knowledge of linguistics and its sub-fields was mentioned by the teachers, albeit in short answers, may be explicated by referring to their training and teaching experiences. During their training years they were required to complete such courses as general linguistics, phonology, syntax, semantics, morphology, pragmatics, sociolinguistics, language didactics (TEFL), neurolinguistics, and psycholinguistics. These courses are taught in the ELT and English literature departments of the *LPTKs* where most of the teachers graduated from. Some of them were also taught in the postgraduate programs attended by a number of the teachers.

In the classroom, IETs often have to try to respond to students' questions about or problems related to linguistics or related fields. For example, knowledge of sociolinguistics might help IETs address questions about how English is used by its various types of speakers, including their students who use or learn it as a foreign language. Additionally, knowledge of neurolinguistics might help the teachers to better understand or explain the workings of the brains in their students' learning of EFL, thus enabling them to help the students' learning process.

6.2.1.4 English Literature

IETs need to have the knowledge of English literature. This view was articulated by the teachers even though, according to the law, their main responsibility is to teach English for interpersonal and transactional purposes (MNERI, 2006a).

The teachers' belief is noteworthy for two reasons. First, English literature is implied rather than stated explicitly in schools' English curricula, i.e. in the outlines of a genre-based approach for English teaching in which students are expected to engage in oral and written discourses. The discourses are described as recounts, narratives, procedures, descriptions, news items, reports, analytical expositions, hortatory expositions, spoofs, explanations, discussions, and reviews (MNERI, 2006a).

Second, few teachers have taken the initiative to use English literary works in teaching. The teachers said that the closest they could get to English literature was only when they had to deal with texts on English literature-related materials, such as reading passages about William Shakespeare or English poetry. They did not deliberately select the English literary texts to be included in their lessons because the texts had been made available to them.

Hamid, a senior teacher who was known by his colleagues to have used English literary works in his lessons, supported the above analysis. Having used short stories, poems, fables, abridged versions of novels, and literary reviews to teach his classes, he said that many of his colleagues lacked the ability to use or the commitment to explore the potential of English literature in their teaching. He said that they were oblivious to the possibility of using literary texts in reading such genres as narratives or reviews. In this regard, he said that writing English literature is not yet an option due to the students' level of English, but it is possible to explore its potential. Hamid is a literary enthusiast who had won several Indonesian literary competitions for teachers at the local and national levels.

Nevertheless, the other teachers said that through teachers' knowledge of English literature they believed their students would benefit from an exposure to the real use of English. That is, in the most artistic use of the target language in poetry, prose, and other forms. English literary works are viewed as containing language artefacts, which may

arguably be seen as *real language artefacts* from an EFL perspective. This might be due to the fact that more realistic language artefacts in their interpersonal or transactional forms, from which students could learn “real” target language use involving native speakers, may not be readily available or accessible in the EFL contexts. The other explanation is that the teachers were probably in support of a diversification of materials to use in teaching English. Using English poems or short stories would provide teachers and students alike with an opportunity to teach or learn something different about the target language.

The teachers’ perspectives may also be influenced by their professional training experience in which English literature is part of the curriculum. Most Indonesian English teachers obtained their undergraduate degrees from either ELT departments or English literature departments. In many institutions, such as in the English Department at *UNM*, English literature courses are usually taught as four main subjects: Introduction (to English literature), Poetry, Prose (with short stories and novels), and Drama. In other institutions there is an optional subject, e.g. Literary Appreciation. Each of these subjects is taught in one semester which consists of up to 16 lessons. While students of the English literature departments study these subjects (or the related ones) as part of their majors, those in the ELT departments study them just so that they can use them for the purposes of English teaching.

6.2.1.5 Culture of Native Speakers of English

The teachers stated that having a knowledge of English culture is important. They used two interrelated, yet overlapping points, namely, ‘culture and habits of English native speakers’ and ‘cross cultural understanding’. This view indicates their general understanding of the relationship between language and culture.

Learning a language is also learning a culture. (Wini)

Wini was probably thinking of an Indonesian proverb that says *Bahasa menunjukkan bangsa* ‘One’s language indicates one’s nationality’.

This sub-theme refers to the specific culture associated with English that the teachers said IETs should know. The words ‘culture’ and ‘habits’ were used here to describe the

shared beliefs, customs, values, practices, attitudes, and social behaviour of the people whose mother tongue is English. This refers particularly to the people of Great Britain, the U.S., Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. These people were viewed by the teachers as representing Western people whose culture has a lot to admire and emulate.

They should know about the culture...I always use examples relating to the culture of Western people...When they are greeted, they respond, "I'm okay". And...they show gratitude, "Thank you"...and their discipline, because I don't want my students to have an appointment with a Western person, and they come late. (Chaya*)

According to Chaya, English native speakers are courteous, punctual, and disciplined. These positive attributes and IETs' knowledge of these are essential if students are to learn about them and practise them in their daily lives.

However, a few things about the English native speakers' culture were not considered 'suitable' or 'appropriate' in the Indonesian context.

We want to adopt the ones that are suitable for us...and stay away from the ones that are not...We must emulate how they use their time, their commitment to seeking knowledge. (Rina*)

It may be inferred from Rina's statement that IETs' knowledge of English native speakers' culture is important in ensuring that their students learn what cultural behaviours or practices by Western people are exemplary and what are not. Then the students can decide for themselves which ones they want to emulate or adopt. One such thing is Western people's or native English-speakers' enthusiasm about seeking and developing knowledge. This is relevant to education as it establishes a link between the importance of education and that of learning English.

The results presented in this sub-section have a close connection to the next sub-theme of cross-cultural understanding.

6.2.1.6 Cross-cultural Understanding

IETs should have the knowledge of cross-cultural understanding (CCU), particularly between English-speaking people and Indonesians or vice versa. Such knowledge may help students and IETs alike to tackle issues that may occur when they communicate with English native speakers. The teachers mentioned the knowledge of CCU explicitly and implicitly.

In the following statements, CCU is articulated explicitly:

[IETs need to] also [have knowledge about] the culture of English speakers...the target language culture [and] Indonesian culture, the students' [own] culture. So, both, cross-culture [sic] understanding. (Wawan)

[IETs] knowledge about the other culture of the country, I mean English culture [is important]. Students want to know...When I was in college, [there was] CCU... It's a lesson in the university, but [not] in the school[s]...We just teach the students what we know, but not much about the culture in another country. When I was [doing CCU] in the university...we learned a lot about the culture, body language ...but [this is] not [taught] in the school. (Fifi)

Wawan and Fifi statements believed that knowing English means knowing *the target language culture* which is important in EFL instruction. By referring to Indonesian culture as well, Wawan was emphasising an understanding of the two cultures in the teaching and learning of EFL.

Fifi believed that students are interested in 'English culture' as there are many things they want and need to learn about it in addition to the language. She regretted the fact that CCU is not taught in schools.

In the following statement, IETs' knowledge of CCU is implied.

Our culture, and also the [culture of] native speakers of English...such as American, Australian, [and] New Zealand culture. Sometimes I made that problem in my classroom...When I described someone—they said "Oh, er, you are fat!" or "You look so thin!" This is absolutely normal in Indonesia. And when my native speaker at school heard that, she said, "Oh my god! That's rude. That's offensive". (Neni)

Neni believed in the importance of an understanding of 'our culture' and 'English culture' in EFL instruction. She refers specifically to how common expressions in one language may be offensive in another, and emphasises the need for better cross-cultural understanding among her own students.

It should be noted that by mentioning 'American, Australian, New Zealand culture', which could also include Great Britain and Canada, Neni was implying that native speakers of English are not the same as each other, despite their common roots. In a broader sense, the same can be said about Indonesian people. This is something that can only be understood by incorporating CCU in EFL teaching, hence the need for IETs to be informed by CCU.

6.2.1.7 History of the English Language

IETs should inform themselves of the history of the English language. The teachers' overall idea is that IETs could use this knowledge in teaching:

...so that the learner can appreciate the language [that] they are learning. (Wini)

The teachers' perspectives are of three main arguments. First, the history of English cannot be separated from the history of Great Britain, its people and its colonisation. The English language today developed in countries that were once major parts of the British Empire and now constitute the major countries in the English speaking world. Great Britain, the U.S., Canada, Australia, and New Zealand belong to the category.

Teachers should know the history of Britain...of the British people, the nation...so that they can teach the students the culture, civilisation, and development of Britain ...in terms of its government, life style...the history of Britain...how Britain dominated the world, the greatness of its civilisation...how they arrived in Australia and in other places...as this was how the English language became an international language. Students need to know how it spread, why it is used in Africa, why it's used all over the world. (Fifi*)

According to Fifi, IETs' knowledge about English should be complemented with about how the language became what it is today. They might not have to teach students the history, but their understanding of the history of how English spread and developed around the world may be of use in developing students' positive attitude to learning it, and not the opposite.

Second, there are times that their students ask them questions about which required responses that were based on historical perspectives.

My students...are curious about things...such as why there is this accent, that grammatical rule, etc. I just tell them that that is the convention among native speakers. Very often students aren't satisfied with my answer...because...I don't know the detail or the history...I became aware of how important knowledge of history was only when some curious students asked me about it and I couldn't satisfy their curiosity. (Sinta*)

Sinta admitted her lack of knowledge about the history of English which often became the subject of her students' questions. The only way to tackle such questions is to inform herself more about the English language and its history.

Third, the history of the English language is not in the current curriculum but English-related history sometimes appears in reading passages in *UAN*.

This information is not in the curriculum. I've only seen it once in a reading passage for final examination. (Fifi*)

There is nothing in the current curriculum on English language history, but sometimes there is something about it in a reading passage" (Sinta*)

Fifi and Sinta were referring to the reading comprehension section of the English test in *UAN* where aspects of the history of English, Great Britain, or English-speaking countries are included. In the context of a genre-based approach, such texts might have been written as a description or news item, or another genre. Therefore, IETs' knowledge in this area can be utilised to prepare their students for *UAN*.

6.2.2 Knowledge of EFL Curricular Matters

Every ten years since 1974, IETs have had to cope with the introduction by the Government of a new English curriculum and the system governing its development and implementation. The curricula introduced so far have varied in approaches and levels of prescriptiveness, ranging from a traditional structural approach to the post-method, genre-based approach, and from teachers being spoon-fed with ready-made curricula to them being allowed to develop a school-based one.

The past seven years seem have been particularly challenging for many IETs. In 2004, the Government introduced the "2004 English Curriculum", which required them to apply the *Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi (KBK)* [Competency-based Curriculum] stipulating a genre-based approach to teaching English. At the same time, the Government came up with the *Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan (KTSP)* [School-based Curriculum] in 2006. *KTSP* obliges teachers to develop English curriculum at the school level. Although the changes were part of a series of major breakthroughs in the national education, as one of the key informants said during my fieldwork at *BSNP*, many teachers did not fully understand the policy and felt that they had suffered from having to cope with the introduction of one curriculum after another.

This situation might have been the reason why the teachers mentioned knowledge of curriculum as an important part of teacher knowledge. So much so that:

If I don't understand the curriculum, how could I enter my classroom?...Because when we talk about teaching, there must be guideline for that. If I don't understand that, I['d] never come to the class. (Yunus)

Yunus's point here is that knowledge of the curriculum, being the 'guideline', is what IETs should have early on in their career and then on a daily basis at work. In his opinion, only those who really know what is in the curriculum and know how to translate it into teaching and learning activities could be expected to become good English teachers.

But what exactly are the teachers' perspectives on teacher knowledge of the English curriculum? What do they mean by curriculum? At first, it was rather difficult to put their views into one concept, particularly because they seemed to have conflicting ideas about where the curriculum comes from or who develops it. For example:

The curriculum comes from *BSNP* in Jakarta and developed by the school. (Mulia)

It comes from the National Education Ministry. (Hamid)

The curriculum was developed by the school based on the vision and mission statements of the school. (Adi)

The teachers' perspectives became clearer only after a number of follow-up, phone interviews were conducted. Many of the teachers and some of the key informants were contacted for clarification.

In general, the teachers associated a curriculum with lesson goals and objectives, syllabus and lesson plans, teaching techniques, materials and resources, as well as evaluation and assessment. The *KTSP* Guidelines prepared by *BSNP* define a curriculum in a similar way as "a series of plans and arrangements pertaining to the objectives, contents, materials, and methods used to guide instructional activities in order to achieve a certain educational goal" (*BSNP*, 2006, p. 5; Tr.).

6.2.2.1 Curriculum

The teachers' perspectives indicate overall understandings of the curriculum as formal written guidelines for planning and teaching. Their perspectives might be influenced by their knowledge of, and experience, with *KTSP*. Since the introduction of the *KTSP*, a school's subject teachers are responsible for developing the curriculum for each school subject. In developing the curriculum, teachers refer to the Contents Standards, Graduates'

Competency Standards, and *BSNP's* Guidelines. For example, the curriculum of *SMP Negeri 1 Padang* [State Junior High School 1 of Padang] contains such documents as syllabi, annual and semester instructional programs, and lesson plans for all the subjects, including English. The document is named after the school, e.g. *Kurikulum SMP Negeri 1 Padang*.

6.2.2.2 Syllabus

Just like those on the curriculum, the teachers' perspectives on syllabus seemed to be largely influenced by their experience with and knowledge of the current *KTSP* system. Thus, a syllabus is understood as a part of a school's *KTSP*, as described earlier.

According to the teachers, a syllabus is developed collectively for each school subject (e.g. English) by all the teachers who teach the subject (e.g. English teachers) in that school and is used for teaching the students in each grade for one year (two semesters). In developing the syllabus, teachers put into consideration the two sets of standards (contents and graduates' competencies), the school's vision and mission statements, as well as the locality's characteristics. The latter is included in the syllabus as it is expected to include a number of school-specific materials/subjects (e.g. vocational or religious) and local content materials/subjects (i.e. in regard to local specialities and uniqueness). The end product is that school's English syllabus applicable for each of the school grades and subject to revision at the end of the school year. For teaching the English subject at *SMP Negeri 1 Padang*, for instance, English teachers would be required to create at least three English yearly syllabi. That is, one English syllabus for teaching all the classes in year 7, another one for year 8, and another one for year 9.

According to *KTSP* Guidelines (*BSNP*, 2006), a syllabus has eight elements, as shown in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2 Elements of teacher knowledge of syllabus based on *BSNP's* Guidelines

Elements of the <i>KTSP</i>
1. Competency standards
2. Basic competencies
3. Teaching materials
4. Teaching activities
5. Indicators of competency achievement for assessment purposes
6. Evaluation
7. Time allocation
8. Learning resources.

The teachers' understanding of the elements in Table 6.2 has, consciously or unconsciously, influenced their perspectives on the English curriculum here. They often spoke of the seminars and workshops they attended in order to familiarise themselves with the current policies, including the *KTSP* together with the above elements. A workshop is usually conducted at their schools at the beginning of each academic year to discuss matters relating to the *KTSP* and to produce the school's own *KTSP*. Included in this document are the English syllabi that must meet the eight elements mentioned above. The same elements will also be used in constructing the document that elaborates the syllabus, that is, the lesson plan.

6.2.2.3 Lesson Plan

IETs' knowledge of the lesson plan was described by the teachers in terms of what to do and take into account in planning their lesson(s) in order to achieve the curricular objectives. They referred to such documents as the Contents Standards, Graduates' Competency Standards, Guidelines, and syllabi as essential for lesson planning, indicating that they were thinking of lesson planning in the context of *KTSP*.

In constructing the lesson plan, IETs must ensure that *references* are used and the lesson plan has its main *contents*. The references are the standards documents, i.e. Competency Standards and Basic Competencies as outlined in *BSNP's* Guidelines (*BSNP*, 2006) (see Table 6.2). The contents are the materials, activities, techniques, and evaluation and assessment that they must specify in the lesson plan document.

[In planning a lesson]...I need to take a look at the objectives in the syllabus, and then after I decide for tomorrow's meeting, for example, I have these objectives and then I decide how I can achieve them...supported by the material. (Adi)

Adi's perspective reflects his knowledge of the *KTSP* system, which begins with a school curriculum and syllabus. Once the syllabus has been put together collectively, it is the individual teacher's responsibility to elaborate its contents into a plan or preparation for each of the lessons. Many of the teachers thought that this should be done individually by the teachers. However, according to *BSNP's* Guidelines, teachers may plan their lessons collectively in one of three ways: with their fellow English teachers in their schools, with members of an *MGMP* or *KKG* (a primary school-cluster teacher working group)¹ in their locality, or under the auspices of the local Education Office or Religious Affairs Office.

6.2.2.4 Materials

IETs' knowledge of materials is an important part of teacher knowledge. IETs should know which material suits the curriculum, the syllabus, and the lesson plan so that they can achieve their instructional goals. More importantly, because of the specific approach to English teaching and learning (i.e. genre-based approach) adopted by the curriculum (i.e. *KTSP*), they also said that they need to know and have access to the specific type of materials prescribed by the content and competency standards.

English teachers should understand the curriculum...[because] the material for classroom interaction must be made according to the curriculum. And I think they must have knowledge of and access to various texts or genres. (Risna)

Risna's statement should be interpreted in the context of the *KBK* or the "2004 English Curriculum" which prescribed student competencies in the written genres for reading and writing purposes. Her statement may also be interpreted to mean two things. First, some English teachers still knew little about written genres, despite having to deal with them on a daily basis. Second, some English teachers had no or limited access to the types of genres that they needed to use in their classes. IETs' familiarity with the genres and knowledge about how and where to get the relevant texts to teach them are two equally important things.

¹ *KKG* is a primary school-cluster teacher working group.

Based on the elements outlined in *BSNP's* Guidelines (see Table 6.2), the teachers had consciously or unconsciously, explicitly or implicitly, discussed the significance of at least five elements. These are “teaching materials” (number 3), “teaching activities” (4), “time allocation” (7), “evaluation” (6), and “learning resources” (8). It can be seen that these elements constitute almost all aspects of a lesson. To achieve the lesson objectives, teaching activities should be supported by the other elements, especially the teaching materials. Learning resources will support material delivery, and time allocation and evaluation will make sure the lesson is on the right track and reaches its objectives.

6.2.3 Knowledge of ELT Methodology

6.2.3.1 Uniqueness of ELT Methodology

The uniqueness of ELT methodology means that IETs teach differently from teachers of other languages and/or subjects. Therefore ELT calls for specific knowledge, skills, methods, and strategies from teachers. Their beliefs generally highlight the importance of “the nature of the subject, the content of teaching, and the teaching methodology”, three of the six “major areas in which language teachers were seen to be distinct” reported in Borg’s (2006a, p. 20) study.

In Adi’s opinion:

Teaching language is something unique...because it involves the habit. So the teacher may have a very high knowledge about the language, but if they...don’t have a good way of teaching to the students, then it will be useless. So these refer to the pedagogical things, the ability to teach.

IETs’ specific teaching task is different from that of teachers of other languages and/or school subjects. Unlike other teachers, IETs must engage their students in making English part of their ‘habit’, that is, by using it actively in communicative activities rather than just learning it as a school subject. While this task requires IETs to have a specific set of teaching skills aimed at developing the habit, it is based on their knowledge of ELT methodology.

Lisda compared the task to that of a mathematics teacher:

In teaching mathematics, maybe you just teach the formula...and give them some exercise....But when you teach [a foreign] language, there are many aspects to be considered. So in my class....I don’t just teach the formula, but I...give some examples, and the students should make conclusion from that. (Lisda)

According to Lisda, mathematics is taught deductively, i.e. by introducing the formula and then engaging students in completing exercises using the formula as the basis. She might be aware that many IETs used to or still use a deductive approach when teaching grammar points such as the English tenses. English should not be taught this way; it should be taught through an inductive approach, engaging students to make sense of the tenses and rules themselves.

The other teachers, such as Nia, were of the opinion that the uniqueness of language teaching methodology, including ELT, lies in the four language skills. IETs should be aware of the ELT methodology needed to develop each of these skills in their students.

6.2.3.2 Dynamics of ELT Methodology

The ELT methodology is dynamic. Approaches, methods, and techniques come and go; the less effective ones have been replaced by the more effective ones; higher and higher standards are being set, and so on. This means that updating the professionals' knowledge of the field and the methodology is imperative.

Teachers' willingness to develop themselves...is a very big problem here....[W]hen teachers are asked why they are reluctant to develop themselves, they will say that...they are busy finding the money for themselves. But that's not the point....If we can develop ourselves, the money will come to us. (Adi**)

In Adi's opinion, the responsibility for teachers' professional development rests with the teachers themselves. Yet, due to their small salaries, many IETs prefer spending their after work hours earning extra income to attending professional development sessions. This is unfortunate because IETs should keep up with the dynamics of ELT methodology. Ellie had a different view:

There are so many (professional development sessions), but we've never had access to them ... [That's why] our teaching methods remain the same.

She implied here that professional development sessions should be made more accessible to IETs by the government or other organisations. If the cost is too high or participation is restricted to certain individuals, then most IETs cannot afford to attend these sessions. Yola agreed with Ellie:

Many teachers don't have this (opportunity) and I think this is the responsibility of the institutions....They must see what happens with the teachers, the facilities,

and...they must find the solutions. We can't expect teachers to do this because their ability is limited. (Yola*)

The teachers' perspectives show that professional development programs were seen by some of the teachers as good ways to improve IETs' knowledge of ELT methodology through formal training. English teachers' involvement in such programs is the teacher's own responsibility, but the government and institutions have an obligation to assist teachers to access the programs.

6.2.3.3 Alternative and Supportive Ways to Teach English

IETs should be aware of alternative and supportive ways to teach English. In updating their methodology with alternative ways to teach English, IETs need to look for the possibility of, for example, conducting the lesson outdoors or outside the school. To create a supportive learning environment, teachers need to know the methodology for increasing the amount of time students speak English. IETs should know about these in order to keep their students motivated given the fact that English is still regarded by many students as a hard subject at school.

[T]each English [with] pleasure and...[in an] interesting [way]...We should not only study in a room, but also in a field, maybe in a schoolyard or...in a temple, to make learning English fun for the students. (Zaki)

Zaki wanted his lessons to be 'interesting' and his students to have 'pleasure' and 'fun'. These three elements can certainly be created inside the classroom or school, but there are certain things that may only be available outdoors. Lessons conducted in a schoolyard or a temple² might have been seen as providing 'realistic' interactions, as opposed to the 'artificial' interactions that may occur in the classroom. Anton shared Zaki's view:

We got to create English speaking atmosphere by applying one-day English speaking ... not only in the classroom ... It is better for English teacher to take the students to some tourism spot ... Students will get more motivated in learning English and at the same time they can try to practise their English directly [with] native speaker[s].

² A temple is a sacred 8th and 15th century Hindu or Buddhist shrine mostly found in Java. Temples are popular study tour destinations for school students from all over Indonesia during school holidays.

Zaki's and Anton's ideas seemed to have originated from their own experiences and were not entirely new. What was referred to by Anton as 'one-day English speaking' has been applied in many schools for some time. A number of schools I visited had implemented the so-called "English Speaking Day" or "English Speaking Zone" programs, which refer to a day of the week or a designated venue at the school where students are encouraged, or in some cases required, to use English exclusively, often with a set of rules and penalties. Anton also talked about taking students on an excursion to a tourism spot to allow them to speak English 'fluently and naturally'. Zaki mentioned this by referring to 'a temple', one of the most popular tourism spots in Indonesia. They believed that in these places their students may have the chance to practise their English with English-speaking tourists.

The teachers also believed in being supportive student learning. The basic goal of ELT is to give students as much opportunity as possible to speak English. In another part of the interview, Anton said that the above goal can be achieved by creating 'an English-speaking atmosphere':

[S]tudents should be given more chance to speak than the teacher...so that the students [are] able to speak ~~the~~ English fluently and naturally.... (Anton)

Anton's view of a supportive English-speaking environment was shared by the other teachers. Linda, a teacher at an *SMK* for tourism and hospitality, said that the more frequently IETs speak English to their students, the better English-speaking atmosphere can be created in the school.

[T]here are many students who cannot speak English because, first, maybe, maybe the English teacher seldom speak English to them, never train them. We should be diligent to motivate them day by day. (Linda)

In this respect, Anton's and Linda's views call for different degrees of teacher involvement. Anton's belief relates to his other idea about students visiting tourism spots where they may have the chance to speak to English native speakers 'fluently and naturally'. Linda's statement calls for more teacher initiative and involvement. This is why she criticised teachers who fail to create such a situation.

6.2.3.4 Interesting Ways to Teach English

Since English is still largely regarded as a hard subject in Indonesia, IETs should keep themselves informed of interesting ways to teach English. These were described as 'approach[es]', 'method[s]', 'techniques', and 'strategies', as well as 'tricks'.

We have to update our tricks and techniques in teaching. It's not only about methodology but what games will you use, how will you handle activities in the classroom. So, (IETs need) the methodology or techniques. (Neni)

Neni implies that IETs knowledge of methods should include that of what games and activities that they can use. Games were seen by the teachers as 'fun', 'relevant', and 'competitive' parts of the lesson. They might have in mind card games, communication games, grammar games, board games, and vocabulary games as described in Harmer (2007b).

In general, the teachers stressed the importance for a game to be relevant to the topic of the lesson. Nevertheless, at times the relevance is relative, usually depending on the stage of the lesson or class situation. At the beginning of the lesson games are usually played to introduce the materials, so relevance is important here. During the lesson games are played to enhance students' learning of the materials, so they should be relevant as well. However, at times during-the-lesson games are meant to give students "a break from concentrated work" (Ur, 1996, p. 289) or to prevent them from getting bored. Thus, the games do not have to be relevant. Games played at the end of the lesson do not have to be relevant to the materials. This is because they are done often as an entertaining or fun, closing activity, or sometimes as a reward for students' good behaviour, or even as a response to students' request for a game. Thus, according to the teachers, it is important for IETs to know what kind of games to use, when to use them, and how often.

Besides games, songs were also mentioned:

...use an interesting method of teaching... We use song[s], we make a situation so that the situation is something interesting, not something depressed [sic] for the students, and for ninety minutes in class the students will enjoy. (Linda)

Linda believed that students will learn better in a situation where they do not feel 'depressed'. Songs have the potential to make the classroom situation interesting and students enjoy the 90-minute lesson. She did not specify the type of songs that she would

use in her lessons, but she might be referring to popular English songs, some of which might be love songs. She might have chosen them for their lyrics, popularity, and relevance of their content to her teenage students' lives. Other teachers, such as Ria, who taught *SMA* students, also liked to use songs in their classes and said that this was exactly what they did with their *SMA* students.

Keeping students entertained during the lesson, as pointed out by Linda, may not be an easy thing to do. This is especially the case considering the heavy curricular contents, targets of achievement in relation to *UAN*, and large class sizes in Indonesian schools. Nevertheless, the point Linda was trying to make here is perhaps the importance of creating a favourable classroom situation in order to raise students' low motivation and level of English, especially in *SMK*.

We should do this especially in vocational [schools], the first thing the teacher should do is to give motivation...because low-motivated students is in vocational school...English is still regarded as a difficult lesson, and still there are many students who cannot speak English....We should be diligent to motivate them day by day. (Linda)

Students with low motivation and level of English are not restricted to *SMKs* only. However, many of the *SMK* teachers cited these as one of their students' main problems. For instance, Arie noted that most of his students were only interested in acquiring the vocational skills that they would need in their future jobs. They know English is important, but their interest in it has not gone beyond knowing the words for, say, tools or parts of a machine or engine. It is too much to expect them to have the competencies expected of those in *SMAs*. IETs at *SMKs* are challenged with keeping their students motivated all the time.

6.2.4 Knowledge of Non-EFL Subject Matters

6.2.4.1 General Knowledge

In addition to English and its related disciplines, IETs should have knowledge on a broad range of subject matters.

If we (IETs) have broad knowledge [then] it is as a property for English teacher[s] to transfer (to students) because English teacher[s] [should be] rich in knowledge.

Linda is here referring to *general knowledge*, the term I chose to represent similar concepts articulated by the other teachers as ‘general subject matter’, ‘background knowledge’, ‘broader knowledge—broader than their English materials’, ‘something outside the material’, ‘the situation in the world’, ‘hot news’, ‘what happen [sic] now in this world’, ‘up-to-date news’, ‘general information’, ‘current event[s]’, and ‘current affairs’.

Based on the teachers’ perspectives, four reasons stand out. First, general knowledge relates to English as an international language.

Because we teach an international language...we have to know more about international [affairs] by reading, watching something, or going somewhere. (Ati)

I think [IETs need to know] the general knowledge. I mean here is the around, what is it, the situation in the world now, in the subject. (Tati)

In the teachers’ opinions, the fact that English is an international language means that IETs should be aware of international affairs. By accessing information on international affairs, IETs may benefit not only from the knowledge but also the way the English language is used in the media from which they obtain the information. They can use the knowledge and improve their world view and increase their English proficiency, e.g. in terms of vocabulary or written expressions. They can also use the knowledge for teaching and make their lessons more interesting.

We need to know about hot news, and use the information in our lesson so that our students will become interested. (Asni)

Students may be interested in learning English based on materials generated from their teachers’ general knowledge (not necessarily international affairs), parts of which they may be familiar with. Making students interested is necessary for increasing their motivation in learning English.

Second, by having general knowledge, IETs may be able to keep up with their students’ increasingly easier access to information.

Don’t let students beat us [teachers]. Knowledge develops very quickly, every second, every day. So we should follow it. We have to update our knowledge. Our students will go ahead of us if we don’t update [our knowledge]. (Asri*)

In Asri’s opinion, teachers are no longer the only source of information for students nowadays. With the help of IT, students can access any information they need from the

World Wide Web. It is common in Indonesia today to see school students surfing the Web at Internet cafes outside school hours and “hot-spot” areas, including school grounds. Many of them have Internet connection on their own laptops or mobile phones or at home, accessing sites such as Facebook, Twitter, or YouTube, or downloading materials from the Internet for their homework or projects. If IETs do not catch up with the development, which is part of the “global knowledge economy” (Robertson, 2005), students may outsmart and outdo them in many areas of knowledge.

Third, an IET’s general knowledge is his or her asset of information ready for use when students make inquiries about a broad range of subjects.

Not only about what to teach, but broader knowledge—broader than their English materials...Sometimes students ask questions about other things...outside our material. (Yola*)

Yola might have experienced having to answer students’ questions about something unrelated to English or the materials she was teaching. She might have been unable to answer some of those questions satisfactorily due to her lack of knowledge of the subjects in question or because she simply did not know the answer, which is why she thinks general knowledge is important for IETs. Mega had a similar opinion:

[IETs must have] general knowledge, of course...My hobby is reading, so by reading I can enlarge my knowledge. So whatever my students ask me, about what, up-to-date news about what happen around us, why not?

Mega emphasised the need for IETs to have a good reading habit. She implied that reading opens up the world for her, enriching her general knowledge, which becomes useful when she has to respond to students’ questions.

Fourth, general knowledge is useful for teaching the genres. As described earlier, a genre-based approach has been adopted for ELT in Indonesian schools. The teachers were of the opinion that general knowledge provides IETs with the necessary background knowledge to support the application of the approach.

We need to know...the content of the text...If we don’t have any basic knowledge about the text...we will lack of a kind of background knowledge of the topic...We have to know about environment, politics. (Arief)

Arief highlighted the necessary link between teachers’ background knowledge and the genre-based texts they are expected to use in the classroom. For example, discussing a

descriptive text about an international city, a state, or province in a certain country, for example, would be more meaningful with the teacher's "background knowledge" of the country and its people, history, economy, and politics

6.2.4.2 Other School Subjects

IETs should have an idea about the other school subjects. The term 'other school subjects' refers to all the subjects other than English. According to *Permendiknas No.23/2006* (MNERI, 2006b), Indonesian primary school students study 9 school subjects including EL, junior high school students 10 subjects including EL, and high school students between 16–19 subjects including English (depending on their departments). Two reasons stand out from the teachers' perspectives in this section.

First, IETs' knowledge of other subjects may benefit their teaching of English. Together with other core subjects, English is taught at all levels and types of education. English materials contain spoken and written texts on a variety of topics including those from other subjects. The materials for the other subjects also have English contents in various forms, e.g. terminology, technical words, expressions. This *interaction* or *connection* means that IETs should be cognizant of the other subjects as these may serve as background knowledge for teaching English.

When I teach reading, sometimes [it is]... not only for social but also scientific. So ...[we] must know all knowledge. Like when I teach why people are hungry...the context is related to biology; why the rain happens...I have to know about physics.
(Ria)

Ria thought that an English teacher's knowledge of the other subjects would help them deliver their English materials more easily. Rina referred to English materials in which there are specific terms or technical words students might want their teachers to explain. English teachers who are familiar with the relevant subject(s) might be better at explaining the words and phrases than those who are less-informed on those other subjects.

Second, IETs' knowledge of other subjects may be useful when they have to teach those subjects in English. This is relevant to the situation in *RSBI* and *SBI* schools where English is the medium of instruction for teaching content subjects such as Mathematics and Science.

(We're using Cambridge University's curriculum), so we teach not only English, but also Maths, Science. That's why we in one classroom, we have two teachers. One is the basic is English, the other is from *MIPA*³, Maths and Science....So we transfer each other, we discuss every day to present the material. (Nur)

Nur's school's policy is that English is the medium of instruction for teaching English and the content subjects. However, due to a lack of English-speaking content teachers, the school decided to pair up a content teacher with Nur in teaching their classes. It was expected that a transfer of linguistic skills would take place between Nur and the content teacher, so that one day the latter would be able to teach their subject in English. For Nur herself, it was necessary to be familiar with the content subjects so that she could help the teachers in delivering their materials in English.

6.2.4.3 Information Technology (IT)

The term IT is on every Indonesian teacher's lips nowadays. It is no wonder that the teachers—and most of the key informants—said that IETs must be aware of and familiarise themselves with IT. They believed that with IT, IET's will be able to keep up to date with the latest developments in education, in the field of ELT, and in other areas of knowledge, as well as benefit their students' learning.

All teachers, not only English teachers, have to know IT, information and [sic] technology. (Vina)

Teachers should keep up with the development, whether it is in the IT, whether it is in the development of the knowledge, everything. (Adi)

The term IT was often mentioned by the teachers when they were talking about computers, the Internet, and digital equipment for teaching and learning purposes. Audio-video players and the liquid crystal display (LCD) projector were almost always mentioned. They came up when the teachers talked about giving homework, making lesson preparations, finding supplementary materials, and giving classroom presentations. The teachers' perspectives imply that in the 21st century, IETs will not succeed in their profession unless they take IT seriously. The perspectives point to two main points.

First, IETs should keep up with IT in order to keep up with students. Thanks to IT, it is easier for teachers and students nowadays to obtain all kinds of information from various

³ *Matematika dan Ilmu Pengetahuan Alam* (Mathematics and Science)

sources. In some cases, students might have better access to information than their teachers because they might be more familiar with things that teachers may not be familiar with.

A teacher must be technology savvy because, well, [the] world is changing now.... So deal with technology. Our students...love new gadgets...talking about Facebook. So teachers must...be aware of them. So sometimes, I use TV, movie... [the] new trends with our students. (Neni)

Neni encouraged IETs to be aware of IT, the means by which they could obtain or present information and use its potential for improving teaching and learning.

Second, use IT as the school encourages them to. Many schools today are equipped with facilities such as desktop and laptop computers, Internet connection, and LCD projectors. School principals and committees encourage their teachers to use IT in teaching:

Our principal wants us to be able to use IT, too, but most of us...are too lazy to use IT....Things are a bit complicated, though. Those who teach the other subjects here rarely use IT. But in teaching English, I think students learn faster if we use IT in teaching. (Ismi*)

The school authorities' encouragement is understandable because the IT facilities are an expensive investment. However, as many of the teachers indicated, very few teachers used them. Judging by Ismi's statement, the lack of utilisation was to do with some, if not many, of her colleagues' lack of IT literacy. In many cases, this is often caused by their lack of motivation to leave their comfort zone.

We are supposed to be open-minded....In the classroom for the class 6 or the first grade and third grade we already have the LCD. Teachers are supposed to use [it]. And, of course, we need to be active, or proactive, maybe, in searching for the material for our teaching. So teachers nowadays are supposed to have contact with IT...using the Internet because students...some students [are] already ahead. (Ayu)

IETs should be open-minded and take up the challenge to learn to use IT for teaching. Ayu implied that IETs must embrace change and that change in schools today includes their optimum use of IT. It is not clear, however, whether the schools with IT facilities such as Ismi's and Ayu's schools had an IT specialist who assisted teachers who found IT challenging. Hiring a specialist may be the solution to the problem.

6.2.5 Knowledge of Students' Characteristics

6.2.5.1 Students' Social and Economic Background

Students' social and economic background has an influence on their learning and IETs must be aware of it.

(IETs must) understand their students, their social background, their family background, their parents' educational background. For example, because I live near the school here in this area, I know that our students' parents mostly have low education...[and] lack awareness of education. We try to persuade our students all the time, otherwise they may just run away. They don't like English lessons. (Tita*)

Tita taught at a state SMA many of whose students came from low-income families. Their parents worked as *becak* (tricycle taxi) drivers, construction workers, and street vendors who earned less than the equivalent of US\$5 a day. Tita described them as lacking an awareness of the importance of education, a problem rooted in their financial shortcomings. This led to their lack of support for their children's education, which caused their children's often poor behaviour in, and attitudes to, learning, let alone to English, a subject dreaded by many of them.

According to Tita, IETs must be aware of this kind of situation and adjust their approach to teaching accordingly. If students from richer homes find learning English challenging, students from poorer homes must find it even more challenging. This is why Tita said that she tried to be persuasive with her students, which means she had to be understanding of their social and economic background.

A teacher of a private Catholic senior high school whose students were children of poor migrant workers from an impoverished island region told a similar story.

Sometimes I ask my students to buy a dictionary. [Then] some students come to class without a dictionary, so I ask them [about this]. They said their parents didn't have the money to buy it for them. So I told them to talk to their parents....But the students said that they had many siblings [their parents had to care for]. So, for these students, a dictionary is really expensive. (Lexy*)

In Indonesian schools, students' parents purchase their children's compulsory and optional English learning materials. The compulsory materials consist of English exercise books prescribed by the school and the supply of which may be organised by the school and a publishing company or a distributing agency. The optional materials include English-Indonesian and/or Indonesian-English dictionaries that Lexy referred to. The dictionaries can

be purchased individually outside school. However, good dictionaries can be prohibitively expensive for some parents. This is why some parents have put dictionaries out of their list of priorities. The parents' attitude, which stem from their economic hardship, was reflected in Lexy's students' excuse for not buying a dictionary. Thus, IETs must be aware of this kind of problem and make the necessary adjustment.

6.2.5.2 Student's Behaviour in, and Attitudes to, Learning English

IETs must be aware that their students' behaviour and attitudes to learning English are influenced by two main factors, namely age and their interest and proficiency in English. The word "students" refers specifically to children and adolescents (teenagers), the two major age groups of students that the teachers were teaching. Adults are in the third age group and are outside the scope of the present study. Children are young learners up to about 11 years of age attending primary schools (years 1–6). Teenagers are adolescents between 12 and 17 years of age; those aged between 12 and 14 attend junior high schools (years 7–9) and those between the ages of 15 and 17 go to senior high schools (years 10–12).

Age is the first factor influencing students' behaviour and attitudes. In this regard, children were described by the teachers as a specific language learner group.

You should handle the elementary age students in a different way from, maybe, the junior high (school students)...So you should know about the psychological aspect of the teaching and also the students. (Ayu)

Ayu did not explain what she thought made children different from adolescents. However, she implied that this was about 'the psychological aspect of the teaching' children. In many of the teachers' opinion, this constitutes making the lessons fun and keeping students occupied with activities.

When it comes to adolescents, there is a kind of social expectation in Indonesia that they behave better than children. "You are not a child anymore" or "You should not behave like a child" can be heard when a teenager is being reprimanded for unacceptable behaviour. However, IETs should always be aware of ways to ensure adolescent students behave themselves in the classroom. For example, Tati, a teacher at a prestigious SMA, commented on an extremely noisy class next door to a vacant classroom where we had our interview:

Maybe there is something, news, that make them crowded [noisy], and then as the teacher we must know what is going on with the student. Sometimes they are not, do like that. And then as a teacher we must make this calm first, and then we are talking, and we ask them what is on the news. (Tati)

Visibly upset, Tati said that the class was being taught by a student-teacher of English undertaking a teaching practicum, in the absence of the real teacher. She thought that the class must have been distracted from the lesson, and that the student-teacher was at a loss as to how to control them. She said that adolescent students *can* be made to behave themselves and that the student-teacher should have known better. Nevertheless, Tati seemed to be aware that the situation was indeed quite complicated for an inexperienced teacher to handle, attesting to Ur's statement that "classes of adolescents are perhaps the most daunting" for inexperienced teachers (Ur, 1996, p. 290).

The second factor is students' interest and level of English. The higher their interest and level are, the better their behaviour and attitudes might be. This was particularly the case with vocational school (*SMKs/MAKs*) students who are generally perceived to be less interested and have lower level English compared to *SMA/MA* students.

Sometimes my students here ask me not to use English....They say "Madam, let's not use English. Even Indonesian is hard for us". So they use not Indonesian but the regional language....Actually, I don't agree, but if I push them too hard, they just keep silent. If my students just keep silent, what should I do? What do you think if they just keep silent? (Asni*)

Asni was referring to her artistic vocational high school (*SMK Karawitan*) students. Most of them came from rural areas in her province to study artistic skills such as painting, sculpting, acting, dancing, graphic designing, and make-up art. According to Ellie, another *SMK Karawitan* teacher, her students were admitted based on their artistic talents only. She said that motivating her students was a challenge because many of them did not see the relevance of English to their studies or future occupations. This may explain Asni's students' negative behaviour and attitudes to learning English.

6.2.5.3 Students' Problems

IETs have a responsibility to guide their students' learning process. Therefore, IETs must be of assistance to their students, particularly those who have problems. However, IETs may

not succeed in this role unless they are aware of the problems their students are experiencing and offer their help to solve them.

An English teacher is someone who can be like a friend to the students, a parent to the students, and can give them a favour” (Nasir*)

As implied by Nasir and articulated by other teachers, students often have ‘psychological’ problems. Unlike academic problems that can be identified from poor academic achievements, students’ psychological problems can only be sensed by a caring teacher from students’ behaviours and attitudes.

We need to know which students are having problems—psychological problems. So we must know about people’s minds. Not only psychologists need to know these, but teachers too. (Chaya*)

As Chaya said, this is a psychologist’s specialised knowledge that IETs should also have. In this respect, the aim is to help students solve their problems so that they can focus on learning and achieve as much as possible. Among the ‘psychological problems’, personal problems are prevalent.

I want to know who is his or her best friend...hobby...This can support our teaching ...[and] one strategy to attract the student...so they will feel close to us...regard us as their mother, friend...They’re open to tell about everything...such as [when] they have problems...We have to know that, so if they fail in our subject, we can ask what happen...If we don’t know the problem, so how we could ask them to follow our teaching? (Mega)

Mega was a senior teacher at a prestigious SMA. In her opinion, IETs should be able to identify students’ problems through students’ academic results and offer their help to solve them. This personal approach was a part of her effort to establish rapport with her students and make them interested in her lessons.

The teachers’ statements show the teachers’ personal approach seemed to have been accepted by their students. It was not seen as an intrusion to their personal lives. Instead, it creates a positive rapport “that is so important for successful classes” (Harmer, 2007b, p. 114).

6.2.5.4 Student Motivation

Students would be more motivated to learn English if they could see the benefits of being able to speak it. Because of their young ages, students cannot be expected to be aware of

the benefits all the time. Thus, IETs should be aware of their responsibility to ensure that students see those benefits and keep them motivated. Two of the teachers' comments illustrate this sub-theme.

Amir was a teacher at a prestigious SMA attended by students from the middle- to high-income families. As result of their upbringing and their parents' background such as high ranking officials and business people, his students were aware of the benefits of learning English and many of them went to private English language schools. Some of them have even been on a number of brief "study tours" to Australia that were organised by their school. Nevertheless:

Our students lack the motivation to learn English...[This is] because they can't see what's right in front of them. They don't have any idea about English that can motivate them to learn English seriously. (Amir*)

The other teacher was Tita whose students were the opposite of Amir's. Tita pointed out that most of her students came from low-middle to low-income families, and their parents' primary concern was to make ends meet on a daily basis. For these students, English is just another school subject they were not really interested in, and one that they were not good at.

However:

They have no idea about the benefits of learning English. Our biggest challenge here is to motivate them and tell them about the benefits from learning English. For example, a colleague and I have fortunately had the experience of going abroad, so we talk to students about our experiences and we hope we can motivate them. At least we try to show them that if they excel in English, they can do certain things. (Tita*)

Amir's and Tita's statements show that motivation problems in relation to learning English are experienced by any student, regardless of their social and economic background. Therefore, in any school setting, IETs should be aware of the importance of motivating their students to learn English.

6.2.5.5 Students' Levels of Ability

IETs should take into account their students' levels of ability when they make decisions regarding a wide range of aspects that may affect teaching and learning processes. One part of IETs method often mentioned by the teachers in this respect was their decisions regarding materials.

There is a tendency nowadays that teachers get some materials from other sources, then they bring [them] in to the class, but they don't know the students' level[s]. (Jefri)

The teachers described 'students' levels' in three ways. First, they described them by using the term intelligence quotients (IQ):

The teacher [should] know the student, the student characteristics. So we must know the student [with] the highest IQ and the low. (Asni)

Asni thought that the students' IQ informs IETs of their characteristics as learners and IETs should be able to use the information for making their instructional decisions. Asni might use the term IQ here to refer to the test scores obtained from an official IQ test administration. It was not clear whether Asni's school, or any school in Indonesia, has conducted an IQ test for their students and whether the results were acted upon. Asni might also use the term to mean level of intelligence or intellect generally, not necessarily based on IQ test results. The bottom-line is that IETs should use such information as an indicator of students' levels of ability before making any instructional decisions.

Second, students' levels were described in terms of 'slow learners and quick learners':

We need to understand students' characteristics so that we know which students are quick learners, which ones are slow learners. We need to know what method [to use] to teach slow learners and the quick learners. In my classes I keep watching for which students are quick and which are slow. (Lily)

In Lily's opinion, in order for the teaching method to work effectively, teachers should identify the students in their class according to their learning pace. IETs who are aware of this will put the slow learners in one group and the quick ones in the other, or they can put the two types of students together to work in mixed ability groups.

Third, the teachers described students' levels as 'low, medium, and high abilities':

First of all, we must understand what their abilities are like, understand the right steps in teaching [them]. High ability students may complain if the material is too easy, and at the same time medium ability students may ask for more explanation, and the low ability students would say they don't understand anything. (Chaya*)

Chaya believed in the view of student grouping. However, rather than just assigning students' learning characteristics into two extremes (low and high abilities), she offers 'medium ability students' as another category. When it comes to completing tasks, in her

opinion, the 'high ability students' need no or minimum assistance, the 'medium ability students' need some assistance, and the 'low ability students' need maximum assistance.

Finally, the teachers believed that in the Indonesian context, IETs' knowledge in this respect should be interpreted as knowledge of students' overall ability:

We have to connect between what we're going to teach and what's already in the [students'] minds....If you're just teaching without knowing the students' average ability [sic]...I can say that the teacher goes westward, and the students go eastward [L]. (Hamid)

According to Hamid, schools in Indonesia are characterised by mixed ability classes. IETs should teach them as one large group based on their overall ability. He expressed this as 'students' average ability', which I then interpreted as *students' ability on average*. Given the large class sizes and number of hours IETs are required to teach in a week, this approach was viewed by Hamid as a more realistic thing to do.

6.2.5.6 Student Needs

IETs should know or understand 'what students need', 'what they want', and 'what they like or dislike'. The knowledge will facilitate their teaching and make it more student-centred. *Student needs* is the cover term for the perspectives in this sub-section.

The teachers' perspectives contained two main topics. First, there are broad statements in regard to the importance of knowing student needs. A professional IET is:

A person who can understand what the students want....Sometimes [a student] needs attention, sometimes they want to share the problem, maybe, or students need [to] relax, recreation, and so on. (Vina)

Someone who understands what students want and need...their characteristics... ..and what they like or dislike...in such a way so that the materials given can be easily understood by the students. (Nasir*)

Student needs are viewed here as what shapes students' characteristics, the knowledge of which is important for IETs to make instructional decisions. According to Vina, IETs' knowledge of student needs is based on their students' personal situations, meaning that IETs must make decisions on a daily basis. In Nasir's opinion, knowledge of student needs is based on their collective characteristics: as a group in a class, a class among classes in a school, and a school among schools. Decisions for these groups can be made in longer terms: weekly, monthly, half-yearly, or yearly.

Nonetheless, Vina and Nasir were not very specific about what should be done so that student needs can be accommodated in the teaching and learning process. Alim offered a specific idea.

We have to make a survey about what the students need, what the students want, how much the students know about English. If we know all of these, we can apply...certain methods that seem to be appropriate for them (students).

In Alim's opinion, some IETs use certain methods of teaching without considering the suitability of the methods with, among other things, students' levels and previous knowledge of English. In his view, before teachers decide to use those methods, they need to carry out a survey to identify students' needs. In saying this, Alim was specifying what should be done to identify student needs. The student-needs survey he mentioned may be described as "a needs analysis" or "needs assessment" (Brown, 2007b, pp. 152–153).

6.2.5.7 Students' Learning Styles

The teachers acknowledged the importance of knowing students' learning styles. This knowledge will inform teachers of how students learn English according to their personality or personal characteristics, and interests, so that their methodology may facilitate student learning. The idea is to 'match' how teachers teach with how students learn.

A teacher must really understand the students' psychology, psychology [sic] aspectThe personality of the students, the way, how they learn the language...their interests, their learning styles. (Neni)

We must know our students' characteristics. In psychology, there are four types of human beings, right? So our approach to our students must match their personal characteristics. We can't use one model for all students. This is when teachers are expected to be innovative, creative. (Lexy*)

Neni's and Lexy's views were specific about students' learning styles as an idea to make teaching methodology suit students' preferences. However, they were not quite specific about what learning styles exactly are and what needs to be done to match them with the methodology. What follows may shed some light on what the teachers meant by learning styles.

As parameters of learner differences or "student variation" (Harmer, 2007a, p. 16), learning styles have been described by many researchers. Two of the most popular approaches to date with which catering for students' learning styles can be justified are

Neuro-Linguistic Programming or NLP (Harmer, 2007a, p. 16; 2007b, pp. 89–91) and Multiple Intelligences or MI (Brown, 2007a, p. 108; Harmer, 2007a, p. 16; 2007b, pp. 89–91). For example, in Harmer (2007b), NLP as “primary representational systems” describe people in terms of five preferences to experience the world. They are abbreviated as “VAKOG”:

Visual (we look and see), *Auditory* (we hear and listen), *Kinaesthetic* (we feel externally, internally, or through movement), *Olfactory* (we smell things), and *Gustatory* (we taste things) [emphases in original].

(Harmer, 2007b, pp. 89–90)

MI is a concept introduced by the psychologist Howard Gardner to describe the types of mental abilities in human beings (Brown, 2007a, p. 108). According to Brown, there are eight MI that are typically listed in Gardner’s revolutionary work from 1999 to 2004, and these are:

1. Linguistic
2. Logical-mathematical
3. Musical (the ability to perceive and create pitch and rhythmic patterns)
4. Spatial (the ability to find one’s way around an environment, to form mental images of reality, and to transform them readily)
5. Bodily-kinesthetic [sic] (fine motor movement, athletic prowess)
6. Naturalist (sensitivity to natural objects (plants, animals, clouds))
7. Interpersonal (the ability to understand others, how they feel, what motivates them, how they interact with one another)
8. Intrapersonal intelligence (the ability to see oneself, to develop a sense of self-identity)

(Brown, 2007a, p. 108)

Some of the above preferences (NLP) and mental abilities (MI) apply to students in their English learning process. Teachers can design activities with these preferences and mental abilities in mind so that the activities suit students’ preferred learning styles and intelligences. Referring to the LTC theory, the teachers’ perspectives on the students’ learning styles are in concord with teachers’ *beliefs, knowledge, theories, attitudes, assumptions, conceptions, principles, and thinking about learners and learning.*

6.3 Analytical Conclusion

In this chapter, I have presented the result of my analysis of the teachers’ perspectives on the notion of *what IETs are expected to know*. The teachers’ perspectives generated from the interviews and focus groups were categorised into five themes presented under the main

theme *teacher knowledge*. In general, the teachers' perspectives discussed in this chapter have addressed the relevant points in the literature review both explicitly and implicitly.

Each of the five themes has a number of sub-themes. The first theme is *knowledge of English and related subject matter* which has seven sub-themes. They are English grammar, vocabulary, linguistics and its sub-fields, English literature, culture of English native speakers, cross-cultural understanding, and history of the English language. The findings show that the teachers saw knowledge of EL and related subject matter as the most important element of teacher knowledge. It has been long established that "subject-matter knowledge" (Carter, 1990, p. 292) is essential for teachers, and developing the knowledge of the target language is recognised as "a core goal in language teacher education" (Trappes-Lomax & Ferguson, 2002; Watanabe, 2004). Therefore, it is imperative that EL teachers at the school level have "deep knowledge" (Grossman et al., 2005, p. 201) of the school subject that they teach, in this case EL. Also referred to as "content" (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 404), the knowledge meant by the teachers may include that of the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing as well as the components of grammar (Borg, 1998; R. Ellis, 1993; Mangubhai, 2006) and vocabulary (Fillmore & Snow, 2000). In addition, it may also include linguistics and its subfields (see e.g. Halliday, McIntosh, & Stevens, 1964; Wilkins, 1974; Fillmore & Snow, 2000), English literature (e.g. Short & Candlin, 1986), and culture or intercultural understanding (e.g. Byram & Feng, 2004; Shemshadsara, 2012), etc.

The second theme is *knowledge of EFL curricular matters* and the teachers' perspectives cover four sub-themes. They are EFL curriculum, syllabus, lesson plan, and materials. The findings here show that the teachers viewed IETs' knowledge of EFL curricular matters as the second most important element of teacher knowledge. The logic here must be that now that one has got the knowledge of the language and its related areas, one must be informed about how this knowledge should be organised for instructional purposes. The reason must be that knowledge of the curriculum and syllabuses makes instructional planning and goal-setting efforts easier and more systematic. As cited in section 3.7.1.3 of this thesis, "the teacher who lacks clear goals and sense of purpose is likely to

have difficulty making sensible, consistent decisions about what to teach, when, and how (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005, p. 171).

The third theme is *knowledge of ELT methodology* which covers four sub-themes. These include uniqueness of ELT methodology, dynamics of ELT methodology, alternative and supportive ways to teach English, and interesting ways to teach English. In other words, ELT methodology is the third element of teacher knowledge that IETs must have. The logic here is that since one knows how a language is organised for instruction, one should have the knowledge about how to deliver it or use it to make people learn it, and that is methodology. This might be what Nunan (1991) had in mind when he said that the ELT should be guided by a certain language teaching methodology. However, the fact that policy changes in Indonesia often have an impact on education such as curriculum and teaching approach means that innovations (Larsen-Freeman, 1987) and new ways of doing things should be embraced rather than avoided. For example, IETs who have long been used to the “transmission model of education” (Kumaradivelu, 2001) should consider shifting to or vary their teaching using the “postmethod” (e.g. Kumaradivelu, 2003) approach.

The fourth theme is *knowledge of non-EFL subject matters*. It consists of three sub-themes, namely general knowledge, other school subjects, and IT. This finding suggests that the teachers realised that they operate in an educational context where having general knowledge and an awareness of academic areas other than EFL is beneficial for them and their students, at least based on the four reasons mentioned in section 6.2.4. A similar view is contained in the NSW Institute of Teachers’ PTS document (NSWIT, 2010) which includes non-subject-matter knowledge in what it defines as teachers’ subject-matter knowledge. The underlying assumption here might be that both IETs and EL are well-positioned to act as a conduit, so to speak, that links the world and the school, and vice versa.

The final theme is *knowledge of students’ characteristics*. This is elaborated into seven sub-themes, including students’ social and economic background, behaviour in and attitudes to learning English, problems, motivation, levels of ability, needs, and learning styles. These findings show that the teachers believed that student characteristics must be catered for by IETs because of the impact that they have on student learning. The seven factors indicated

by the teachers correspond to what R. Ellis (2004, p. 525) describes as students' social, cognitive, and affective factors. They also match what Dörnyei (2005, pp. 7-8) refers to as (1) "core variables," which include personality, temperament, mood, language aptitude, motivation, self-motivation, learning styles, cognitive styles, language learning strategies, and student self-regulation; and (2) "optional variables," which include anxiety, creativity, willingness to communicate, self-esteem, and learner beliefs. These factors are also recognised by R. Ellis (2004, p. 528), Mayer and Marland (1997), Freeman and Johnson (1998, p. 412), Borg (2006b, p. 283), and various PTS documents such as NBPTS ENL Standards (NBPTS, 2010). Perhaps due to the universality of the teachers' perspectives under this theme, none of the points they made could be described as unique to Indonesia as they are widely accepted and practised in other contexts, too.

Having presented the teachers' perspectives on teacher knowledge, I will describe the teachers' perspectives on teacher skills in the next chapter.

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