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Faculty of Education

Constructing Professional Identity through Teaching Practicum:

An Indonesian Case Study of Pre-service English Teachers

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Glossary of Terms

*Baptism of fire***:** a military term referring to the first experience of actual combat. In this thesis, it refers to the first experience of pre-service teachers acting as real teachers in a real school setting during the teaching practicum.

Bule: a common term used in Indonesia to refer to white non-Indonesian visitors.

Dakwah: an Islamic term which refers to any activity to preach the 'truth of Islamic teaching' to all people

Guru: originally a Sanskrit term for "teacher" or "master", particularly in Indian religions. In the Indonesian context, 'guru' stands for '*Sing diguGUlanditiRU'*, that is somebody who is culturally entitled to be listened to and modelled upon.

Placement school: the school where the pre-service teachers do their practicum. It is sometimes interchangeable with *host school.*

In-service teacher: an individual who has been hired by an educational institution or the government and is actively teaching (professionally qualified).

Mentor teacher: an incumbent teacher assigned by a school principal to supervise and assist a pre-service teacher in his or her classroom for the duration of a practicum, also known as a "co-operating teacher", "supervising teacher", "school advisor", or "mentor".

Mentoring: a process in which an experienced teacher attends to the professional development of beginning teachers through ongoing observation, conversations, assessment of practice, goal setting aligned with standards of quality teaching, and technical and emotional support.

Minangkabauneese: an ethnic group which is indigenous to the highlands of West Sumatra, in Indonesia.

Ministry of National Education and Culture (MoNEC): the Indonesian government department responsible for leading curriculum, policy, and resourcing in the areas of national education and culture.

Novice teacher: a graduate from an approved initial teacher education institution employed as a provisionally registered teacher. He/she will typically be in their first or second year of professional teaching. Sometimes it refers to as a "beginner teacher", or newly qualified teacher (NQT).

Pamong: a word derived from Javanese language, which originally means *to look after, to nurture, or to raise a child*

Pesantren: This term derives from the Javanese word *'santri'* which means 'student'. It now refers to Islamic boarding schools in Indonesia.

Practicum: a school-based teaching experience undertaken by pre-service teachers, also known as a "placement," "field experience," or "teaching practice". The term "practicum" is mostly used throughout this thesis.

Pre-service teacher education (PTE): education and training preparing teachers before they work in classrooms, variously referred to as initial teacher education or initial teacher training.

Pre-service Teacher (PST): a student in a teacher preparation programme, also known as "trainee teacher". In this thesis, this term is interchangeable with other terms, such as "student-teacher" and "practicing teacher".

Pribumi: literally means '*son of the land'*, a term refers to a sub-set of the population in Indonesia who shares a similar sociocultural heritage and whose members are considered as the natives of the country.

Surau: a name used to call a small mosque in West Sumatera, Indonesia with multiple functions; the venue is used not only for praying but also for Islamic schooling.

Teacher educators: in this thesis, the phrase "teacher educator" is used not only to refer to university lecturers in general, but also for university-based personnel involved in pre-service teacher education to distinguish them from school-based personnel. It is also interchangeable with *university supervising lecturers.*

Ustadz: an Arabic term used to refer to a male teacher of Islamic lessons.

Ustadzah: an Arabic term used to refer to a female teacher of Islamic lessons.

List of Abbreviations

BOS The grant to schools provided by the central government

BPS Central Bureau of Statistics

BSNP National Education Standards Agency

CAR Classroom Action Research

CBC Competency Based Curriculum

CLT Communicative Language Teaching

CoP Community of Practice

DIKTI Directorate General of Higher Education

EED English Education Department

EF English First

ELT English Language Teaching

EPI English Proficiency Index

FKIP Faculty of Teacher Training and Education (at Riau University)

IDR Indonesian Rupiah

IKIP Teacher and Education Studies Institute

ISCED International Standard Classification of Education

KTSP School Based Curriculum

LPMP Institute for Educational Quality Assurance – a provincial agency (*Lembaga Penjamin Mutu Pendidikan*)

LPTK Teacher training institutions – a generic name for HEI's producing teachers

MGMP Secondary Subject Teacher Forum

MKKS Secondary Principal Working Group

MONEC Ministry of National Education and Culture (This used to be MONE, Ministry of National Education)

MORA Ministry of Religious Affairs

Permendkinas Ministry of National Education Regulation

PLPG The 90-hour course undertaken by teachers failing the portfolio certification test (*Pendidikan dan Latihan Profesi Guru*)

PPG Post-graduate professional course of one or two semesters to gain certification (*Pendidikan Profesi Guru*)

PP Government Regulation (*Peraturan Pemerintah*)

PPL Field Experience Program/ Teaching Practicum (*Program Pengalaman Lapangan)*

RSBI Pilot for International Standardised Schools

S1 Degree equivalent to Bachelor's Degree

S2 Degree equivalent to Master's Degree

S3 Degree equivalent to PhD

SBM School Based Management

SD Primary School (*Sekolah Dasar*)

SKS Credit points gained by university study or its equivalent

SMA Senior secondary school (*Sekolah Menengah Atas*)

SMP Junior Secondary school (*Sekolah Menengah Pertama*)

STC Standard Training Courses

SPG Teacher training secondary school (*Sekolah Pendidikan Guru*, now discontinued)

STKIP School of Higher Learning of Teacher Education (*Sekolah Tinggi Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan*)

TIMMSS Third International Mathematics and Science Study

USAID United States Agency for International Development

UN National Examination (*Ujian Nasional)*

UU National Law (*Undang-Undang*)

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Abstract

This study investigates the complexities of a group of pre-service teachers' (PSTs) journey to becoming novice teachers during the teaching practicum in the context of the Indonesian government's agenda to reform national education, including reforms in the teaching profession. These reforms were a response to current concerns regarding quality education, including the perceived low standards in English Language Teaching (ELT) in Indonesia.

The research project, situated in Riau University, Indonesia, involved 10 participants of between 21-22 years of age and aimed to document the important milestones in PSTs' learning trajectory to becoming teachers through their lived experiences in the teaching practicum. It specifically attempted to answer the following research questions: a) What drives PSTs to enter the English teaching profession? b) How do PSTs experience the transition of identity from PSTs to *novice* in-service teachers during teaching practicum? and c) In what ways does the teaching practicum contribute to the PSTs' professional learning and their understanding of what it means to be a *professional* English teacher?

Data was gathered over a period of 16 weeks using in-depth interviews before and after the teaching practicum, from guided reflective journals, and from one focus group discussion. The narratives were examined and inductively analysed using NVivo. Wenger's (1998*) social theory of learning* and his concept of *community of practice* were used as the central theoretical frameworks in analysing and interpreting the data.

This study reveals that the PSTs' reasons for joining the English teaching profession varied greatly, ranging from altruistic motives or religious and social motivations, to more instrumental reasons such as financial security. The role of significant others, such as family members and school teachers during their childhood and schooling experiences and the influence of broader socio-cultural and political contexts were also found to be important factors behind their decisions to enter the profession. Some of these factors at the same time also contributed as *virtual schoolbags* in shaping their initial conceptualisations of the "professional English teacher" (PET) and "good English teaching" prior to the teaching practicum. The dynamics of their interaction and social relationships with members of the school community (students, mentor teachers, and school administrators) led them to reinterpret part of their understanding of these notions. In addition, deep-seated cultural norms of the Indonesian society in relation to expectations from the teaching profession had also influenced their conceptualisations in significant ways.

The findings further demonstrate that the PSTs' integration into the teachers' community during the practicum was not a linear progression, rather it was a continuum that encompassed conflicts, challenges, and tensions, some of which had formed well before they were accepted as part of the school community. Their sense of belonging to the teachers' community was an important marker for the construction of their novice teacher's identity. It was built through participation in the form of complex engagement with existing members and with intricate practices *during* the practicum as well as with broader socio-economic and political contexts. Issues in power imbalances and cultural practices were central to the PSTs' metamorphosis in becoming novice teachers. School students' acceptance of the PSTs' legitimacy as teachers, the sense of collegiality shown by incumbent teachers, support from mentor teachers, and their participation in extra-curricular activities had significantly contributed to the development of the PST's sense of belonging to the teacher's community. The findings also indicate that the out-of-classroom social relationships developed during their participation in the teaching practicum contribute to the construction of their professional identity in very tangible ways.

Declaration

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

Signed:

Name: **Afrianto**

The plan for this research was approved by the Monash University Standing Committee on Ethics in Research Involving Humans (Reference: CF12/2297 - 2012001232)

This thesis is dedicated to my three little girls,

Raudha, Alya, and Wafa

It's not only children who grow. Parents do too. As much as we watch to see what our children do with their lives, they are watching us to see what we do with ours. I can't tell my children to reach for the sun. All I can do is reach for it, myself.

~ Joyce Maynard ~

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I. SETTING THE SCENE

In our rush to reform education, we have forgotten a simple truth: reform will never be achieved by renewing appropriations, restructuring schools, rewriting curricula, and revising texts if we continue to demean and dishearten the human resource called the teacher on whom so much depends.

(Palmer, 1998, p. 4)

This chapter presents a brief introduction to this study. The following sections will briefly introduce how this research is situated in relation to broader academic, social, political, and educational contexts. They will also discuss why this study is deemed appropriate and necessary in the context of English Language Teaching (ELT) and pre-service teacher education in Indonesia. The chapter is followed by the researcher's own story as part of the rationale of this study. Research aims and questions are then outlined. The significance of this study is discussed in the last section before an outline of the whole thesis is presented.

1.1. Background of the Study

As part of reforms in the educational sector after the fall of the Suharto regime in 1998, the Indonesian government invested in significant endeavours to boost the quality of national education. Although reform had started in 1999 when the regional autonomy law (Law No. 22/1999) was issued, it had a stronger basis in the new Law number 20/2003 on the Indonesian national education system. After this law was officially enacted, for instance, the Indonesian government was obliged to allocate at least 20 percent of the national budget for the education sector. Some education reform policies have also taken place such as decentralising educational management (autonomy in education), constantly revisiting and revising the national curriculum (Raihani, 2007), upgrading teaching quality through teacher certification programs, and conducting a series of teachers' prefessional development workshops.

Despite various educational reforms programs, the country is still struggling with several issues in relation to the quality of its education. This could be seen, for example, from a

qualitative study by Yuwono (2005) investigating the voices of less privileged schools (non-government and resource-poor schools) in terms of ELT in a decentralised Indonesian education system. Interviewing six school principals and English teachers in Salatiga, she found that the decentralisation policy has made the situation in these less privileged schools even worse than before. This is because of rampant negative competition among schools across Indonesian regions, as well as the lack of resources and qualified teachers.

Additionally, several current reports from international organisations indicate that Indonesia is still behind neighbouring countries in terms of students' learning achivements and teachers' performance. The results of the Third International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), for example, indicate that the performance of Indonesian eighth-grade students in both fields is relatively poor. Compared to the international average, Indonesian students' level of performance is below the international average in both mathematics and science. Indonesian students ranked 34 out of 45 countries surveyed in 2003 in terms of performance in mathematics. This position dropped to 36 out of 49 countries surveyed in 2007. In science, although the position improved slightly to 35 out of 49 countries in 2007¸ Indonesian students were ranked 36 out of 45 countries surveyed in 2003 (see Table 1).

Table 1. Score performance of Indonesian eight-grade students' in Mathematics and Science according to TIMSS

	Science	Reading	Mathematics
Indonesia	**393 (52/57)**	**393 (48/56)**	**391 (51/57)**
Top achiever	563	556	549
Lowest achiever	322	285	311
Median	443	421	430

Note: Number in brackets indicates the nation's rank worldwide

(Jalal et al., 2009, p. 6)

Specific to issues within ELT, many studies have shown that the teaching of English in Indonesia is still far from achieving success (see for example, Alwasilah, 2001; Basalama,

2010; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Lengkanawati, 2005; Lie, 2007; Marcellino, 2008), seen primarily from the large number of Indonesian students who are unable to speak and use the language effectively. The 2011 English Proficiency Index released by English First – a world leading English institution – reports that Indonesia ranks at number 34 out of 44 among non-English speaking countries in the world with 'very low' adult English proficiency (EPI, 2011). Although this global language ranking is considered pointless by some language scholars (see Graddol 2011), considering a lack of data and standard way of describing language proficiency, I would argue that the proficiency index is still useful in terms of providing general information about Indonesians' English proficiency. It, along with various studies, suggests a need for research that both addresses the reasons behind the failure of ELT in Indonesia and suggests ways of improving the teaching of English in the country.

A case study by Lamb (2011) examining the motivation and learning behaviour of a small group of young junior high school students (n = 200) starting to learn English in an 'emergent middle class area' of Sumatra revealed that socioeconomic discrepancy among students was a significant factor affecting their success in learning English. There is a striking divergence in competence in the language over six years of schooling, whereby some appeared to make no progress at all in oral communicative ability while others achieved quite a high level of functionality. Socioeconomic and cultural capital provided by family backgrounds and early educative experiences enabled some learners to benefit more from the state provision of English language education.

Some 'technical factors' such as unconducive learning environments, limited time allotment, large class sizes, and the absence of non-communicative testing have been commonly perceived as other factors which hindered the quality of ELT in Indonesia (see, for instance, Kirkpatrick, 2007; Marcellino, 2008). Apart from socioeconomic and technical factors, mentioned above, it is important to note that poor teaching quality is also believed to have contributed to the 'unhappy story' of ELT in Indonesia (Lengkanawati, 2005; Marcellino, 2008; Musthafa, 2001; Yuwono, 2005). This is because teachers are indeed frontline players who direcly interact with students in the classroom. Therefore, it is understandable that it is the quality of teaching which is perceived to be the most influential factor affecting and or improving the quality of education (Gauthier & Dembélé, 2004).

Looking at quality of teaching certainly also incorporates the quality of teacher education programs across the country. Needless to say, the quality of teacher education is one of the most common factors contributing, in some ways, to quality issue (Yusuf, 2010), because English teachers are the 'product' of English teacher education programs in universities. Poor English teacher education, for instance, might lead to unqualified English teachers; it subsequently brings about poor English teaching quality in the classroom (Nel & Müller, 2010). Accordingly, any endeavours to improve the quality of English teaching should include the issue of the advancement of pre-service English teachers' education.

A report by USAID (United States Agency for International Development) in 2009 reveals that pre-service courses in Indonesian higher education institutions have not yet effectively prepared the students to be classroom teachers (Evans, Tate, Navarro, & Nicolls, 2009). The report was based on interviews and focus group discussions with stakeholders from teacher training institutions, such as pre-service teachers (PSTs) and in-service teachers in six provinces across Indonesia. Some participants of the study, for example, mentioned that "lecturers do nothing", "we don't have adequate facilities", and "our teachers have everything, except that they are not creative or imaginative in the classroom" (Evans et al., 2009, p. 9). The report indicated that the quality of current pre-service teacher education in many universities that run teacher training and education programs needed to be continously supported and improved.

In responding to the low quality of education, the Indonesian government has made fundamental reforms and instituted important policies in the field of education, some of which have been briefly mentioned (details of these policies will be elaborated in Chapter 2). However, in the context of attaining better performance by Indonesia's English language teachers, I would argue that there is also an urgent need to explore what happens beyond the basic questions of 'what' and 'how'. This means that our attention should be given not only to considering 'what to teach' (such as by changing or revising existing curriculum), and 'how to teach' (by introducing new teaching techniques or strategies), but also to considering teaching identity and the question of 'who is the self that teaches' or the selfhood of the

teacher. This is essential in successful teaching, as “we teach who we are” (Palmer, 1998, p. 1) This implies that any endeavours for educational reform will remain powerless if it disheartens teachers as a person (refer to the epigraph of this chapter).

This is further understood that any kinds of reform in improving the quality of education have to consider issues beyond classroom practices. It needs to pay more attention to teachers’ selves or their identity – how it is constructed and developed. Referring to Olsen (2008), studies on teachers’ selves can then be focused, for instance, on looking at their reasons to choose teaching as their career, investigating how their life biography affect their beliefs on teaching and learning, or how their teacher education program as well as their aspiration shape their understanding on what it means to be a teacher. In the case of this study, the Olsen’s (2008) model of teachers’ identity construction is used as the basis of developing research questions (see also section 1.3).

Considering the importance of looking a *teacher as a person*, plenty of research has been conducted in the areas of teachers’ identity in the last two decades (see, for instance, Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Schepens, Aelterman, & Vlerick, 2009; Trent, 2010; Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005). The growing number of research in this field is in line with Hesse-Biber and Levy’s (2004) view arguing that there is also an urgent need to construct and develop the sense of professional identity within teachers as early as possible in teacher education programs. Despite the complexity of this notion (see Chapter 3 for further problematisation), professional identity is generally related to teachers’ beliefs in teaching and learning, and how they make sense of themselves and their practices, including how they perceive their roles or the relevant features of their professions (Beijaard, Meijer, & Verloop, 2004).

The importance of teacher identity lies in its direct or indirect contribution to the formation of highly qualified teachers. Research has shown that teachers’ senses of professional identity will not only affect their commitment and intentions to leave (or not to leave) the profession (Hofman, 1998 in Beijaard et al., 2004), but also their self-efficacies, job satisfaction,

occupational commitment, and the level of their motivations as teachers (Canrinus, Helms-Lorenz, Beijaard, Buitink, & Hofman, 2011). In other words, the sense of professional identity significantly contributes to shaping teachers' trajectories towards being competent (English) teachers. It provides a framework for teachers to construct their own ideas of " 'how to be', 'how to act', and 'how to understand' their work and their place in society" (Sachs, 2005, as cited in Aypay & Aypay, 2011, p. 15). In short, professional teaching identity plays a crucial part in endeavours to improve the quality of ELT in Indonesia.

Because of such an important role professional identity plays in preparing qualified English teachers in the future, globally universities with English teacher education programs are expected to develop practice-based pedagogical curricula that prepares graduates for being professional English teachers (Trede, Macklin, & Bridges, 2011) with expected skills and competencies, as well as providing them with an understanding of the complexities of their personal and professional selves (Alsup, 2006; Britzman, 2003). These programs are commonly referred to as a "practicum" or "teaching practicum". Such preparation includes learning professional roles, understanding workplace cultures, and commencing the professional socialisation process. In this study, all of these aspects of work preparation can be understood as contributing to the development of a teacher's professional identity.

In this study, the school community during the teaching practicum is considered as a community of practice (Wenger, 1998) in which PSTs learn how to be a teacher; form and develop their identity as new teachers through their interaction with all members of school community and engagement with all aspects of the teaching practicum, including by participating through non-teaching activities at their placement schools. From theoretical perspective, their complex engagement with the community shapes and reshapes their understanding of *who they are* as pre-service teachers (see Chapter 4 for further discussion on this community of practice).

Furthermore, a practicum experience is considered an important milestone for PSTs. It does not only function as as a place for real professional learning, but also as *a place of transit*

where a PST transforms themselves from being a university student to becoming a 'novice-teacher'. Theoretically speaking the practicum is *a site of struggle* where PSTs experience tension, conflicts, and dilemmas in their transformation to becoming a teacher (see chapter 4 for further discussion). During the practicum they form and develop the foundation of their professional identity, fostered by the authentic experiences of students in the workplace (Trede et al., 2011). Therefore, this study employs situated learning and social learning theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) which emphasises the importance of participation in a social context and the process of learning to be a teacher as important analytical frameworks to understand the study's findings (these theories are elaborated in more detail in Chapter 4). The practicum program provides PSTs with the opportunity to bring theories learned about during their courses into practice as well as to engage with a real school community over a certain period of time. Through engagement with this community the PSTs construct, among other things, their images of teaching, understand the complexity of the teaching profession, and making sense of themselves as "novice-teachers".

1.2. Rationale and Personal Motivation

There are two specific reasons behind conducting this study. The first is a theoretical need for it and the second one is relational to my own personal motivation. In terms of theoretical need, this study was inspired and triggered by a current Indonesian government policy on education that puts special emphasis on quality of teaching and teacher wellbeing as part of a national agenda for educational improvement, including the quality of English education. The launch of Law No.14/2005 about teachers and lecturers is a legal product that has played out as an important umbrella law protecting teachers' livelihoods and declaring *teachers as a recognised profession* in Indonesia. Unlike many years ago when Indonesian teachers had been politically ignored, today they are legally considered as respected 'professionals'. As a result, they are not only required to reach standardised competencies and hold documented professional attributes, but are also rewarded with incentive schemes for those who have been certified as a 'guru profesional' through teacher certification programs (expanded on in section 2.3).

Following Law No. 14/2005, the Ministry of National Education (MONE) released decree No. 16/2007 detailing standardised qualifications and a set of competencies predetermined by the government for recognition of professional teachers in Indonesia. A key point within the decree is that someone must have held, at least, a bachelor's degree in education to be legally eligible to teach at Indonesian primary and secondary schools. The decree also mandates that a professional teacher must have four basic standardised competencies; pedagogical, personal, professional, and social competencies (see sections 3.4.3 and 7.1.1 for further details of these competencies).

Although the Law has clearly highlighted special attention to teachers in the context of dealing with existing ELT problems as discussed earlier, the Indonesian government has focused more on the more *tangible* aspects of education, such as changing the curriculum and working on teaching approach, rather than putting substantial efforts in understanding *teachers as a person* and helping them to become effective and productive teachers. This might be the reason why research on ELT in Indonesia has tended to focus more on understanding the implementation of curriculum, methodology improvement, and material development (see, for instance, Lengkanawati, 2005; Marcellino, 2008; Rohmah, 2009) rather than on understanding teachers and the development of their identity (some exceptions are Basalama, 2010; Gandana & Parr, 2013; Kuswandono, 2013; Soekirno, 2004).

Such scarcity of research in the area of teachers and the development of their identity in Indonesia aroused my interest in this particular issue and necessitated this study. Amidst the national attention on the issue of *teachers as a profession*, it is timely and necessary to focus more research on PSTs, especially on their professional identity construction and development. As Hamachek (1999, p. 209) puts it, "consciously, we teach what we know; unconsciously, we teach who we are". This means that being a professional teacher does not only entail dealing with issues of certain competencies, but also with the teacher's self, perception of teaching and the notion of being a 'good teacher' - professional identity - which this study investigates. Nor is teaching merely a set of ways of acting and behaving, but 'a state of being' (Danielwicz, 2001, p.3). The important balance between these tangible and intangible aspects of teaching is discussed in more detailed in section 3.4.3.

One of the possible reasons for a recent increased recognition of teachers' professional identity is the changing view of the teacher's role in the classroom. Instead of viewing language teachers as a passive medium for the transmission of knowledge via prescribed methods, there is now a growing understanding that the teacher as a person is a vital part of the classroom dynamics and a key element in successful learning outcomes. According to Varghese et al. (2005), recent research has revealed that the teacher plays a huge role in the constitution of classroom practices; and their professional identity is as a crucial component in determining how language teaching is played out. The classrooms are in fact "very complex places in which simplistic cause–effect models of teaching methodology were inadequate" (Varghese et al., 2005, p. 22). Therefore, it is reasonable if teachers' identities and how these are formed become the focus of research attention.

In terms of personal experience and motivation, I am a teacher educator and an English teacher with more than 15 years of teaching experience. I also had the experience of being a student teacher when I did my bachelor's degree in education several years ago. Reflecting on my past experiences as a pupil, a student-teacher, an English teacher, and a teacher educator (through personal and institutional biographies), I could see that constructing my identity as a teacher was a complex process and certainly not a linear, one-night journey. It revolved around a long life story and encompassed complex endeavours. It is indeed a continuum with no clear beginning and end. Indeed, the process of learning might even have started long before someone sits in a teacher education program. It is then continued during the teacher education program, sharpened and strengthened in the teaching practicum, and enriched in real class experiences.

Starting with no intention of being a teacher when I was a child, I accidentally got in touch with teaching experiences during my childhood learning. The first memorable incident happened when I was only 6 or 7 years old. I was appointed by my Quran (Muslim holy book) teacher to be his 'teaching assistant' leading a peer tutoring activity, due to a large number of students. On another occasion, years later, I was asked to be a peer English instructor for my classmates when I was completing an English course in a private English institution in Bukittingi, West Sumatera Indonesia.

Despite the fact that I was happy being an English mentor for my classmates, I never thought to go to a teacher training institution. This was probably because being a teacher was not a financially promising career at that period of time. Just like other typical Indonesian students my age, I was thinking of working in other more promising or lucrative professions - being a doctor, lawyer, diplomat, or engineer. As one of the highest achieving graduates from my senior high school, I was thinking that I should go to a medical faculty, and became a doctor. The problem was that I did not do 'hard' science subjects as my major choice in the third year of my senior high school. Instead, I went to the Islamic education department which was under the umbrella of social science subject. By law, those graduating from the social science subjects were not eligible to go to a medical faculty. Indeed, they are not even eligible to take the entrance examination.

I experienced a dilemma at that time. I kept thinking about where I wanted to go. I loved teaching but I did not want to take up teacher as my chosen profession; I loved English, but I did not expect to be a professional English teacher. After such interpersonal tensions, I finally decided to enrol in a teacher education program majoring at the English education department of the Teachers Training and Education Institute (IKIP) in Padang, West Sumatera. This decision was because my English teacher suggested that I do so. She said that going to an English education program was a good idea as 'English teacher' was a profession that would be necessary in the future.

During my pre-service teacher education experience, I studied pre-determined courses of Basic English skills and theories of linguistics and teaching methodology as well as other knowledge and skills including designing a lesson plan, developing teaching materials, delivering the lesson, conducting evaluation and assessment. However, most of the theories of the teaching methodolgy remained unclear in my mind until I was placed for almost one semester into a teaching practicum program in my last year. In the practicum, it was like entering the real world of being a teacher with complex roles and responsibilities and translating all the theories I learned in a school-based setting.

I can say that the practicum experience had changed my entire worldview about teaching and the notion of becoming a teacher. I had to jump into a classroom full of real students doing

real-world practice. This was like a *baptism of fire* for me or as Danielwicz (2001, p. 48) calls it "trial by fire" during my teacher training and education program experience, as I had to deal with real challenges in the 'battle of teaching' for the 'first time'. It is still clear in my mind the first day I entered the classroom, the students were noisy and some paid no attention to me at all. I thought that most of them deliberately did this, as they knew that I was ONLY a student-teacher who had no full authority in the classroom. Some of them were just talking and chatting with each other during my class, while others were playing guitar, or even running around the class. I tried to stop them, but it did not work well. I was frustrated.

Over the next few weeks, after such an experience, I was learning how to approach the students properly, how to make them "happy" studying with me, and to help them understand my lessons. I kept reflecting on how to improve my teaching approach. At the same time, I also engaged with activities within the schooling community; meeting with supervising teachers, getting involved in school teacher meetings, participating in students' extra curricular activities, and meeting with students' parents.

It was through engagement with this community that I started to gradually be aware of the notion of a 'good' teacher and develop my understanding of a teacher's life; that a teacher in my country had to deal with highly demanding expectations. Teachers are not only expected to be competent in teaching skills and communication skills, but also to 'behave' well in accordance to the complex and very culturally sensitive standards of conduct in Indonesian society. At the same time, I could feel that the school community, including the students, gradually respected me more as a teacher. At the same time, my own sense of belonging to the community of teachers significantly developed over the weeks and months. Therefore, as a student-teacher I started to pay attention to the way I spoke, the way I dressed, and the way I socialised outside the class. I seemed to be unconsciously conforming myself into the norms of the community of professional teachers who all had a certain 'standard' way of behaviour.

More importantly, while I could feel my identity as a teacher grow steadily during the teaching practicum, I also experienced tension between my student-teacher identity and my novice-teacher identity. The dynamic experiences and interaction during the teaching practicum made me realise that I was not yet fully accepted as a teacher. As a practicing

teacher, what I had in class was only a role involving ‘pseudo authority’ with limited power. I could not really play my role as a full teacher as other incumbent teachers in the school did.

Despite such ‘incomplete’ teacher status, I could say that the seed of my professional identity was actually sown during the teaching practicum. It was through this practicum that I could experience the ‘real world’ of being a teacher, as previously mentioned. I could understand that the ‘teacher’s life’ is far more complex than what a student-teacher might have thought before entering the practicum. Although I was not completely confident, it was after the practicum program that I could say that I was an English teacher; that I belonged to certain group of professionals with expected roles and competencies.

When I finally graduated from my university, however, I decided not to go straight to being an English teacher as my career choice due to several economic and pragmatic reasons. The most commonly cited reason among graduates was because the teaching profession was poorly paid at that time. Therefore, I applied to be an Indonesian diplomat soon after my bachelor’s degree was conferred but I failed. Then I ran a business offering private English courses for three years in my hometown before I was employed as a government English teacher in Indonesia.

Only after teaching for more than five years, could I gradually conclude that I had come to the right place. I was quite sure that I was on the right track as I could feel that my professional identity as an English teacher had grown stronger, especially when the government of Indonesia made a significant change in the policy governing teachers’ professional incentives (see section 2.3). Currently, as a teacher educator in Riau University, I could see how the Indonesian society gives more respect to us as teachers. As a result, I can feel a sense of pride within myself when I knew that I was a part of a professional English teachers’ community.

Such personal experience has led me to wonder how other current pre-service English teachers navigate their journey to becoming English teachers in Indonesia: how do they perceive, construct and develop their professional identities during the teaching practicum?; do they pass through a similar path to me or not? Such curiosity is one of the reasons why I

decided to research this topic. I am intrigued to know if I could use my personal experience as a mirror or tool to understand and analyse the experience of my research participants in my thesis.

1.3. Aims and Research Questions

This research is generally aimed at investigating the complexities of the PSTs' journey to becoming a novice teacher. Their journey to becoming a teacher will specifically be explored in terms of their identity in transition as well as their construction of professional identity during the teaching practicum as a part of their teacher training program at Riau University, Indonesia. In other words, this study attempts to investigate how their personal and institutional biographies, teacher preparation, and school factors impacted on the PSTs' transition, development, and construction of professional identity over the course of their teaching practicum program.

As previously mentioned, these research aims and questions were inspired by a model by Olsen (2008) who argues that the construction of teachers' identity is a result of inter-related factors or a product of holistic interaction among multiple parts. Although he does not completely address all the variables in the construction of teachers' identity - such as the absence of the influence of broader sociocultural and political contexts within his model - his discussion of several different entry points for studying teacher identity is worthwhile. I consider the reasons for entry to the profession, teacher education experience, current teaching context, career plans, teacher retention, prior professional experience, and prior personal experience as relevant variables to be taken into account in investigating the construction of teachers' professional identity in this study (see Figure 1).

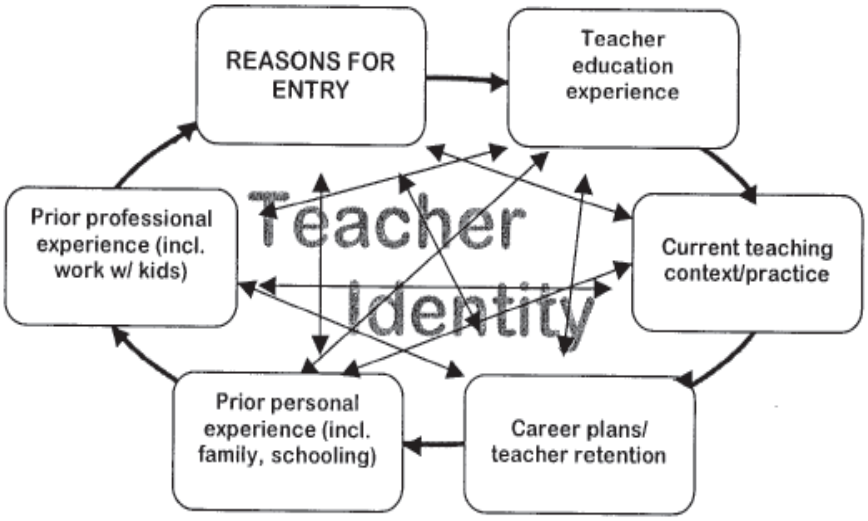


Figure 1. Teacher identity construction as dynamic and holistic interaction

(Olsen, 2008, p. 25)

In operationalising the model, this study considers reasons for entry as well as PSTs' prior personal experience as elements applied to build up Research Question (RQ) – a. Aspects of teacher education experience and their current teaching practice were functional on RQ – b and RQ – c. Although the discussion in the latter chapters may also deal with issues on PSTs' prior professional experience and their career plan, this study does not seek to use the elements – career plans and prior professional experience - as a basis for developing the research questions. In addition, the notion of teaching practicum as a community of practice by Wenger (1998) also inspires the development of RQ – b and RQ – c.

To be more specific, this study attempts to answer the following research questions:

a. What are the reasons behind the PSTs' decisions to be an English teacher?
b. How do the PSTs experience the transition in identity from being student-teachers to novice-teachers during the teaching practicum?
c. In what ways does the teaching practicum contribute to the PST's professional learning and their professional identity construction?
   This last question is divided into two sub-questions:

- How do participants describe the notion of a '*professional English teacher'* and 'good English teaching' in the context of teaching English a foreign language in Indonesia, before and after the teaching practicum?
- In terms of their professional learning, what skills and knowledge are learned from the teaching practicum program as perceived by the PSTs?

1.4. Significance of the Research

This study intends to fill in the gap in the literature which examines the topic on pre-service English teachers' identity construction during the teaching practicum in the Indonesian context. It is true that there have been plenty of studies conducted on teachers' professional identity in many parts of the world. Most of these studies were, however, quantitatively designed (for instance Chong, Ling, & Chuan, 2011; Schepens et al., 2009; Sutherland, Howard, & Markauskaite, 2006), while some were qualitative (see Timostsuk & Ugaste, 2010; Tsui, 2007; Uusimaki, 2009; Walshaw & Savell, 2001), yet a few others employed mix methods (like Harlow & Cobb, 2014; Lasky, 2005; Williams, 2010). Many researchers on professional identity construction focused on looking at *in-service senior teachers* as the object of their studies (see Avalos, 2007; Aypay & Aypay, 2011; Beijaard, Verloop, & Vermunt, 2000; Sachs, 2001), others looked at *beginning in-service teachers* (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2006; Corcoran, 1981; Trent, 2012). While a handful of studies indeed examined *pre-service teachers'* identity construction in teaching practicum context (such as Grootenboer, 2005; Grow, 2011; Hascher, Cocard, & Moser, 2004; Walshaw, 2009), only a few of them took pre-service *English* teachers as the object of their investigation (for instance Farrell, 2001; Trent, 2010; Varghese et al., 2005). To be the Indonesian context, research investigating (pre-service) teachers' identity is relatively new topic in the field of teacher education or ELT in Indonesia (To my knowledge, a few exceptions are Basalama, 2010; Kuswandono, 2013; Soekirno, 2004). These three studies, however, did not specifically investigate issues on the construction of pre-service teachers' *identity during* the practicum. My study is therefore intended to fill in these gaps.

Furthermore, a recent systematic review of 114 research studies on teaching practicum published between 2000 and 2012 by Lawson, Çakmak, Gündüz, and Busher (2015) indicate

that most of the studies on pre-service teacher training have focused more on evaluating the efficacy of the practicum, identifying the problems of the practicum, investigating beliefs and perceptions as well expectations of student teachers, mentor teachers, and stakeholders, or assessing the impacts of practicum for professional learning. Although my study also partly deals with issues on PSTs' perceptions or problems of the practicum, it captures wider issues in relation with the complexity of PST's indentity transition in their journey of becoming new in-service teachers, as reflected in research questions. In other words, this study has the potential to to fill in the gap in literature on teaching practicum.

By understanding this complexity, this study expects to offer some insights into empowering existing teaching practicum activities, so that the process of identity construction can be maximised during such programs in Indonesia. In a broader sense, the study could contribute to the discourse of improving the quality of English teacher education. It has potential to help us, in some ways, find out the solution of the complex problems of ELT in Indonesia by first understanding the complexity of teachers identity. As Varghese (2005, p. 22) suggests, "if we want to understand teaching, we should understand the teacher and in order to understand the teacher we should have a clearer sense of who they are". This understanding could be later used as a point of departure in order to introduce changes into the curricula of English teacher education programs.

The findings of this study are likely to be not only relevant for policymakers to plan action in promoting professional development in pre-service teacher education in the Indonesian context, but also important for teacher educators and mentor teachers in placement schools, in order to get a better understanding of how they should support PSTs to become, and understand themselves as, teachers (Korthagen, 2004) . The understanding of this dynamic process and its complexities is crucial to enable the smooth running of pre-service English teachers' trajectories toward qualified teachers.

1.5. Chapter Summary and Thesis Outline

This chapter has introduced a set of information which foregrounds this study to enable readers to understand the big picture of this research project as well as recognise 'behind the

scenes' reasons for why this study is considered important. General information on Indonesian educational reform has been discussed. Reform within teacher education has specifically played an important background to this study. The rationale for specifically investigating teachers as a person has also been addressed while research aims and research significance have been articulated.

In the next chapter, I will discuss in more detail the broader political and educational contexts where this study is situated. Chapter Two contextualises this study within relevant issues and policies in Indonesian educational discourse. It starts by briefly overviewing the Indonesian educational system, followed by describing issues related to ELT in Indonesia – its history, progress, and current perceived problems and challenges. The chapter further describes the notion of being a 'guru professional' in Indonesia as mandated by a current law covering teachers (UU No. 14/2005). It concludes by describing teacher education programs in Indonesia, especially the status of the teaching practicum as part of the teachers' education training program at Riau University. This teaching practicum plays one of the important contexts where this study is situated.

Chapters Three and Four build the theoretical frameworks underlying this study. They review and critique existing literature in the field of identity, teachers' identity, professional identity, and the teaching practicum as a community of practice and as a place of transit where PSTs undergo identity transformation from being a university student to becoming a novice teacher. The theoretical frameworks are important as tools to analyse and understand the findings of this study described in the subsequent chapters.

Chapter Five describes the methodological choices that made for this study. It starts by briefly reviewing as well describing why this research is considered a qualitative case study conducted under the interpretive research paradigm. It also describes participants of this study and how they were selected. Three methods of data collection are then explained, followed by stages and procedures of data analyses. Some ethical considerations during data gathering are also outlined in this chapter before it discusses the role of the researcher and issues of validity and reliability.

The next three chapters present the findings and discussion of the findings. In particular, Chapter Six discusses findings on how participants of this study had embarked on the English teaching profession. Their stories of why they chose to study at the English education department of Riau University are explored. Their specific reasons for choosing to be an English teacher as a career are also described in this chapter, which later discusses how some significant others have influenced their choices and inspired them to become professional English teachers.

Chapter Seven discusses participants' perceptions of what it means to be a 'professional English teacher (PET)' before and after the teaching practicum. This kind of existing knowledge on what it means to be a teacher is believed to be an important part of the PSTs' construction of identity. As we will see, some initial knowledge of the notion of a PET did exist before their departure for the teaching practicum and some knowledge is shaped and reshaped during the practicum program. The changes are further explored and discussed by looking at what kind of practices during the practicum facilitated the changes.

Chapter Eight further analyses findings related to identity in making during the teaching practicum program. The PSTs' metamorphosis from being a university student teacher entering a teaching practicum to being a novice teacher with some challenges experienced during practicum is discussed. The metamorphosis is also discussed by addressing the journey to becoming a member of the teaching community during the practicum through building their sense of belonging to the community. Their perceived professional learning during the practicum is also addressed as the last sub-section within this chapter.

Chapter Nine is the final chapter concluding the discussion and addressing some recommendations for further study as well acknowledging some limitations of this study. This chapter begins by revisiting the research aims and the findings of this study. It is then followed by a brief discussion on the implication of the findings for the existing understanding and reconceptualising of the notion of a *professional English teacher* in Indonesia. The limitations of this study are then addressed before pointing out some relevant recommendations or suggestions for future research in the area of the construction of

teachers' identity. Finally, the chapter is concluded by articulating some final remarks functioning as a brief last personal reflection.

II. SITUATING THE RESEARCH

"Indonesia's remarkable cultural, linguistic, ethnic, and religious diversity has long challenged the individuals responsible for governing the archipelago."

(Bjork, 2003, p. 190)

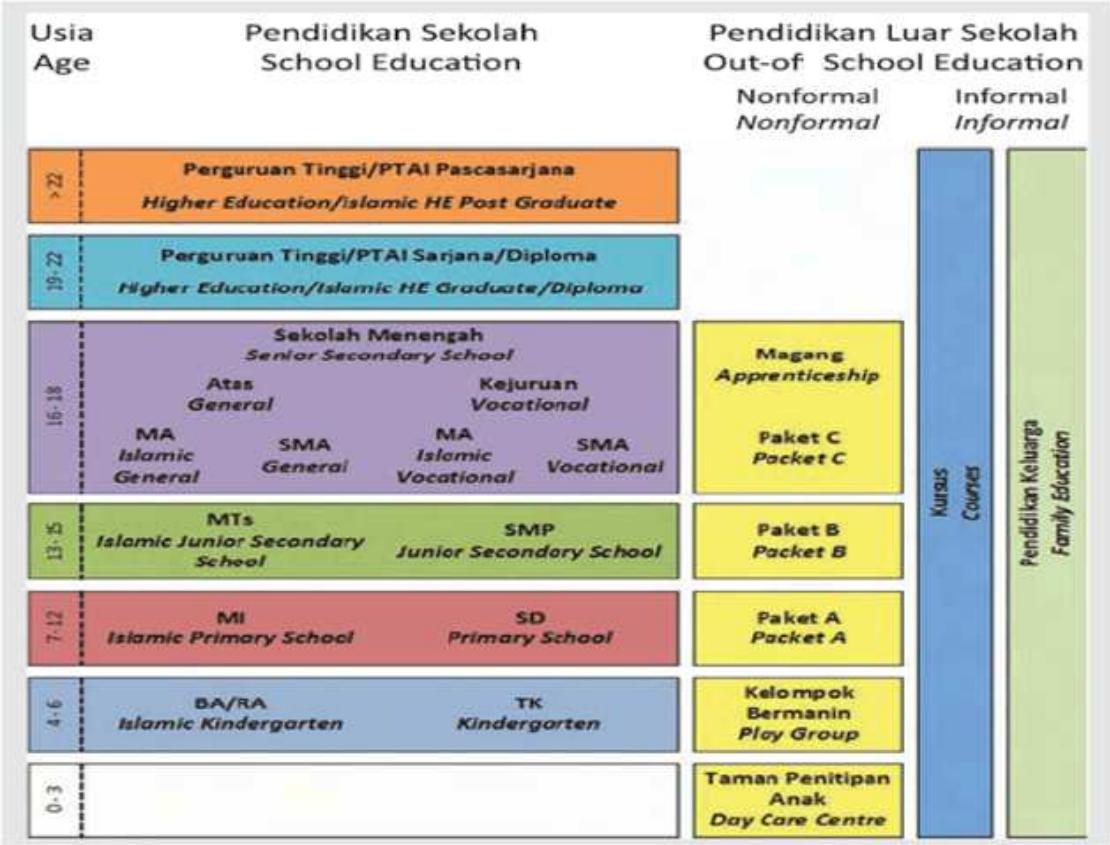
This chapter provides a more detailed presentation of the contexts in which this study is situated. The first section is a broad overview of the Indonesian education system. It is followed by a brief description of the ELT scenario in Indonesia. The next section discusses pre-service (English) teacher education in Indonesia, its history and its current development. The last section explores the teaching practicum program in the Faculty of Teachers Training and Education (FKIP) of Riau University where this study was conducted. It specifically highlights the position of the practicum within the pre-service teacher education program at Riau University, in terms of its content, function and procedures.

2.1. The Indonesian Education System: an Overview

Indonesia is an archipelago comprising of approximately 17,508 islands. It has 34 provinces with a population of 237,641,326 (based on the 2010 census) and is growing to about 257,516,167 people (BPS, 2013). It is the fourth most populous country in the world. Across its many islands, Indonesia consists of hundreds of distinct native ethnic and linguistic groups with more than 300 ethnic groups and about 750 vernaculars. The largest and politically dominant ethnic group is the Javanese. A shared identity has developed, defined by a national language, ethnic diversity, and religious pluralism within a Muslim majority population. Indonesia's national motto, *"Bhinneka Tunggal Ika"* ("Unity in Diversity" or *literally*, "many, yet one"), articulates the diversity that shapes the country.

In terms of education, the educational system in Indonesia is categorised into four general categories; *pre-school education, primary education, secondary education, and tertiary education.* The pre-school education is intended for children from 4 to 6 years old, and primary school is for children who are 7 to 13 years old. It then continues to junior and senior secondary schools (of three years' duration respectively), before students enter higher degrees of education (tertiary education). Apart from these formal education systems, there also exist

non-formal education which are known as *Package A* (equivalent to primary school), *Package B* (equivalent to junior secondary school), and *Package C* (equivalent to senior high school). All of these schools are run and managed by both the Ministry of National Education and Culture (MONEC) and the Ministry of Religious Affairs (MORA). While MONEC manages the so-called 'secular based schools', MORA especially manages religious based schools and religious educational institutions (see Figure 2 for a detailed depiction of the structure of the Indonesian education system).



Source: Ministry of National Education, 2007.

Figure 2. The structure of Indonesian education according to the National Education Law no. 20/2003

Compulsory education usually starts from grade 1 primary school to grade 9 in junior high school. However, since 2013 the Indonesian government has declared an extension of the compulsory education program until grade 12 of senior high school. The government has allocated substantial funding to support this compulsory education policy by subsidising the

cost for most outlays during these levels of schooling. Since 2005, for instance, the Indonesian government has provided *Bantuan Operasional Sekolah* (School Operational Grant/BOS) funds by allocating IDR 580.000 (approximately AU$ 60) to every primary school student per year (Ministry of National Education and Culture, Kemdikbud, 2014). Using this fund, the students are exempted from any fees. The fund is not only paid for students in public schools, but also for students in privately managed schools. If the earlier is fully free from tuition fees charged by the school, the latter is not.

Currently Indonesia has approximately 251,714 public and private schools, ranging from primary to secondary schools, including schools for students with special needs (Kemendikbud, 2013), not to mention more than 20,300 public and private universities. These schools (and universities) are supported by approximately 5.6 million teachers and more than 165,350 lecturers, and approximately 79,297 school administrators. Despite the fact that pre-school education is not compulsory, early childhood education, such as kindergarten and play group centres, have started to be more popular among Indonesian families compared to decades ago. There were at least 174,367 early childhood education centres scattered around Indonesia in 2014.

Considering the diversity and wide territorial scope of Indonesian education, it is no wonder that the problems of Indonesian education are also complex. These range from the wide discrepancy in equity, access and quality across the regions, to poor completion rates, high student-teacher ratios, poor teacher performance, limited facilities and accountability issues (Evans et al., 2009). Data from various resources, for instance, report that Indonesia stands at a very low level in students' performance in Math and Social Science subjects compared to some of its neighboring countries, such as Singapore, Malaysia, and Thailand (see Dardjowidjojo, 2000; EPI, 2011; Jalal et al., 2009). At the same time, Indonesia is also dealing with how to improve students' English proficiency and the quality of English teaching through an agenda which is outlined in the following section.

2.2. English Language Teaching (ELT) in Indonesia

This section briefly reviews the history of ELT in Indonesia and how it has progressed over a period of 60 years. This review is followed by identifying current problems and/or challenges

in English education. The last part of this section deals with issues arising from English curriculum changes and development of the curriculum since it was first launched.

2.2.1. History of ELT in Indonesian Schools

Indonesia has experienced substantial progress as well as conspicuous declines in education as well as a history of change (see Yuwono & Harbon, 2010), including in the history of English teaching. Before English was introduced as a subject within the Indonesian educational system, Dutch was the one foreign language taught in Indonesian schools. This was simply because it was the language of the colonial rulers - the Dutch colonised Indonesia for more that 350 years. However, at that time the Dutch language was only taught in some colonial schools to a limited number of Indonesian children.

According to Dardjowidjojo (2000) English teaching in Indonesian schools officially started a few years after Indonesian independence. In 1950, when Indonesia was relatively politically stable and able to decide on the kind of Republic suitable for the new nation, people started to raise concerns about which foreign languages should be introduced to Indonesia's younger generations. English was chosen as the first official foreign language taught at schools; this was basically because it was not the language of the colonial rulers at that time.

Like in most other non-English speaking countries, English has enjoyed a special status in Indonesia since then. It has been one of the compulsory subjects in Indonesia from junior high school to university level. In a broader sense, the objective of ELT in Indonesia is to equip students to read textbooks and references in English, to participate in classes and examinations that involve foreign lecturers and students, and to introduce Indonesian culture in international arenas. These objectives have become the underpinning principle of changes to the English curriculum in Indonesian high schools in 1975, 1984, 1994, and 2004 (Dardjowidjojo, 2000).

Since 1994 English has even been introduced as an elective subject in some primary schools and was considered a very important subject in the Indonesian school system. The importance of English can also be seen from the *Kurikulum 2013* (the latest Indonesian curriculum) for junior and senior high schools which allocates more hours for English teaching compared to

other subjects. For grades 7 to 9 of junior high schools, for example, English was allocated a duration of four teaching hours in a week. In comparison, other subjects, such as Religious Education and Civic Education only had three teaching hours in a week (Kemdiknas, 2013).

Pennycook (1994, p. 14) mentions that "English has become one of the most powerful means of inclusion or exclusion from further education, employment, or social positions". He referred to the phenomenon in many parts of the world, especially in *non-inner circle countries* (Kachru, 1985) where English has been the language of power which brings social and economic prestige for its speakers. What has been practiced in the Indonesian education system as described above confirmed this notion. The special status of English became more apparent when the Indonesian government launched a program called the International Standardised School Pilot Project (RSBI) where English was proposed as a medium of instruction. From its first launch in 2007, there have been more than 1300 Indonesian schools who took part in an RSBI use English as a medium of instruction (Afrianto, 2013). Although this pilot project was finally dismissed by the Constitutional Court (MK) in 2012 on the grounds that this kind of school resulted in segregation in Indonesian society, many ex-international standardised schools still regard English as an important program at the school.

Cuurently, not only is English a compulsory subject, but it is also one of six other subjects which are tested through a national standardised test for secondary school students in Indonesia (the test is popularly known as *Ujian Nasional/UN)*. It is a test which functions as a "gatekeeper" which will determine whether students either go to higher levels of education or to go to the workplace. Therefore, it is reasonable to say that the Indonesian government seems to consider English ability as one of the most important life skills for Indonesia's future generations. English is considered a 'symbol of prestige' for groups of people in Indonesia (see data in section 6.2.3 discussing how this perception drives some PSTs to aspire to the English teaching profession). Often one is considered a well-educated person only if she or he masters English in both theory and practice.

One of the indicators of evidence of the importance of English in Indonesia as a key to access the global world is the rising number of private English courses from year to year. Skjaerlund and Loop (2015) estimate that there are about 25,000 registered non-formal courses in Indonesia and half of these are English courses. Some of these English courses are run by

private individuals or educational foundations owned by Indonesians, while others belong to private English teaching businesses from overseas, such as *English First (EF), The British Institute,* the *Indonesian-Australia Language Foundation,* and the *English Language School*.

Lamb (2011) points out that the increasing availability of information technology, especially through the Internet in Indonesian cities, exposes more and more people to a variety of information in English. Some national television stations also have special English programs. Metro TV, for example, broadcasts three English language programs (World News, Indonesia Now, and Talk Indonesia) each day. This not yet to mention other English newspapers and English magazines printed and distributed nationally in Indonesia.

Such wide availability of the English media has functioned not only as alternative sources for learning and teaching English, but has also supported ELT in the sense that together such media provides a positive atmosphere where English learners benefit from exposure to English around them. Such exposure is believed to be important for the success of those learning foreign languages, as they could have additional and more contextualised language input which greatly enhances their learning.

2.2.2. The Changing Scenario of English Teaching Pedagogy

Over the last 60 years, like most other South East Asian countries where English is considered as a foreign language, Indonesia has undergone rapid changes in terms of dominant ELT pedagogies, starting from the Grammar-Translation Method in 1945, quickly followed by the Audio-Lingual Method and the Meaningfulnes based pedagogy in between 1950s -1980s, and finally replaced by Communicative Language Teaching in 1990s (for detail development of these, see Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Kamal, 2009). The communicative approach has been adopted as the dominant approach in ELT since then, although the Indonesian government keeps changing the national curriculum almost every ten years such as the Competency Based Curriculum or *Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi*/*KBK*) in 2004, School Based Curriculum or *Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan (KTSP*) in 2006, and lately to be *Kurikulum 2013* with scientific approach, which in turn affects ELT pedagogies.

Generally speaking, it can be said that the development of the ELT pedagogy and curriculum in Indonesia started from purely adopting western-based prescribed methods to more

localised (or locally sensitive) approaches considering the school contexts and their own unique and specific needs. This can be seen, for instance, in an emphasis to consider students' and schools' specific needs in designing English syllabus in the School Based Curriculum (KTSP). Therefore, local Indonesian culture gets special place within English text books under the KTSP curriculum as well as in the latest *Kurikulum 2013* (see Budairi, 2013).

Such changing approaches within the curriculum leads to alteration in ELT pedagogies. It affects, among other things, the goals and aims of teaching English, teachers' roles in the classroom, teachers' approach, teaching materials, as well as kinds of assessment. In line with the adoption of the concept of communicative competence, Yuwono (2005) outlines the following factors that should therefore be presented in an Indonesian English language classroom to secure the successful implementation. The supporting principles include, among others, the notion that fluency and acceptable language should be the primary goals of English learning (Musthafa, 2001; Richards, 2006). This implies that the teacher him/herself should be a fluent English speaker. Next, students are expected to interact with other students in order to communicate in the target language (Nunan, 1991). This implies that the tasks should include pair and group work, and activities like role plays, language games and problem-solving tasks are encouraged. In addition, students should be given enough opportunities to get to know the language authentically, with authentic materials an important part of an English classroom (Nunan, 1991). Furthermore, the role of the teacher is that of a facilitator in communication. It implies that the amount of teacher talking time should not be a barrier for students for using the target language. Last but not least, the role of students' native language should be minimal and English should be used most of the time during class.

The adoption of these communicative language teaching principles subsequently impacts the nature of pre-service English teacher training and how teachers are expected to behave in the classroom. It calls for an understanding that English teaching is more demanding which requires more specific skills and knowledge. In other words, the changing scenario of ELT pedagogy will impact on how the PSTs perceive the notion of *good English teaching* and *professional English teacher* – a theme that I will elaborate in more detail Chapter 7.

2.2.3. Current Problems and Challenges

As discussed in the previous chapter, despite the numerous and almost continuous reform attempts outlined above, many studies have shown that the teaching of English in Indonesia still faces challenges (See Basalama, 2010; Lengkanawati, 2005; Lie, 2007). Long before the 2011 English Proficiency Index was published, some surveys had revealed that the teaching of EFL in Indonesia had been widely recognised as unsatisfactory. A survey conducted by the MONEC in 1990, for example, showed that most of the public (94%) and private (91.1%) school teachers agreed that English instruction in the country has not been successful (Priyono, 2004). Although MONEC has constantly provided both hardware (such as facilities, facilitators) and software (such as policies and curriculum), fundamental problems still persisted in the field of ELT in Indonesia.

According to Dardjowidjojo (2000), pragmatic constraints may have caused unsatisfactory results in ELT in Indonesia. Class size phenomenon (40 – 50 students) is one of the examples. It is likely that a class of this size would not allow teachers to perform well in spite of their high qualifications and the provision of a good curriculum. Therefore, one possible solution is to divide classes into smaller groups. Dardjowidjojo (2000) furthermore explains that the low English proficiency and salary of teachers may have also contributed to the lack of success in ELT (the issue of teacher's salary is highlighted by participants of this study in section 6.2.4). Many teachers might not be able to fully concentrate on their teaching responsibility, as they have to work in other places to supplement their incomes. As a result, it is not easy for teachers of English in Indonesia to develop their professional skills.

Relevant to this pragmatic obstacle, other problems (such as limited time allocated for teaching English, lack of English exposure, and the absence of social uses of English outside the classroom) could have also contributed to unsatisfactory results of English learning in Indonesia (Musthafa, 2001 as cited in Yuwono, 2005). Needless to say these issues contribute to the on-going problems of implementing communicative language teaching (CLT) in Indonesia, as CLT basically requires a higher time allocation for teaching, more opportunities for students to practice speaking, and the provision of a supportive environment to use English outside the classroom (Savignon, 2002).

Another problem with ELT in Indonesia is that there seems to be lack of consistency between the ideas and the principles of CLT (as an official approach stated in the national curriculum) and the actual teaching materials used in the classroom, as well as between the way teachers conduct the teaching process and the format of the English tests. As Dardjowidjojo (2000, p. 25) states, "strangely enough that 1984 curriculum (as well as 1994 curriculum) never really got off the ground. Although the curriculum was called communicative, the points of departures in the guidelines are still very structural. Textbooks resulting from the curriculum, therefore, reflected this ….".

Dardjowidjojo's criticism is quite apparent in the field. Having taught English in Indonesian classrooms for more than ten years, I personally experienced this problem. There are a lot of textbooks widely used across the country written in the way of the structural syllabus. The books contain a lot of materials that could lead teachers to use "traditional ways" of teaching. That is a method of teaching that still focuses on language usage (and its rules), instead of language use. Many English teachers in Indonesia, for instance, still teach reading skills with the audio-lingual method. The teacher introduces the text to read, and usually pre-taught vocabulary. Students are then assigned to read the text initially by themselves and answer a set of questions about the text. The students are also asked to read the text out loud with the teacher correcting pronunciation. This is often followed by the grammar explanation found in the texts.

This phenomenon has been exacerbated by a tendency towards teaching activities in the class which deliberately focus mainly on teaching reading, and neglecting other skills (Masduqi, 2014). In other words, some other important macro skills (like speaking and writing) have been neglected by teachers. In fact, the curriculum has actually mandated teachers to teach the four macro skills integratively. The negligence of those other skills is highly likely because the existing high stakes of the (English) national examination only assess two English macro skills – reading and listening (Afrianto, 2011). Therefore, teachers as well as students might think that the other two are not as important.

Furthermore, this way of teaching leads to a phenomenon that the format of the test as a means to assess students' language knowledge and performance at the end of the course

remains in a traditional discrete point type test (instead of a communicative and integrative one). That is why Indonesian English teachers do not teach speaking and writing as much as they teach reading and listening. To explain in McNamara's (2000) terms, this is what we call a *washback effect*; that is, the effect of a test to teaching.

Teachers' domination over classroom dynamics is yet another challenge for the English learning process in Indonesia, although the curriculum mandates puting learners as the centre of the learning process. In my own teaching experience, many times teachers still play the role of *director* as well as the *main actor* of the learning process, rather than as a *facilitator* of learning as they are supposed to be in a communicative method based class. This seems to be an inevitable problem for teaching English in Indonesia where the local culture tends to regard teachers as having a high social position as well as the ultimate source of learning (Bjork, 2004). Although not all Indonesian students are passive learners (a broad homogenisation reported in studies), most of them have been culturally influenced by the way the majority of students think about the process of learning, in which teachers are always the centre and sole source of knowledge. That is why it is not easy to successfully construct learner-centred teaching in the Indonesian classrooms.

Lack of teaching resources further contributes to this problem. CLT requires authentic materials as teaching resources. If a teacher plans to teach listening, for example, she or he needs to bring in authentic listening materials, such as recorded news, weather forecasts, announcements in an airport, broadcasts from TV stations, lectures, and talks. Obviously, the teacher needs more equipment in order to do this. Drawing on my own years of teaching experience in secondary schools, most of the time the school management is not able to facilitate such necessary equipment due to a classic reason – an insufficient budget. What usually happens then is that the teacher uses existing, older teaching resources.

Last but not least, the lack of teacher training and knowledge is a serious problem for ELT in Indonesia. Statistics from the Ministry of National Education (MONE, 2008, in Jalal, et al., 2009) indicate that teachers in Indonesia have relatively lower levels of academic qualifications than those from neighbouring nations. More than 60 percent of a total 2.78 million teachers have not reached the academic qualification of a four-year bachelor's degree

(S1/D4). Some of these teachers included English teachers (see *Appendix* 1 for further details). With no sufficient educational background it is very likely that they could not teach English as they are supposed to. Many of them, for example, do not really have the capacity for conducting effective English learning. Some of them keep using the "traditional method" of English teaching in their class, as previously discussed.

Dardjowidjojo (2000) further confirms that teachers with poor mastery of English constitute one of the obvious factors that contribute to ongoing problems in ELT in Indonesia. If one accepts the premise that quality teachers produce quality students, then the poor achievements of students can, to an extent, be attributed to the poor quality of teachers in Indonesia. The term 'poor quality teachers' here refers to the fact that there is still a great amount of English teachers in Indonesia who are not skillful enough to teach (Kirkpatrick, 2007); some of them do not have standardised qualifications for teaching English (Jalal et al., 2009). They did not graduate from teachers' education institutions, for instance, so they do not have English teaching certificates.

2.3. Being a *Guru Profesional* in Indonesia

Despite the shortcomings and problems associated with the teaching profession, teachers in Indonesia are addressed by the title of 'guru', which stands for 'Sing diguGUlanditiRU', that is "somebody who deserved to be listened and modelled upon" (Gandana & Parr, 2013, p. 8). This title indicates that the role of the teacher is a highly valued one in Indonesian society and teaching is considered to be a sacred and distinctive profession. Yet, the status of teachers in Indonesia has fluctuated during the nation's history. As Jalal et al. (2009) discuss, in the period between Independence in 1945 until the early 1970s, the teaching profession was regarded as highly prestigious. During this time, only high-performing students were selected for entry into teacher training programs. The high achievers of the primary schools received a government scholarship to continue to secondary school (*Sekolah Guru B*, abbreviated to SGB). At the same time the top graduates from the junior secondary schools would receive the same scholarship to continue to upper secondary school (*Sekolah Guru A*, abbreviated to SGA). These graduates from the SGB and SGA programs were then directly appointed as

primary school teachers. Similar B1 and B2 programs were structured to educate top graduates from the upper secondary schools so that they could become high school teachers.

Jalal et al. (2009) further discuss how the quality of the teachers began to decline with the expansion of the primary school (*SD Inpres*) program in the 1970s. *SD Inpres* was a massive school construction program during Suharto's regime (1971-1998) where more than 61,000 primary schools were constructed as a part of a national program to increase the literacy rate for the younger generation across the regions in Indonesia. The government's goal was to also increase enrolment rates among children aged 7 to 12, from 69 percent in 1973 to 85 percent by 1985 (Duflo, 2001). In order to meet the large demand for teachers after the quick increase in the number of primary schools, "quality was sacrificed for quantity" (Jalal et al., 2009, p. 10). In general, the recruitment of teachers into these programs became less selective and it led to a decline in the average quality of teachers. Consequently, a degradation seemed to also occur in the Indonesian society, with the prestige of being teachers declining after this period.

This decline has been exacerbated by a drop in teachers' salaries in real terms when compared to national average salaries, in inverse proportion to the number of teachers inducted into the profession (see Table 2). At the same time, there has been less incentive for top graduates to enter the teaching service compared to previously (Jalal et al., 2009). From the 1980s to the mid-1990s, teachers' low salaries have been a major national issue in Indonesia, and are considered one of the major factors which contributed to the low performance of Indonesian teachers (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). Therefore, improving teachers' welfare has been an important point of concerns in improving teacher quality in the national discourse.

Table 2. Comparison of teacher salaries across countries by level of education (in US Dollars)

Country	Year	Primary School		Junior Secondary School		Senior Secondary School	
		Starting Salary	Top Salary	Starting Salary	Top Salary	Starting Salary	Top Salary
Argentina	2004	9499	13693	9734	14134	9734	14134
Chile	2005	10922	17500	10922	17500	10922	18321
India	2002/03	11507	17811	13975	22747	16977	26849
Indonesia	**2004/05**	**2733**	**3941**	**2913**	**4281**	**3373**	**4756**
Malaysia	2004	8389	18798	11680	31028	11680	31028
Paraguay	2004	7038	7038	11109	11109	11109	11109
Philippines	2004/05	9060	10770	9060	10770	9060	10770
Sri Lanka	2005	5006	7964	5006	7964	6826	10239
Thailand	2004/05	5902	27662	5902	27662	5902	27662
Uruguay	2003	4035	5057	4035	5057	4237	5309
WEI average	2005	7696	13957	8611	15808	9796	16649
OECD average	2005	27723	45666	29772	48983	31154	51879

Source: *World Education Indicators* 2007, Table 5.h.i., p. 144.

After the fall of Suharto in 1998, Indonesia began to reform various societal aspects, including the educational sector. There were some fundamental changes within the Indonesian national education management as part of these reforms. The stipulation of Law No. 20/2003 regarding the National Education System, for instance, transformed the Indonesian educational management from being centralised to decentralised, where local governments were given more authority to run education in accordance to local needs and requirements. Following the introduction of this law, Indonesian schools started to be familiar with issues of school based management, school based curriculum, and school based assessment (Raihani, 2007).

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the improvement of teachers' lives and competencies are also important issues within the educational reform. This has been especially strengthened by the launch of Law No. 14/2005 (henceforth referred to as the 'Law') about teachers and university lecturers. The term *guru profesional* (an Indonesian phrase attributed to a *professional teacher*) has been a popular one in educational discourse since then, and it has become a focus of attention by many educational stakeholders in Indonesia. The Law serves as a big umbrella, which legally protects the teaching profession in Indonesia. Unlike many years ago when teachers tended to be neglected by the government, the Law has officially recognised *teachers as professionals* holding the same status and respect as other established professions in Indonesia, such as doctors, lawyers, and accountants (Afrianto, 2007a).

The Law requires all current and future teacher candidates to have graduated at least with a bachelor's degree in education in order to be eligible for being a teacher. This is an important development within the Law as 'anyone' used to be eligible for being a teacher in Indonesia, regardless of their academic qualifications and competencies. Therefore, this Law can be considered one of the most significant breakthroughs in the Indonesian teacher education system in the last two decades. Not only does the Law declare teaching a recognised profession, but it has also been the foundation for many follow up programs as a part of Indonesian education reform, such as teacher certification programs, school accreditation, and curriculum changes (Halim, 2011; Jalal et al., 2009).

After the Law, all teachers are obliged to be a *'guru profesional'* (professional teacher) in the sense of being people holding certain essential qualities defined by the government who can play their roles and responsibilities as qualified and accredited teachers. In other words, the notion of 'professional' in this context does not simply mean a person engaged or qualified in a profession, but one who posseses certain demonstrable attributes. Article 1.4 of the Law defines a "professional" role as "a job or an activity performed by someone as a source of income, which requires expertise, proficiency or skills that meet certain quality standards or norms" (tanslated from "Undang Undang Guru dan Dosen," 2005, p. 2). In practice, the Ministry of National Education released decree No. 16/2007 detailing the qualification standards and a set of competencies for being professional teachers in Indonesia. Some important points within the decree in regard to being professionl teachers in Indonesia were that someone must hold, at least, a bachelor's degree in education to be eligible to teach in schools (primary to secondary schools) in Indonesia. The decree also mandates that a professional teacher must have four basic standard competencies; pedagogic, personal, professional, and social competencies (Depdiknas, 2007). These competencies are discussed in more detail later in chapter 7 (see section 7.1).

To be officially recognised as *guru profesional*, the Law mandates that in-service teachers as well as PSTs need to be certified through a teacher certification program, which the Indonesian government has been running since 2006. The certification process is conducted by an official body comprising of the *Lembaga Pendidikan Tenaga Kependidikan (LPTK)*, or universities that run teacher training and education programs. The Faculty of Teachers

Training and Education (FKIP) of Riau University, for example, is one of the appointed LPTKs which has managed the certification process for all school teachers in Riau province, and this provides the context for this current study.

As required by the *Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional/ Permendiknas* (Ministry of National Education Regulation) Number 10/2009, in-service teachers have to follow certain procedures as part of an assessment process before they receive a "professional educator certificate" entitling the holders to among other things, financial incentives and chances of career promotion (Halim, 2011). One of the assessment procedures is that candidates must submit their portfolio of paperwork consisting of – among other things – their academic, teaching, and achievement histories. The assessment team will first assess this portfolio to see if it has met the required standards. Teachers will get the certificate if they pass the portfolio assessment (see *Appendix* 2 to see the detailed points to be assessed in the portfolio assessment). Otherwise, they are required to follow a program of teacher professional development training, called the PLPG/*Pendidikan dan Latihan Profesi Guru* - a 90-hour course to be undertaken by teachers failing the portfolio certification test.

As described by Chang et al. (2014), the 90 hour training focuses on developing both professional (subject) knowledge and pedagogical (methodology) competency. The other two competencies (social and personal) are integrated and assessed continuously throughout the training. The learning process is conducted by using multimedia and follows the tenets of 'creative, joyful, and active learning'. At the end of the training, the teachers' achievement is assessed through a written examination (35 percent), practicum (40 percent), participation and peer teaching (25 percent).

Since 2006 there has been more than 1,327,000 teachers who have passed the certification process and therefore have been officially entitled 'guru profesional' (SekolahDasar.Net, 2013). The government plans to finalise the certification process for all in-service teachers by 2015. At the same time, the certification process for PSTs started in 2013. Unlike the in-service teachers, the certification for these PSTs is conducted through the Program Profesi Guru/PPG (Teachers Professional Program). This is a new program in the teacher education curriculum in Indonesia where students enrolled in a Teachers Training Institution (LPTK)

must have another professional program of one year duration, after completing their bachelor's degree in Education, before they are entitled to get the 'professional teachers certificate'. Only with this certificate are they legally eligible to teach and able to be called 'guru profesional' (see section 2.4.2 for additional details about this PPG program).

Within a few years after implementation, this teachers' certification program has successfully caught the public attention as having seemed to significantly change the perceived social status of teachers in Indonesia. It could be said that the prestige of being a teacher in Indonesia had been revitalised and rejuvenated. This is due to the fact that those certified teachers are now entitled to certain privileges, such as receiving double the monthly salary and other professional incentives from the government compared to teachers who were not yet certified (Maulia, 2008). In other words, this reform in Indonesia's teacher education program, to some extent, has enabled teachers to regain their respected social status.

Some current reports on the effectiveness of the teachers' certification program in relation to improvement in teaching quality, however, indicate that the certification has not effectively improved the standard of education. A report by USAID examining the effectiveness of current teachers training policy programs in Indonesia, for example, indicates that the program has indeed improved the welfare of the certified teachers as well as the number of admissions to teacher training institutions, but not the *quality* of teachers just yet (Evans et al., 2009). Another study by Deere (2012, in Chang et al., 2014) investigating the effects of teacher certification on selected teacher characteristics revealed that improvement in teachers' welfare post-certification did not necessarily make teachers more skilful and knowledgeable. Therefore, it is important for related parties to keep investigating problems in Indonesian education and offer solutions to deal with these quality improvement issues on a continuous basis.

2.4. Pre-service Teacher Education (PTE) in Indonesia

This section starts by providing a brief historical snapshot of pre-service teacher education in Indonesia. It is followed by a description of the teaching practicum program at Riau University – Indonesia, where the data for this study was gathered. Both a historical

description of PTE and the teaching practicum in Riau University are intended to build up a better understanding of the important contexts within which this study is situated.

2.4.1. A Historical Snapshot

Indonesia has undergone quite a long pre-service teacher education history since colonial times to the current reformation era. Putrawan and Akbar (2009) classify this history into five distinctive periods. They are: 1) during the Dutch colonial era; 2) three and half years under Japanese occupation in World War II; 3) after Independence as the Republic of Indonesia was recognised as the 'Old Order' during Soekarno regime, ending in 1965; 4) during the "New Order" of the Soeharto regime; and 5) the era of reformation ('Reformasi'), which started from 1998 after the fall of Suharto, to the present time.

There are specific differences in terms of format, institution, and orientation along the development of teacher education (TE) in each era. The differences are mostly related to the political, cultural and developmental interest of each time. During the Dutch colonial era, for instance, the government established a teacher education school (called *Normaalschool* and *Kweekschool)* to fulfil the need for teachers to teach in a formal school founded by the Dutch colonial authorities in the 19th century. The school itself functioned on a complicated and segregated basis for local people *(pribumi*), Europeans, and other foreigners (Djajadiningrat, in Raihani & Sumintono, 2010). To be more specific, Hadi (2002) outlines how the establishment of teacher education was first conducted by the Netherlands Indies through the 'Zending' (Mission) in Ambon in 1834. It was then continuously spread to other parts of Indonesia. The first 'Kweekschool' was established in Java in 1852. Similar schools, named Fort de Kock were established in Bukit Tinggi in 1856, and in Tapanuli in 1864. In 1871 the government of the Netherlands Indies conducted evening courses in Batavia that operated until 1891.

During the Dutch colonial era, teacher education was considered irrelevant to the culture and social values of Indonesia; it was taught in favour of Dutch colonial culture. The Dutch seemed to exploit this teacher education for their political interests as school teachers were considered to be effective agents to brainwash Indonesians to reduce their nationalistic spirit

(Putrawan & Akbar, 2009, p. 13). Realising this, some *pribumi* established their own schools for teacher education, namely *Taman Siswa* and *Muhammadiya.* These two institutions provided primary education for *pribumi,* and teacher education to meet the needs for *pribumi* teachers (Raihani & Sumintono, 2010).

After Dutch colonialisation ended in 1942, the Japanese took over Indonesia and abolished the Dutch education system. Unlike the Dutch who had marginalised *pribumi* in education, the Japanese gave wider opportunities to *pribumi* to receive an education. The abolishment of the Dutch education system brought advantages to *pribumi* teachers as the *pribumi* had to replace teaching positions left by Dutch teachers during this period. Raihani and Sumintono (2010) describe how many elementary teachers were forced to teach at higher level classes during this time due to a shortage of teachers. It is important to note, however, that both the Dutch and Japanese practiced a centralised system of education and their main intention remained the same - that was to maximise the benefits for themselves as colonial rulers (Poerbakawatja, 1970 in Raihani & Sumintono, 2010).

Hadi (2002) outlines how later during the independence period (1945-1949) teacher training programs were varied and gradually upgraded. This was because of a dramatic increase in student enrolment as well as the rise in the number of schools; so that more teachers were needed, especially for primary schools. Poerbakawatja (1970, in Raihani & Sumintono, 2010) explains that in 1951 there were more than 138.000 primary school teachers needed to accommodate the rise in the number of students that reached five million. Therefore, anyone completing a teacher-training program at the junior secondary level at this period could obtain a teacher's certificate. The government also developed short courses for teaching in many districts in order to enable in-service teachers who held at least six years of basic education to receive a teaching certificate.

Additionally, since the 1960s, as previously mentioned, the Indonesian government established middle and senior high schools for teacher education which were referred to as SGB - *Sekolah Guru B*, SGA - *Sekolah Guru A*, SPG - *Sekolah Pendidikan Guru*, and SGO - *Sekolah Guru Olahraga.* As a result, the teaching profession was restricted to graduates of

senior high schools for teachers in primary schools, and to graduates of a university-level education course for teachers of higher levels.

Raihani and Sumintono (2010) note that despite these programmes being considered successful in terms of producing a large quantity of new primary school teachers in a short period of time, the programs were also deemed to be a failure in terms of preparing new teachers with sufficient academic education levels and the necessary skills to become good teachers. Yet, this period was considered an important era in the history of the teaching profession in Indonesia as it was the time when the profession was open to everyone, regardless of their social class and political backgrounds.

Another challenge for the new Republic was to supply teachers for junior and senior secondary schools. Therefore, starting from 1954, the government established institutions of teacher education at tertiary level in order to address this demand, called IKIP (*Institut Keguran dan Ilmu Pendidikan,* Institute for Teacher Training and Education). The IKIP was first launched in Padang, Bandung, Malang, Surabaya, Semarang, Manado, Jakarta, Yogyakarta, Makasar, and Medan. At the same time, several general universities based in other provinces established education faculties whose programmes were similar to IKIP's, yet smaller in terms of the number of departments (Poerbakawatja, 1970 in Raihani & Sumintono, 2010). The programs offered in these two institutions mainly comprised of two options: either *sarjana penuh* (four year bachelor's degree in education) or *sarjana muda* (three year diploma in education) for teaching at secondary school levels.

After this establishment, both IKIP and FKIP in those universities served as the main institutions supplying the demand for secondary school teachers in Indonesia. This was a significant improvement in terms of meeting teachers' qualifications with a degree from university to be eligible to teach at post primary school levels. These higher education institutions (HEI) that produced teachers in Indonesia are collectively called LPTK *(Lembaga Pendidikan Tenaga Kependidikan,* or teacher training institutions – a generic name for HEI's producing teachers*).* Overall, currently Indonesia has 268 public and private teacher training institutions (Evans et al., 2009).

The progress of the LPTK was also dynamic since they were first established in late 1950s. As Poerbakawatja (1970, in Raihani & Sumintono, 2010) explains, in response to the higher enrolment rates at primary level and the participation rates in secondary school, the government initiated an emergency program for producing Natural Science and Mathematics teachers for junior and senior secondary schools. Instead of increasing the capacity of the existing teacher training institutions, the government assigned seven big universities in Java to run this new program. This program was criticised by many of IKIP's proponents in that the program would not be able to equip PSTs with necessary teaching skills and pedagogies for becoming good teachers. Yet, the program also implied that the government did not really trust the existing IKIPs for their effectiveness in preparing good teachers, especially in the field of natural sciences. This program was, therefore, a starting point for raising issues about changing or reforming the IKIP's curriculum in science and mathematics (Raihani & Sumintono, 2010).

In the late 80's, the Education Law Number 2/1989 brought about significant changes in Indonesia's teacher education programs. The Law required primary school teachers to have a qualification of at least a two year diploma in education, prior to their teaching service. As a result, all previous teacher training programs – *Sekolah Pendidikan Guru, SPG* and *Sekolah Guru Olahraga, SGO* – had to be automatically abolished. At the same time, all in-service primary school teachers (numbering about 800 thousand) were required to attend a two year diploma at their nearest IKIP or FKIP. Alternatively, they could join the same program through the *Universitas Terbuka* (Open University) which ran a long distance learning mode (Raihani & Sumintono, 2010). This policy was shocking to many teachers, however, the rationale behind it was apparent in that primary school teachers needed to upgrade their teaching skills and pedagogies so that the quality of basic education could be improved.

Finally, Indonesia's political shifts in 1998 (and the beginning of the reformation era) also brought about some fundamental changes in the form and content of teacher education institutions. Based on *Peraturan Presiden* (Presidential Decree) No. 93/199, six IKIPs were authorised to transform from Institutes of Teachers Training and Education to Universities of Education (Raihani & Sumintono, 2010). This meant that the new universities of education were given wider mandates to not only educate PSTs, but also prepare students with various

areas of expertise in addition to being teachers such as being interpreters, translators, language researchers, tour guides, and many other non-teaching roles (Hadi, 2002). Some previous IKIPs changed their names into universities. After the policy, the former teacher education institutes did not only prepare bachelor's degrees in education (S*arjana Pendidikan*), but also bachelor's degrees in science, art, engineering, and other disciplines.

2.4.2. The Teaching Practicum at Riau University

Riau University, the setting of this study, is one of the largest public universities in the Indonesian province of Riau. It was first established in 1962 and managed under the Ministry of National Education and Culture. Currently it has more than 29,440 students in nine different faculties and one school, and runs more than 50 undergraduate degrees and 12 postgraduate programs (Riau, 2014). Here, the pre-service teacher education program is an undergraduate course run by the university's Faculty of Teachers Training and Education (FKIP). The average duration of the program is four years of full time study. The coursework includes subject matter knowledge, pedagogy (general and specific), methods courses, and practical experience.

To be eligible studying at a teacher training program, candidates must pass a Joint University Entrance Test or what is now known as *Seleksi Bersama Masuk Perguruan Tinggi Negeri/*SBMPTN. The test is administered by a joint team involving all state universities across Indonesia. All high school graduates can follow this test. They can apply to study at any particular department they want for their bachelor degree program. With an exception of different questions for taking social science or natural science stream, there are no specific differences in terms of test contents for these candidates who actually have different study options. What makes it different latter is their test results. Those with a higher result may pass in more popular departments, such as in medical, accounting, and engineering as well as teacher training. Others with lower grade might pass in less competitive subjects, such as physical education or non-formal education (see *Appendix* 14 for list of most popular departments based on University Entrance Test of Riau University – 2012)

After four year intensive course, the graduates are awarded a Bachelor in Education or *Sarjana Pendidikan* (S.Pd) which entitles them to teach in both primary and secondary

schools in Indonesia upon graduation, provided they undertake the post-graduate professional training program mentioned above. That is, beginning from 2009 those who already hold an S1 degree (Bachelor's in Education) are required to undergo another two semesters of professional training and must pass a certification exam in order to be a registered and certified teacher with the professional teacher's certificate. This one-year professional post-baccalaureate program is called the *Pendidikan Profesi Guru/ PPG* (Professional Teacher Education). The PPG is an important innovation in the education system in Indonesia. Within this one year long program, universities offer subject matter courses with different orientations – one version with a pedagogical and methodological orientation and one without. Since 2013, this PPG program has been running in some accredited universities in Indonesia. PPG alumni receive certificates as professional teachers to teach at various levels.

The Indonesian Ministry of National Education Regulation/Permendiknas No. 87/2013 on PPG describes that the curriculum structure of the PPG comprises of a series of workshops on learning materials development, practice teaching through micro and peer teaching, a field experience program (PPL or teaching practicum), and some enrichment programs for each specific subject specialisation. The teaching practicum itself is intensive under constant supervision from university lecturers and school teacher mentors for a period of one semester (Kemendikbud, 2013).

In the context of this study, however, the participants are not those who undergo the aforementioned PPG. Rather, this study is situated in the 'old school based practicum' system undertaken by pre-service English teachers from the 'ordinary' S1 degree program (before the PPG policy). As commonly practiced in a pre-service teacher education program in Indonesia, the teaching practicum is part of the pre-service teacher education curriculum. The course is normally designed for four years program. It contains several specific courses ranging from developing pre-service teachers' English skills to preparing them with teaching and research skills. The practicum is usually completed by the end of the last semester of the four year program, before the PSTs write their minor thesis project (see Table 3). In addition to these English specific courses, the PSTs are also required to take several general courses, like Bahasa Indonesia, Religious Education, and Civic Education during their first year (see

Appendix 3 for detail structure of the curriculum).

Table 3. Curriculum structure of pre-service English teacher education at Riau University

Year 1		Year 2		Year 3		Year 4	
Semester 1	Semester 2	Semester 3	Semester 4	Semester 5	Semester 6	**Semester 7**	Semester 8
Unit Part 1	Unit Part 2	Unit Part 3	Unit Part 4	Unit Part 5	Unit Part 6 (including **Micro Teaching**)	**Teaching Practicum (16 weeks)**	Thesis Writing
English Skills Courses	English Skills Courses	English Skill Courses	Linguistic and Literature Courses	Linguistic and Literature Courses	Research and Professional Teaching Skill Courses		

.

There are two kinds of teaching practicum in the curriculum of the teachers education program in Riau University: a campus based micro-teaching class and a school based teaching practicum. The micro-teaching is conducted for one semester before the PSTs embark on their school based teaching practicum, and generally involves planning and teaching a short lesson or part of lesson to a group of fellow PSTs. The lesson is followed by feedback on the teaching by a supervisor or university lecturer and by the fellow PSTs. This study is not situated within the campus based micro-teaching, however. It focuses on the school based teaching practicum where the PSTs enact their theories during teacher education program in a real school atmosphere.

The school based practicum program was originally called the *Program Pengalaman Lapangan* (Field Experience Program/PPL). However, the term 'teaching practicum' is being used to refer to the PPL program throughout this thesis. It can be said that the teaching practicum program at Riau University still adopts the traditional model of a practicum (Cornu & Ewing, 2008), because it functions mainly as a place for PSTs to put their newly acquired knowledge from their studies at university into practice, during their practicum at schools. The 'traditional' view of professional experience is reflected in the term used to describe it: *teaching practicum*. The process of learning to teach was theorised using a theory–practice dichotomy. That is, "when student teachers were at college or university they learnt 'the theory' and when they were in schools, they 'practised teaching'" (Cornu & Ewing, 2008, p.

1801). The focus of this traditional orientation was firmly on PSTs mastering skills, techniques and methods of teaching.

This traditional orientation is also reflected in the aims of the teaching practicum mentioned in the *Guidance Book for Field Experience Program* (*Panduan Pelaksanaan PPL Mahasiswa FKIP Universitas Riau* 2013). The school based practicum program can be seen as an 'estuary' of the full teaching and learning process during the university teacher education program - it is as a place where theory is enacted and translated into real practice. Through the program, however, the students are not only expected to experience real modes of teaching experience, but also to be able to socialise with the school environment, as well as to be able to negotiate the meaning of becoming professional (English) teachers within the school environment as a community of practice.

At Riau University, this program is intended for all students registered in the Faculty of Teacher's Training and Education (FKIP) who have met certain requirements. Two important requirements to join the program are: *first*, the students must have passed certain prerequisite units, like the *Teaching Methodology* and *Micro Teaching* subjects; *second*, the students must have achieved at least 110 credit hours of classes out of 148 credit hours required in their bachelor's degree in education (UPPL, 2007). These students in the practicum are usually those who are in their final year of their teacher-training program.

Eligible students are placed in senior and junior high schools either located in the city of Pekanbaru or out of the city but within Riau province. The students are distributed on the basis of their preferences as well as considering the needs of particular schools. Once the students have been placed into certain schools, a university advisor and a mentor teacher are assigned to students by the university. The schools' principals are then contacted by the university to organise when they are to receive student-teachers in their schools. The 10 participants of this study were all pre-service teachers who conducted their practicum when data of this study were gathered (see section 5.2 for recruitment of the participants).

The practicum is scheduled for one semester (effectively a period of 16 weeks) where the student teachers are obliged to conduct certain activities in order to fulfill the practicum

requirements. As mentioned before, they are expected not only to deliver lessons in classrooms, but also participate in other school activities, like attending the morning flag ceremony, being on duty, being involved at students' extracurricular activities, and even helping with office work in the administration office. The main goal of these activities is to enable the student-teachers to engage with the school community in a context which would later strengthen and enrich their experiences in becoming novice-teachers. Therefore, they work not only with their assigned mentor teachers, but also with students, other teachers, school administrators, and students' parents.

At the end of the 16 weeks, students undertake a formal assessment from the university advisor. The assessment includes, among other requirements, a teaching practice test, where the PSTs perform in front of the class, delivering a lesson like in a real classroom. The final criterion for assessment is based not just on the students' performance, but also on their teaching preparation reflected from their teaching plan documents (e.g., lesson plan, or media). In addition, the PSTs are also required to write teaching practicum reports of up to 5,000 words comprising of accounts of all activities they have done during the practicum experience (UPPL, 2007). This report is also considered by lecturers and mentors as one aspect of their final teaching practicum score.

2.5. Chapter Summary

This chapter has contextualised this study through presenting the broader picture of the Indonesian education system beginning from overviewing the system, outlining the history of ELT in Indonesia, exploring curriculum changes, and explaining more specific issues, like the teaching practicum in Riau University, Indonesia. These descriptions are expected to facilitate a clearer understanding on the specifics of this study as well as introduce the topics covered in the later chapters of this thesis.

Central in this chapter is the concern that a wide range of problems within ELT remains relatively the same, although the Indonesian government kept changing or revising the curriculum several times in the last 60 years. It appears that ELT curriculum changes did not really result in significant improvements in the quality of ELT in Indonesia. This contextual chapter has also described how the government has so far realised that working with teachers

is highly important for mitigating prolonged educational problems. This chapter therefore addressed how the Indonesian government has attempted to improve the quality of education through various reform agendas including the improvement of quality of teaching through teacher training programs in which the practicum experience is a crucial part.

It is hoped this chapter will provide readers with a better understanding of the data reported in chapters 6, 7, and 8. These later chapters relate to participants' narratives about their personal journeys to and on the English teaching profession considering broader socio, cultural, and political contexts as outline above. Finally this chapter discussed how such contexts could contribute to the shaping and reshaping of PSTs' professional identities, especially in terms of their understanding of the concept of a 'professional English teacher' and what it means to be an English teacher, a theme elaborated in Chapter 7.

III. PROBLEMATISING PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY

"I don't feel that it is necessary to know exactly what I am. The main interest in life and work is to become someone else that you were not in the beginning. If you knew when you began a book what you would say at the end, do you think that you would have the courage to write it?"

(Michel Foucault, in Danielewicz, 2001, p. vi)

This and the next chapter establish the epistemological framework that underpins this project, by critically reviewing concepts related to teacher identity and how (pre-service) teachers construct professional identity as understood in existing academic literature. Such a review will provide a critical framework for understanding some of the key notions within this study, such as the concept of identity, the professional identity of teachers, identity construction, PSTs' professional development, identity in transition, and the teaching practicum as *a site of struggle* and as a *community of practice*.

In this particular chapter, the concept of identity in general is discussed and the nature of its construction is explored. I then specifically problematise the concept of *teachers'* professional identity and how this is constructed. The notion of a 'professional English teacher' is further problematised after that. This is followed by a review of the notion of personal and institutional biography in teachers' identity construction, as well as related concepts which I consider important in consituting the notion of teachers' professional identity, such as teachers' beliefs about the *professional English teacher* as well as their motivation to be teachers.

3.1. The Nature of Identity and Its Construction

Identity is a complex and multifaceted notion. It can never be fully named or comprehensively defined by anyone, including by the person who bears it (Palmer, 1998). This complexity leads researchers from different fields of study to come up with subtly different but related ideas in conceptualising what the nature of identity is. From its broadest perspective, a core issue which is usually addressed in defining identity concerns with the fundamental questions 'who am I?' or 'who are you?' Danielewicz (2001, p. 4), for example, defines identity as "our understanding of who we are and of who we think other people are".

This definition implies that identity is concerned with how individuals identify themselves (self-perception) and how others define them (perception by others).

Gee (1999, as cited in Smith, 2009) further conceptualises identity as our understanding of ourselves as a person and our membership of familial, social, cultural, and institutional 'groups'. Nevertheless, our understanding of *who we are* will not be exlusively based on the unique dimension of a personal *self*, as the definition can not be separated from how the external world defines who we are. To put it in Holland's perspective, "identity is a concept that figuratively combines the intimate or the personal world with the collective space of cultural forms and social relations" (1998, p. 5). This definition stresses the combination of both personal and social influences in conceptualising identity.

The nature of identity not only relates to the personal dimension of the *self*, but also to acting as a response to an external influence from another individual or from groups. As Danielewicz (2001, p. 11) maintains, "individuals are constituted subjects; their identities are produced through participation in discourse." It is important to bear in mind that discourse in this study does not only refer to explicit language used as an element of social life, but also to the *state of silence* in which speech or utterance is absent (Sendbuehler, 1994). Thus, the voicelessness shown by PSTs as a result of power imbalance between the PSTs and their mentor teachers during practicum, for instance, plays a part of discourse which shapes their identity (see section 8.1.2.2). Drawing on Foucaults' notion of silence as discourse, Sendbuehler (1994) argues that silence occupies a space even more massive than intertextuality does, because of the limitlessness and endlessness of silence and all that silence can suggest.

Identities can be seen as the result of dynamic interplay between discursive processes that are internal (to the individual) and external (involving everyone else). This external domain essentially entails a more social perspective of identity construction. The personal and the social dimensions of identity then become inseparable. Therefore, studying identity is basically examining *who the self is* and *how that self interacts* with surrounding worlds and realities; identity is thus subject to experiences and sociocultural encounters (Beijaard et al., 2004; Britzman, 2003; Holland et al., 1998; Olsen, 2008)

In the same vein, Lemke (2008, p. 19) reminds us of the complexity of understanding the meaning of 'who we are', because this understanding 'changes with interactants and settings'. He classifies the notion of identity into two distinctive terms; *subjective* as opposed to *projected* identities. While the former represents notions of who 'we are to ourselves'; the latter entails 'who we wish to seem to others'. In other words, the idea is that 'the self' does not exist in isolation but rather it exists in relation to others.

Scholars in the field of sociology and socio-psychology (such as Cooley, 1964; Mead, 1934; and Blumer, 1969 in Holstein & Gubrium, 2000) explain that self and identity construction is not only a result of internal communication with the inner self (internalisation), but also a result of external conversations in interacting with the environment. It could therefore be said that our selves are the virtual reflection of our social participation. "Social life meant constant commerce with others. As society's members interacted, they took others into account. Through the process, they developed a sense of who they were from how others responded to them; *individual* selves arose out of the *social"* (Holstein & Gubrium, 2000, p. 4).

In the same vein, other social psychologists like Tajfel (1978) and Hall (2004) also stress the importance of others in the construction of one's identity. Yet, they highlight the notion that identity is not only constructed and constantly evolving as individuals participate in social life, but it is also shaped as individuals act as members of a group. In his social identity theory, Tajfel (1978) argued that people build their own identities from group memberships. In other words, part of *who you are* is probably defined and shaped by the nature of the groups you belong to. At the same time, the nature of your group memberships will partly define who you are – your identity. In other words, the social values attached to a group contribute to the 'self-definition' of individuals who are members (Tajfel, 1978, p. 61).

This understanding is commonly applied in social science where the term identity is often used to describe a person's conception and expression of their individuality or group affiliations. Identity refers to the unique characteristics belonging to any given individual, or shared by all members of a particular social category or group (Rummens, 1993 as cited in Naz, Khan, Hussain, & Daraz, 2011). These particular characters function as distinctive

features which differentiate one particular individual from other individual(s) or groups. The emphasis on the distinctive features in defining the notion of identity further leads us to recognise some some kinds of identities which can be differentiated and claimed according to varying socio-cultural categories, including gender, age, race, occupation, gangs, socio-economic status, ethnicity, class, nation states, or regional territory (Bamberg, 2010). Based on these categories, we are then familiar with terms commonly used in literature on identity, such as national identity, ethnic identity, religious identity, and professional identity.

These categorisations subsequently bring about the conceptualisation of *collective identities;* that is when an individual identifies themselves with a particular group and builds up a sense of group membership (Tajfel, 1978) or having a *sense of belonging* to that particular group or community (Wenger, 1998). For example, the PSTs in this study were considered individuals who were struggling to belong to the teachers' community during their teaching practicum. (their complex process of identity (trans)formation from being university students to becoming new English teachers is discussed in more detail in Chapter 8.)

Yet, individuals might also belong to several groups at the same time. They might also experience different levels of affiliation and alignment with the groups they belong to depending on the context (Lemke, 2008). For this reason, some researchers of identity (e.g., Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009; Beijaard et al., 2004; Duff & Uchida, 1997) highlight that one of the underlying tenets in conceptualising identity is that identity is *multiple, shifting, always in conflict, and relational to context*.

Considering these characteristics of identity, Trinh Minh-ha (1992, as cited in Holstein & Gubrium, 2000, p. 105) suggests, "the question of identity is moving away from traditional queries (such as) *who am I* to progressively becoming questions of *when, where,* and *how* am I". If the former emphasises the conceptualising of identity from a self-internalisation perspective, the later indicates that identity is indeed relational to contexts. The numerous contexts of our lives interrupt us with multiple social identities we are attributed to, which provide "endless possibilities for who we are and what we can be" (Holstein & Gubrium, 2000, p. 3 as cited in Chowdhury, 2008). This means that someone could have multiple identities at the same time. A woman working as a school English teacher, for example, is not

only holding an identity as a teacher, but is likely also playing the roles of her other identities – being a mother to her children, a daughter to her parents, a leader to her community association, or a friend for her fellow teachers – depending on the context. Therefore, our roles and personalities may also correspond to those identities with various settings and different people interacting. Our affiliation with broader social structures and cultures may also be part of this. As a result of these processes, identity is constructed, shaped, or transformed.

This also means that identity is not a fixed, stable and coherent matter but rather one involving "a site of struggle, and subject to change" (Peirce, 1995, p. 14). To set this against Hall's definition, "identity is not something already accomplished, it is a 'production' which is never complete" (1990, p. 222). One's identity, therefore, is constantly in a state of flux and dependent on the relationships and situations in which he or she is a part (Grow, 2011). In other words, one may experience a change in his or her identity due to their relationship with others including one's relations to the world and environment, language and practice that can continuously impact on the changing, shaping and reshaping of one's identity (Weedon, 1997 as cited in Basalama, 2010).

New teachers learning to teach English, for example, are immersed in university courses and take part in school placements where they learn from their mentor teachers during the teaching practicum experience. They must rationalise these experiences from various structured worlds as they seek to author their own identity as English teachers. For example they must consider how they learn to understand English in their schooling experience along with how their university coursework explains how to learn English, and negotiate or make these notions compatible with what happens in their practicum experience (Olsen, 2008). In the case of this study, the nature of the PSTs' relationship with their mentor teachers and their school students during practicum also has the potential to change their emerging identities, as we will see in chapter 8 (section 8.1.3).

Specific to the notion of how identity is constructed, my study has drawn on a socio-constructivist perspective which views identity as a socially and culturally constructed self concept that is formed in teachers by their lived experiences and by talking about these

experiences with oneself (inner speech) and with others (Holland et al. 1998 in Swennen, Volman, & Essen, 2008) or shaped during the process of interpretation and re-interpretation of experiences (Kerby, 1991 as cited in Beijaard et al., 2004). Thus, in the context of this study, every interpretation made by PSTs of their past life experience, their university coursework, their classroom and school experiences, and any social relations they encounter during their teacher education and practicum program, all contribute in shaping and reshaping their identity as 'new teachers'.

Consistent with the socio cultural perpective, identity in this study is also seen as something that develops as a result of *becoming* members of a community. This is built on the notion of *community of practice* (CoP) by Wenger (1998) in which it is argued that we fundamentally define 'who we are' in terms of how we relate to other members of a group and how we negotiate our participation within this community (this notion of a CoP is elaborated on in more detail in section 4.1.1). Therefore, the PSTs' complex process of becoming members of a teachers' community where they experience their teaching practice is seen as part of their identity construction process.

As summarised by Smith (2006, p. 149), identity is characterised by Wenger as "a constant becoming" that defines who we are by

> ...the ways we participate and reify our selves; our community membership; our learning trajectories (where we have been and where we are going); reconciling our membership in a number of communities into one identity; and negotiating local ways of belonging with broader, more global discourse communities.

In this study, the preservice teachers' identity construction is assessed in terms of how they participate and interact with other members of school community (such as their students, mentor teachers, school principal, and fellow PSTs). Their identity construction is also investigated in terms of how they gain their sense of community membership within the school community during their teaching practicum, as discussed later in Chapter 8.

3.2. The Storied Self: Identity as Narration

Considering the notion that identity is formed during life by taking into account these experiences with oneself and others, this study deliberately looks into narratives as an important tool of identity construction. This is drawn from Holstein and Gubrium's (2000, p. 3) proposition that "our lives are storied. Not only is there a story of the self, but it's been said that the self, itself, is narratively constructed". Our social self is constructed by the everyday technologies (both discursive practice and discourses-in-practice) through which the self is articulated, constructed, embodied, and mediated.

According to Taylor (2008), the basic principle underlying such narrative-based construction identity is that the self is a story that people tell themselves about themselves, and identity is a story that is told about the self to others. So, constructing identities involves constant 'story telling' and narration (as well as dialogue) with oneself and with outsiders. The importance of narrative in identity construction was rooted in the notion of *narrative psychology* coined by Sarbin (1986) which argues "that we live in a story-shaped world; that our lives are guided by a narratory principle" (Sarbin, 2003, p. 23 as cited in Bamberg, 2010). This means that we are familiar with telling the story of our daily experience in a narrative fashion through a string of words. The stories are generally understood as a sequence of interaction involving elements of the past, present, and still to be realised future. Although not every string of words constitutes narratives, we could say that the words uttered when we recall stories of an occasion in which we participated, for instance, actually trying to articulate a sense of identity at the same time (Yancy & Hadley, 2005).

Hence, the social processes through which subjectivity is produced and practiced are actively documented in narratives. These processes are exposed as socially elaborated and institutionally mediated. In other words, the roles of narratives, stories, conversations, and the material world are active in the constructions of the self. Within this framework, the spaces and resources offered by organisational and institutional settings are also considered important in constructing the self and identity.

Furthermore, McAdams (2006, as cited in Bamberg, 2010), building on narrative theorists such as Sarbin (1986) and Bruner (1986), turned the theory of selves plotting themselves (in

and across time) into a life-story model of identity. His notion clearly states that life stories are more than synopses of past events and episodes. Instead, they have *defining* characters: "our narrative identities are the stories we live by" (McAdams, Josselson, & Lieblich, 2006, p. 4 as cited in Bamberg, 2010). This suggests that we are the stories we tell, meaning that people develop a sense of self through the formation of personal myths. This theory challenges the old-fashioned view that selves and personalities are shaped by fixed characteristics or by predictable stages through which every individual navigates. It allows us to develop and revise our stories and open up new likelihoods for our lives.

In the context of this study, the *storied self* (Chase, 2005) is jointly constructed between the researcher and participants in a way that reveals how PSTs' personal and professional identities struggle and interact with discursive environments during the practicum in order to construct and reconstruct their new identities as English teachers. For this reason, interviews, group discussion, and reflective journals are considered to be relevant methods of data gathering employed in this study (see section 5.4 for detailed justification).

Because narrative identity is subject to reconsideration, and because present events are being understood as relational to the past, and sometimes the future, memory plays a significant role in this narrative based identity construction. It is apparent that memory cannot be always accurate over time. People tend to remember selectively, and recall with an 'afterwardness', from a point of 'knowing what we know now' which inevitably distorts what is remembered (King, 2000). The concept of the narrative identity, therefore, is not based on a retrospective collection of 'true' and accurate facts, but is composed from an individual's recall, construction and understanding of sequences of selected events.

3.3. Teachers' Professional Identity

This section discusses one of the central concepts of this study - teachers' professional identity, how existing literature has understood and constructed the notion of teachers' professional identity, and why it has emerged as an important focus of research within the area of teacher education. This discussion provides a framework for understanding the key concept of this study, by looking at the various ways in which professional identity forms,

develops, and manifests in the participants of this study as will be shown in Chapters 6, 7, and 8.

3.3.1. Operationalising the Terms

Given the importance of professional identity for teachers' learning and professional development (see section 3.3.2), pre-service teacher education programs need to nurture the development of teacher identity as early as possible. However, defining what constitutes teachers' professional identity is not simple, because as discussed earlier, identity by nature is a problematic and complex notion (Walshaw, 2009). This complexity stems from the somewhat arbitrary connection between identity and self, and the unclear distinction between personal and professional identity. What does appear to be common in the literature is the existence of the notion of 'self' in relation to the concept of teachers' professional identity.

A systematic review of previous studies on teachers' professional identity by Beijard, et al., (2004) also shows that definition of this notion across various studies was unclear and varied; and that the term is used in different ways in the literature. Some studies define it as the teachers' senses or perceptions of their roles or relevant features of their professions, while others define it simply as *stories to live by* (McAdams, 1997 my italics) from which teachers draw and make sense of themselves and their practices (see section 3.2). Still others view it as an ongoing process of integration of the 'personal' and 'professional' sides of becoming and being a teacher. As West (in Norton, 1997) argues that the question 'who am I?' cannot be separated from the question 'what can I do?'. If the earlier question – *who am I* – relates to the personal dimension of identity, the later question – *what can I do* – depicts its professional dimension. Considering this definition, the research questions of this study do not only explore how the PSTs describe the notion of a '*professional English teacher'* and 'good English teaching', but also what skills and knowledge are learnt from the teaching practicum program as perceived by the PSTs (see section 1.3).

In addition, a review of 20 articles examining existing higher education literature on the development of professional identities by Swennen, et al., (2008) argue that professional identity is a set of attributes that are imposed upon the teaching profession either by outsiders or by members of the teaching community itself. Swennen, et al., (2008, p. 7) further assert that the shared set of attributes and values teachers hold would enable "the differentiation of one group from another". This definition implies that professional identity relates to the notion of 'similarity and difference' compared to other professions, and its construction and development are subject to teachers' internal and external contextual factors.

In the context of this study, I consider that a broad definition by Benveniste (1987, as cited in Slay & Smith, 2011) is applicable for this study, as it views professional identity as the constellation of attributes, beliefs, and values people use to define themselves in specialised, skill- and education-based occupations or vocations. Yet, it is argued that these attributes, beliefs, and values are not only defined and determined by the members of the profession itself, but also imposed upon socio political structures. The emphasis on the socio-political factor has enriched the model suggested by Olsen (2008) who argues that the formation teachers' professional identity is constructed as a result of certain inter-related factors, such as their childhood and schooling experience, their teacher education experience, as well as the influence of significant others (see section 1.3). In the case of teachers' professional identity, the cultural expectation from society around what it means to be a good teacher and competency standards of professional teachers released by the Indonesian government are considered part of teachers' professional identity imposed by the external world (outside of the teachers' own lives).

Other researchers (e.g. Bullogh, 1997 as cited in Chong, Low, & Goh, 2011; Uusimaki, 2009) define a teacher's professional identity as what a beginning teacher believes or perceives about teaching and learning, and their unique sense of self as a teacher. It is also understood as stemming partly from teachers' understanding of the meaning of the role of a teacher. The meaning of being a teacher can be generally exposed by what constitutes the visible and invisible domains of teaching work and life (Castañeda, 2011). While the former includes *what teachers do* (for instance, classroom interaction, assessment, materials presentation, materials design, or task implementation) as well as *what they can do* (Norton, 1997, my

italic), the latter involves more personal phenomena such as motivation, cognition, beliefs, expectations, or emotions. Thus, professional identity is more individually grounded within the self and will involve perceptions, feelings, and core beliefs of what it is to be a teacher, with all of these are understood to be continuously evolving in the course of one's experiences (Chong, Ling, et al., 2011).

Yet another important element in the professional identity of teachers is related to a teacher's understanding of professional practice. This relates to the understanding of what roles teachers are *expected* to play, what skills and knowledge they should have, and what attributes, values, and roles they are supposed to hold as teachers (Avalos, 2007; Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009; Cattley, 2007; Cheung, 2008). In relation to this view, other authors (like Beijaard et al., 2000) look at identity in terms of the professional knowledge teachers need to possess and act on: subject matter knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and didactical knowledge.

In terms of its construction, as previously discussed, professional identity develops over time, and includes gaining insights of the professional practices, values, skills, and knowledge required or practiced within the teaching profession. The PSTs' past and present experiences as well as their experiences with their own educational experiences influence the choices made by the PSTs in electing to enter the teaching profession (Connelly & Clandinin, 1999 in Chong, Ling, et al., 2011; Feiman-Nemser, 2001). Therefore, PSTs' biographies and their motivation to be a teacher are considered an important variable in exploring PSTs' professional identity construction in this study (see sections 6.1 and 6.2 for further discussion).

In addition, Britzman (2003) sees teacher identity as being a dialogue between individual identity and social experience, and asserts that it is in this dialogue that the meanings of lived experience are named and negotiated. She emphasises the process of dialogue and the negotation teachers do to make sense of their experience during their interaction with their surrounding worlds. It is through this constant dialogue and negotiation of meaning, that teachers shape their identity. These two domains appear to be central in the longstanding debate conceptualising identity as an internal (the self) or external (social) phenomenon, as briefly explored in the previous section.

In this study, the teaching practicum is considered an important context from which interpretations are based. Other socio-political contexts (which might include the current status of English within Indonesian society, the latest policies in Indonesian education such as the teachers certification program with its incentive scheme, or society's expectations and images of teachers) could also be said to be influential macro contexts within which teachers' identities are developed, nurtured and consolidated (see also Figure 6).

Referring to Korthagen's (2004) Onion Model, which is later described in detailed in Figure 3, such macro contexts could be placed within the outside level of the onion. They represent an environment which could influence the inner levels depicted in the model. The teachers' certification program with its teachers' incentive scheme (remuneration), for example, could influence the teachers' behaviours. It is assumed that the incentive scheme could improve teachers' motivation in teaching and subsequently have an impact on the effectiveness of the teaching and learning process (Jalal et al., 2009).

Having looked at and considered the multidimensional elements of the professional identity of teachers, in this study professional identity of teachers can be roughly conceptualised as:

- pre-service English teachers' understanding on what it means to be an English teacher;
- their understanding of what competencies, characteristics, values, and roles they are supposed to hold and play as teachers; and
- their conceptualisations of 'good English teaching' and the 'professional English teacher' in Indonesia, which the PSTs continously construct and reconstruct through their interaction with environment.

This study will refer to and focus on, although not exclusively, this definition in discussing theories of professional identity. Consistent with the framework as previously discussed, the PST's understanding on these there elements were built up as the result of inter-related factors following Olsen's (2008) argument, including the socio-political factor as proposed by Benveniste (1987) and Korthagen (2004). I am aware that this definition is not fully comprehensive, yet this project is limited by its scope to focusing on, among other things,

exploring specific elements of professional identity – how it is constructed, reconstructed, and manifested within PSTs *during* the practicum.

3.3.2. Why Does It Matter?

Within the field of teacher education, the professional identity of teachers has become an emerging area of research in the last two decades driven by an understanding that teachers' identity is an important factor in teachers' professional development (see Cattley, 2007; Kagan, 1992; Schepens et al., 2009; Sutherland et al., 2006). Previous research has shown that teachers' sense of professional identity affects their senses of purpose, self-efficacy, level of motivation, level of commitment, job satisfaction and effectiveness, as well as their teaching behaviours (e.g., Beijaard et al., 2004; Canrinus et al., 2011; Chong, Low, et al., 2011). These studies also indicated that the provision of a strong sense of professional identity is central for teachers' professional learning and development.

According to Beijaard et al. (2004), professional identity is believed to vigorously influence the way teachers teach, how they develop as professionals with the resources they have available to them, and the potential that individuals have to inspire and or affect educational changes. Given the importance of this identity, it is important for those involved in the education of PSTs to be aware of this issue and provide programs which nurture the construction of PSTs' professional identity as early as possible. Needless to say, in the long run professional identity also affects teacher's performance and learning outcomes.

Considering the importance of understanding teachers' profesional identity, Danielewicz (2001, p. 3) argues that "if we need teachers who effectively educate (a fundamental requirement for any optimism about the future), then we need to know how the best teachers have become themselves". This is due to the belief that teachers are the main players who stand in the frontline to determine the success of teaching, including ELT, in the field. Further emphasis is stipulated on what makes someone a good teacher, which "is not methodology, or even ideology. It requires engagement with identity, the way individuals conceive of themselves, so that teaching is a state of being, not merely ways of acting or behaving" (Danielewicz, 2001, p. 3).

In the same vein, Alsup (2006, p. 15) also believes that, in order to become successful teachers, pre-service teachers must develop a holistic understanding of their personal and professional identities and the intersections and contradictions among them. Such understandings can be achieved "through the expression of borderland discourse that facilitates the critical interrogation of conflicting subject positions or expressions of self, which can be primarily emotional, physical, intellectual, or even spiritual." Because of the importance of this topic, current research on teachers' identity formation has not only been conducted in the area of language teacher education (such as Farrell, 2001; Kuswandono, 2013; Trent, 2012), but also in other subjects, like in Science and Math teacher education (Gilmore, Hurst, & Maher, 2009; Grootenboer, 2005; T. Smith, 2006), Health and Physical education (Fletcher, 2011; Taylor, 2008), or in the context of higher education (see a review by Trede et al., 2011)

Furthermore, in answering the question of what makes a 'good teacher', Korthagen's (2004) Onion Model of Change in Figure 3 below explains the relationship among teachers' identities and their beliefs, competencies, and teaching behaviours:

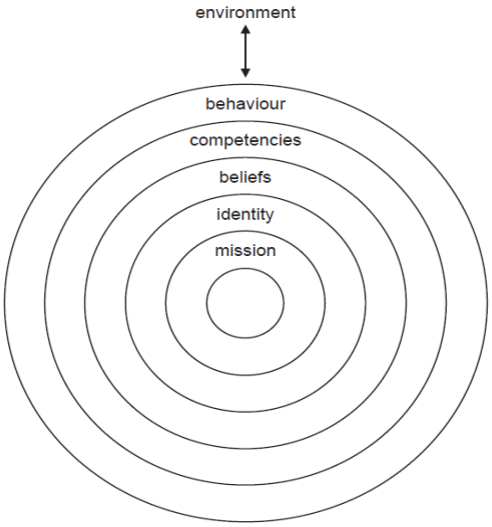


Figure 3. The Onion: a model of level of change, adopted from Korthagen (2004, p. 80)

An important assumption behind this model is that the outer levels can influence the inner levels: the environment can influence a teacher's behaviour, and through behaviour that is repeated often enough, one develops the competency to also use it in other circumstances. A reverse influence, however, also exists, where the influence comes *from the inside to the outside*. For example, one's behaviour can have an impact on the environment, and one's competencies determine the behaviour one is able to show. To put this in Palmer's (1998, p. 2) words, "teaching, like any truly human activity, emerges from one's inwardness, for better or worse". From an inner level perspective, the most central influences come from the teachers' mission and their identities. Therefore, those with a strong personal calling to be a teacher would be more likely to have a stronger sense of identity as a teacher, and are more likely to develop into competent teachers.

From the Onion Model's perspective, it should be kept in mind that PST education can not only work on outer levels (*ways of acting or behaving* in Danielwicz's perspective) to ensure a qualified teacher has certain competencies and behaviours, but it should also deal with their identity construction (*a state of being)* as it takes place during teacher training, which is what this study explores. This is not to say that the inner level is more important than the outer one: both are equally important in the context of becoming a good teacher. However, the inner level issues to do with teachers' identity have so far been under-researched (Korthagen, 2004).

Although there are several studies which have been conducted about personal identity and teachers' professional identity in many parts of the world, to date research on this topic has not been sufficiently addressed by Indonesian researchers (the following are the exceptions, Basalama, 2010; Kuswandono, 2013; Soekirno, 2004). Kuswandono (2013) investigates the professional identity construction of 13 PSTs from Guru University. The focus of his study is how those PSTs understood their own identity as prospective teachers and the ways they interpreted and made meaning of their learning and experiences through their reflections. To provide alternative perspectives of the PSTs' experiences, Kuswandono's study also investigated the views and beliefs about PST education among six university mentors and seven supervising teachers who worked with the PSTs during their practicum experiences.

Kuswandono collected and recorded their reflections while the students were studying in the practicum courses offered on campus by the Guru University ('Practice Teaching 1/PT1') and during the practicum teaching experiences of the PSTs in school settings ('Practice Teaching 2/PT2'). Although the study did not exclusively focus on the PSTs' construction of professional identity, it suggests that the identities which the PSTs were constructing were complex and multidimensional, stemming from their different motivations for studying at an English education department. The study also confirmed that PST's knowledge and identity are constructed within a hegemonic and standardised education system in an Indonesian context. Many PSTs reported that they wanted to resist this hegemony and negotiate an alternative way of teaching, although they often felt powerless considering their status as *praktikans* (practicing teachers).

Although not investigating PSTs, the qualitative study by Basalama (2010) of professional formation of identity and practice (through interviewing 20 high school English teachers from six urban and rural high schools in Gorontalo Province) could also be categorised as research on teachers' identity construction. Her study reveals that the nature of teachers' identity through their two pre-service learning stages in high school and teacher training college is dynamic and changing over time and this does have an impact on their identities as professionals. The study corraborates that teachers' identities are not context-free. They are closely related to the social and cultural contexts in which they live and work. Basalama also found that the teachers' decisions to choose English in their pre-service teacher education were primarily motivated by an aspiration to gain a government civil service position. Parents and other significant others played a critical role in the participants' university and career choices, with personal preferences generally being overridden by family desires and needs.

Another earlier study was a narrative inquiry by Soekirno (2004) recounting her own story of how Islamic values, the Javanese social context, education experiences, and a non-teaching previous job strongly influenced and shaped her in becoming a teacher and shaped her views of teaching. She demonstrated in her narrative how childhood experiences (such as when she was amazed with some English words scattered throughout her life, like 'noodle', 'instant', or 'biscuit') made her think of English and later helped her decide to be an English teacher.

Sokeirno's study confirms that one's life experiences indeed play an important factor which partially shapes a teacher's professional identity.

Considering the importance of studies of teachers' professional identity and the scarcity of literature about this field in Indonesia, more research focusing on teachers as professionals is deemed to be crucial to fill in the gap in research on this topic in an Indonesian context. In fact, in recent years the Indonesian education system has been seriously dealing with issues around the low quality of education, poor student achievement and the low standard of teachers' performance, as discussed in the previous chapter. Again, alternative research focusing on *teachers as a person* is considered timely and important in Indonesia.

3.4. Aspects of Teachers' Professional Identity Construction

As a related issue to the professional identity of teachers, I attempt to explore and problematise in more detail three important aspects which are commonly understood as relevant to the construction and development of a teacher's professional identity. These are PSTs' biographies (both personal and institutional), their motivation to become teachers, and their perceptions of what it means to be a professional English teacher in the context of teaching English as foreign language (TEFL) in Indonesia. These aspects also partly relate to Olsen's (2008) model of the construction of teachers' identity as a result of inter-related factors or a product of holistic interaction among multiple parts (see section 1.3). I am however aware that issues of the construction and the development of professional identity are not limited by just these three aspects and that there are other crucial related features, such as emotions and teachers' commitment, which may equally be central to professional identity construction, yet in line with the scope of this study I will focus only on exploring these three aspects.

3.4.1. Personal and Institutional Biographies

Existing research on professional identity construction suggests that self and identity are shaped through three primary means. *First*, professional identity is the result of the socialisation process where one is provided with information about the meanings associated with a profession (Farrell, 2001; D. Hall, 1987). The PSTs' experience during their teacher education program and their teaching practicum program are included in this process. *Second*,

scholars of identity construction suggest that individuals (including teachers) adjust their professional identity during various periods of career transition (Ibarra, 1999; Nicholson, 1984 as cited in Slay & Smith, 2011). *Finally,* teachers' day to day life experiences as well as work experiences also influence professional identity development by clarifying self-understanding as well identification of their membership in social groups (see, for instance, Pratt, Rockmann, & Kaufmann, 2006; Sutherland et al., 2006).

Looking at how research literature describes the nature of the construction of teachers' professional identity, it could be said that professional identity is the result of a complex interaction between the personal experiences of teachers and the social, cultural and institutional environment in which they work on a daily basis. This description indicates that construction and development of teachers' professional identity is a complex and ongoing process in which they are "combining parts of their past, including their own experiences in school and in teacher preparation, with pieces of the present in their current school context" (Feiman-Nemser, 2001, p. 1029).

Internal images of teaching and learning which are considered essential in the development of teacher identity, for instance, are the result of a lengthy complicated process beginning with the PSTs' experiences as learners or during their own schooling (Borg, 2004; Lortie, 1975; Tyminski & Mewborn, 2006). In other words, identity construction for teachers is a continuum with no clear beginning and end points. Indeed, images of teaching and notions of what it means to be an English teacher could have even started long before they entered teacher training or indeed ever formal schooling. Particular experiences they encountered during their childhood, for instance, might have shaped their initial ideas of what it means to be a teacher (See Soekirno, 2004), various examples of which are presented in sections 7.1.1 and 7.1.2.

Literature on the identity construction of teachers shows that teachers' life histories are fundamental to the development of teacher identity (see Britzman, 2003; Williams, 2010). The way teachers teach or the way they approach their students in class, for instance, is very likely rooted from their life backgrounds – their biographies. Many researchers (such as Caires & Almeida, 2005; Chong, Ling, et al., 2011; Schepens et al., 2009) believe that

student teachers' implicit institutional biographies – the cumulative experiences of school life – could in turn contribute to a framework of reference for prospective teachers' self-images. As Britzman (2003) enunciates, "Because teachers were once students in compulsory education, their sense of the teachers' world is strangely established before they begin to teach" (p.1). Britzman specifically emphasises the role of teachers' school biographies as an important factor which shapes teachers' identity.

An earlier study by Knowles and Holt-Reynolds (1991) demonstrated that what PSTs know and believe about teaching is mostly formed from personal experience and not from formal courses, and that their pre-service experiences are informed and sometimes distorted by the experiences and beliefs that have developed from their own personal histories as school students. Their studies have found that a PST's biography plays an important role in the process of identity formation. To be more specific, PSTs' early childhood experiences, early teacher role models, previous teaching experiences, and view of the significant or important people in their lives are some of the relevant biographical categories that affect beliefs on teaching and learning.

Such understanding can be traced back long to Lortie's (1975) seminal study on teachers in two American urban schools, where he documented the effects of teachers' long 'apprenticeship of observation'. The *apprenticeship of observation* describes the phenomenon whereby PSTs enter their teacher training courses having spent thousands of hours as school children observing and evaluating professionals in action (Borg, 2004). The long hours of observation the students have are considered a kind of apprenticeship in teaching. As Lortie noted, "There are ways in which being a student is like serving an apprenticeship in teaching; students have protracted face-to-face and consequential interactions with established teachers" (Lortie, 1975, p. 61). Lortie further argued that teachers' images of, and beliefs about, teaching are formed over years of prior educational experiences in family, classroom, and school settings and that these images, along with the influence of significant others including former teachers, exert a powerful influence on teachers' practice.

It is this 'apprenticeship of observation' that functions as a distinctive feature of teacher preparation compared to other professionals who enter areas like law or medicine and who have never been immersed in their future occupations before they sit through their

professional courses (Knowles & Holt-Reynolds, 1991). However, this kind of advantage also brings with it potential problems due to the fact that "student teachers may fail to realise that the aspects of teaching which they perceived as students represented only a partial view of the teacher's job" (Borg, 2004, p. 274). This means that students can only see certain observable behaviours, e.g. monitoring, correcting, and lecturing; they do not see the invisible ones (such as a teacher's private intentions and personal reflections on classroom events) which are a critical part of a teacher's job.

This partial observation might subsequently lead PSTs to have 'folk ways of teaching', that is "ready-made recipes for action and interpretation that do not require testing or analysis while promising familiar, safe results" (Buchmann 1987, p. 161 in Borg, 2004 p.274). Relying on these methods of teaching means PSTs may not be in a position to be reflective and analytical about what they observe, nor do they necessarily have cause to do so. In other words, PSTs are likely to be less critical in what they have seen during their *apprenticeship of observation* and take what they have seen for granted.

Borrowing the words of Britzman (2003, p. 26), this apprenticeship of observation could lead PSTs to a state of "overfamiliarity of the teaching profession"; that is when PSTs' conceptualisation of teaching professions are dominated by particular worldviews, orientations, dispositions, and cultural myths which they take for granted. Stereotypical images or descriptions of teachers, like *bookish, brainy, like a nerd, a big head, mean, like an old maid* are included in these worldviews. Several cultural myths, like "teachers as experts" and "everything in the class depends on the teachers" are mentioned by Britzman (2003, p.224) in relation to this kind of simplification as the result of an "apprenticeship of observation".

Although Lortie has been criticised for having made a grand claim about the cultural transmission of teaching practices (Tyminski & Mewborn, 2006), his 1975 sociological study of teaching, *Schoolteacher*, was influential in that it problematised the complexity of teaching and provided a framework for research on teacher beliefs and identity, and their relationship to teacher learning and professional development. A number of studies have been conducted investigating PSTs' prior experience and beliefs in relation to pre-service teacher education.

Some researchers have suggested that a key factor in PSTs' decisions to choose teaching as a career is their positive educational experiences as pupils, the influence of previous teachers (both good and bad), experiences with their families, and their own children (see Chong, Ling, et al., 2011; Day & Flores, 2006). Flores and Day's study found that while most participants did not choose teaching as their first choice of career, their prior experiences as pupils seemed to play a significant mediating role in the identities that new teachers brought to their first school teaching experience.

Some previous studies (e.g., Calderhead & Robson, 1991, as cited in Kagan, 1992; Whitehead, 2006) found that novice-teachers entered the practicum with clear notions of good teaching and preexisting concepts of 'good' and 'bad' teachers. These images and concepts were related to their own classroom experiences as pupils as well as experiences in their youth. Similarly, O'Sullivan (2008) and Canrinus (2011) also agree that teachers' images and perceptions of what it means to be a teacher are based on their interpretations of their continuing interaction with classroom contexts. In their studies, they focused on examining how schooling experiences shaped teacher identity. They indicate that experience gained in classrooms, notions of what teaching is about, and the capacity to judge models of good and bad teachers, enable prospective teachers to construct a predefined notion of what makes a teacher, as well as what makes a *good* teacher, an issue discussed at length in section 7.1. This source of observed knowledge is strengthened with professional or theoretical knowledge as they undergo teacher education programs (Varghese et al., 2005), including the practicum. The experiences during their teacher training courses may have shaped, for instance, their professional expectations, motivations, emotions, and core beliefs about teaching and learning. In the context of this study, one of the aims is to investigate how the teaching practicum experience in the context of the Indonesian pre-service teacher education program shapes PST's understandings on the notion of *good English teaching* and *professional English teachers* (see sections 1.3 and 7.1)

A more recent longitudinal study by Chong, Ling, and Chuan (2011) looked at 166 PSTs at the National Institute of Education, Singapore (NIE) and surveyed the participants to investigate how the PSTs perceive the development of their professional identity at the point of entry and exit of their 4-year undergraduate initial teacher preparation program. Their

study revealed that the PSTs bring with them a set of beliefs that constitutes their emerging sense of teacher identity, which has been influenced and formed by their prior experiences as pupils and their observations of their own teachers.

Considering the importance of these biographies to the construction of teacher identity, Knowles (1992) argues that teacher preparation programmes should explicitly address and examine students' background experiences and their initial conceptions of teaching. Otherwise, they possibly remain unchallenged, so that if students' notions do not match with the realities of classroom teaching when they are on a practicum they are more likely to run into problems and might have some persistent and ongoing 'misconceptions' about teaching later in their life. It is in the light of this that a substantial part of the data collection process elicited biographical narratives from the participants of this study.

3.4.2. Reasons for Being a Teacher

Preservice teachers' decisions to study in the teacher education program represents a crucial period in the process of constructing their professional identity. The process then expands as part of a long trajectory in terms of development and affiliation or disaffiliation with the profession. This is generally defined as the process of learning to teach – a time when teachers construct personal ideas about being a teacher, which are elemental notions of professional identity. This study is situated mainly in the context of this important stage where PSTs are learning to be real teachers during a teaching practicum program.

Although teaching is not as popular as other professions in Indonesia such as being a banker, an accountant, a doctor or an engineer, it has always been a well-respected profession in Indonesian society. As an educator, it is the teacher who shapes the future lives of many. Because of the 'noble' nature of teachers' roles, culturally the profession enjoys a special status in society where people – for instance - usually regard teachers as their role models and source of knowledge and wisdom (Tilaar, 2002). A teacher is a highly valued personality in society and teaching is considered the most sacred and distinctive profession. Here, teachers are addressed by the title of 'guru', which stands for 'Sing diguGUlanditiRU', that is "somebody who deserved to be listened and modelled upon" (Gandana & Parr, 2013, p. 8).

Despite modernisation and the inevitable effects of globalisation, this cultural expectation still exists in Indonesia, and therefore it has always been a relevant and crucial issue to explore why someone from the younger generation still chooses to be an (English) teacher in today's world.

I argue that exploring the reasons behind teachers' decisions to enter the profession contributes to the development of their initial teachers' identity, and in the long run it affects their commitment and retention in the profession as English teachers. This is because one cannot completely separate their personal selves from their professional selves when they become teachers (Olsen, 2008). In other words, one's personal histories prior to their decision to enter the teaching profession might affect, in some ways, his or her professional identity as a teacher. The personal history includes their unique personal experiences which inspired them to decide to study in a teacher education program and later become a professional teacher.

This argument corresponds to the model of the construction of teacher identity proposed by Olsen (2008) who argues that teacher identity is the product of a dynamic and holistic interaction of multiple parts (see again Figure 1). One's prior personal experiences, including familial and schooling experience, are one of the important factors that affect this interaction. This experience will subsequently affect multiple reasons for entry into the teaching profession.

Literature suggests that there are certain comon reasons mentioned as to why PSTs become teachers. For example, a sudy by Yong (1995) investigating PSTs motives for choosing a career in teaching in Brunei context suggest that extrinsic motives were the main determinants for PSTs to choose teaching. The reasons "no other choice" (ranked first) and "influence of others" (ranked second) were the most important. Under intrinsic motives, the important reasons were "ambition to become a teacher" (ranked third) and "opportunities for academic development" (ranked fourth). Under altruistic motives, "like working with children" (ranked fifth) was found to be the most important reason. The findings indicate that a large proportion of the participants gave reasons for choosing teaching which were extrinsic

in nature. Such motives may have important implications on their long-term commitment. In the case of this study, some of these reasons are described in Chapter 6 (see section 6.2).

A mixed-methods study surveying PSTs' reasons for choosing teaching as a career in the Australian context by Richardson and Watt (2006) identified five major factors which inspire PSTs to choose teaching as a career. The five factors relate to social status, career fit, prior considerations, financial reward and time for family. In relation to the flexibility of time in teaching, for example, one participant of this study states, "Living in the country, teaching offers the potential for a secure occupation. Suitable to having a young family. Relief teaching offers part-time flexibility" (Richardson & Watt, 2006, p. 484).

In the Indonesian context, a qualitative study by Basalama (2010) explored the identity formation of 20 high school English teachers in Gorontalo in Indonesia. It found that the desire to be a civil servant appeared to be the most important reason for PSTs to choose to be teachers, while altruitistic reasons seemed to be secondary. Although Basalama's study only investigated a small number of in-service teachers, it indicated that many teachers enter the teaching profession due to the incentive of financial rewards and the expectation of job security.

In terms of sources of inspiration in relation to choosing to be teachers, it is apparent that the influences of *significant others* during the participants' life trajectories affected the participants' choice to be teachers. Andersen, Chen, & Miranda (2002, p. 160) define someone included in the category of *significant others* as an 'individual who is or has been deeply influential to one's life, or in whom one or once was emotionally invested". The significant others in the context of these studies are often the PSTs' family members, their past school teachers, and particular individuals during their childhood experience, examples of which are seen in the data chapters (see section 6.3).

3.4.3. The Professional (English) Teacher: What Counts?

One of the objectives of this study is to investigate how pre-service English teachers conceptualise the notion of the 'professional English teacher' (PET) in the Indonesian context, and how this conceptualisation is constructed and reconstructed before and during

practicum experiences (see section 7.1). It is therefore necessary to review how researchers and ELT practitioners have defined this concept in existing literature. In this study, it is argued that the PSTs' perception of what constitutes the "professional English teacher" is an important factor which contributes to the construction and the development of their *own* initial professional identity as prospective teachers.

The following review will highlight the Indonesian Teachers Law and teacher certification programs in Indonesia as important background contexts which has made the notion of the 'professional teacher' the most important and debated issue in current Indonesian teaching reforms. As discussed in the previous chapter (see section 2.3), the notion of the *guru profesional* (professional teacher) has been a popular term in current Indonesian educational discourse. It has become the focus of attention of many educational stakeholders in Indonesia especially after Law no. 14/2005 was launched regarding teachers and lecturers. This Law can be likened to a big umbrella that legally protects the teaching profession in Indonesia (Jalal, et al., 2009). Unlike many years ago when teachers tended to be 'legally neglected' by the government, this Law has now officially recognised the status of *teachers as professionals* holding the same status and respect as others in established professions in Indonesia such as doctors, lawyers, and accountants.

After the Law No. 14/2005 was passed, all teachers were obliged to be *'guru profesional'* (professional teachers) defined as holding certain essential qualities and qualificiations, who could play their roles and responsibilities as teachers well. Article 1.4 of the Law defines a professional occupation as "a job or an activity performed by someone as a source of income, which requires expertise, proficiency or skills that meet certain quality standards or norms" (translated from "Undang Undang Guru dan Dosen," 2005, p. 2).

Having reviewed how the Law describes *professional teachers,* I argue that the definition applies to other similar notions used by researchers in this field, such as 'best teachers' (Liando, 2010), 'good teachers' (Thompson, 2008), or 'effective teachers' (Phern & Abidin, 2012). Therefore, the term 'professional teacher' in this study may be used interchangeably with other synonyms mentioned here. In this study, all of these terms refer to the idea of a set of essential qualities teachers hold in order to be able to play their roles as teachers

successfully. These qualities would subsequently enable teachers to gain recognition and acceptance by the professional teachers' community, as they have already met the expected standards of being a professional (English) teacher. For the purposes of the literature review, I have intentionally used all the synonymous words above as key words to carefully examine how the literature conceptualises the *professional English teacher.*

The notion of who is a 'professional' (English) teacher is not a simple one to discuss, as the answers may be different depending on the context, and perhaps it is even impossible or pedagogically undesirable and unproductive to set up a definitive description of professional reachers or ''the good teacher'' (Korthagen, 2004). However, some researchers (such as Brown & Rodgers, 2002; Nunan, 1999; Thompson, 2008; Wichadee, 2010) do attempt to describe some essential qualities of a good English teacher, to enable ELT practitioners to have a framework of reference in discussing what constitutes a good (English) teacher.

Some researchers attempt to describe the qualities of a good (English) teacher in terms of competencies, skills, and knowledge. Thompson (2008, p. 6), for example, argues that "good teachers should have a combination of strong teaching skills and positive personality traits." He seems to put more emphasis on the idea of some essential personal qualities, such as having an "easy-going", "relaxed" or "open minded" manner, to enable them to foster student motivation in the classroom. He also states that good language teachers should build rapport by caring about their learners, demonstrating patience and respecting learners. Good teachers are also those who are well prepared, able to select appropriate frameworks for their lessons, and able to design interesting tasks.

In addition, Wichadee (2010) stresses that an effective teacher shows a wide range of skills and abilities that lead to creating a conducive learning environment where all students feel comfortable and certain that they can thrive both academically and personally. To make students feel comfortable, Foote, et al., (2000, as cited in Wichadee, 2010) assert that personal relationships are extremely important to students, and it is crucial for the teacher to be close to the students and show interest in their personal-emotional world.

In the context of ELT, Nunan (1999) proposes that a language teacher needs to have two kinds of knowledge - procedural knowledge and declarative knowledge – in order to be an effective language teacher. He further states that declarative knowledge includes everything teachers know and can articulate, such as knowledge about grammar rules. The procedural knowledge refers to the ability to do things or knowing how to do things, such as being able to communicate in English, knowing how to plan lessons, and understanding how to conduct work in pairs.

Korthagen (2004) explains that educational policy makers usually support attempts to describe the notion of the 'good English teacher' in terms of a list of skills and competencies (as reviewed above) as they generally focus on the importance of outcomes in education. In some countries, the government attempts to describe English teachers' competencies by listing a set of teachers' attributes to achieve as language teachers, such as AFMLTA (Australian Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations) professional standards or AITSL (The Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership) professional teaching standards in Australia and ACTFL (The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) national standard for foreign language education in the USA. This is also happening in Indonesia where professional teachers are described as having certain standardised competencies as outlined in Law No. 14/2005 on Teachers and Lecturers.

The law specifically stipulates that a professional teacher should hold a required academic qualification and a set of knowledge, skills and behaviour required to successfully perform his or her professional tasks. More specifically, article 10 of the Law states that the competencies include "pedagogical, personal, social, and professional competencies acquired through professional teacher education" (translated from "Undang Undang Guru dan Dosen," 2005, p. 5). The description of section 10 of the Law further specifies that

> pedagogical competency refers to the ability to manage students' learning; personal competency refers to strong, moral, wise and respected personal ability to be a good model for students; professional competency refers to the ability to master lesson materials extensively and comprehensively; and social competency refers to teachers' ability to communicate and interact effectively and efficiently with students, fellow teachers, students' parents/guardians, and nearby community (translated from "Undang Undang Guru dan Dosen," 2005, p. 29).

Despite the phenomenon of the use of competencies to describe the notion of the good (English) teacher, some researchers have raised concerns about the validity, reliability and practicality of such lists. Many have questioned whether it is actually possible to describe the qualities of good teachers in terms of competencies (e.g., Barnett, 1994; Hyland, 1994 as cited in Korthagen, 2004). This question is rooted from their understanding that being a good teacher relates to complex variables and therefore cannot be simply described with a finite list of competencies.

While an understanding of the importance of identity in defining good teachers is growing, existing literature on this issue is still dominated by descriptions of the tangible characteristics of good language teachers. My present study therefore considers these complex variables in problematising what constitutes a 'professional' (English) teacher by emphasising that the notion of the PET goes beyond the issue of competencies *per se*. Brown and Rodgers (2002) introduces a combination of a mechanical component and a mental component in the concept of being a good teacher in an EFL class. The mechanical component of a lesson includes the skills required for the content of the lesson to be presented in the most effective way for students, while the mental component encompasses the teacher's belief system about teaching and learning as well as the teacher's personality.

Having reviewed the classic and some current models of teachers' education, especially in terms of defining the essential qualities of good (English) teachers, Korthagen (2004) proposes the *Onion Model* (see section 3.3.1). As discussed in the previous section, this model stresses that the notion of a good teacher relates to interrelated factors in various levels – from inner to outer levels. The Onion Model also suggests that the notion of the PET deals with complex factors, often external to immediate or visible ones. It does not only deal with tangible factors, such as environment and behaviour, but also intangible ones, like the teachers' mission, identity, and beliefs.

3.5. Chapter Summary

This chapter has conceptualised one of the central notions within this study – the *professional identity of teachers* – and has discussed how it is understood, constructed, reconstructed and

enacted in a teacher's professional learning continuum. The conceptualisation began by acknowledging the multiple perspectives in the literature defining *identity* and *professional identity*. Yet, the chapter has clearly stated that professional identity in this project is understood as PSTs' understanding of the idea of what it means to be a professional English teacher in terms of its roles and responsibilities.

Central in this chapter is the notion that the nature of identity is not fixed; it is constantly constructed and reconstructed when PSTs participate with the persons and the world around them, including in a teaching practicum. It is also essential in the chapter's argument that one's understanding of what it means to be a teacher is likely rooted from personal and school biographies and experiences, as well as their motivation to be a teacher. These themes emerge in the participants' accounts of their practicum experiences, as we will see in Chapters 6, 7, and 8.

IV. UNDERSTANDING THE TEACHING PRACTICUM

Learning to teach is not a mere matter of applying decontextualized skills or of mirroring predetermined images; it is when ones's past, present, and future are set in dynamic tension. Learning to teach - like teaching itself - is always the process of becoming: a time of formation and transformation, of scrutiny into what one is doing, and who one can become.

(Britzman, 2003, p.30)

The following sections discuss the strategic function of the teaching practicum within a pre-service teachers' education program. It will higlight the role of the teaching practicum as a place for real professional learning as well as an important context which not only nurtures PSTs' construction of identity, but also plays the part of *a place of transit* where a PST transforms themselves from being a university student to becoming a 'novice-teacher'. The next section will specifically review the practicum as *a site of struggle* where PSTs experience tension, conflicts, and dilemmas. It is followed by a section which reviews Wenger's (1998) *social theory of learning* and his concept of *community of practice* which functions as one of the major theories applied in understanding how participants of this study understand, construct, and develop their initial teachers' professional identities during the practicum at Riau University. The chapter concludes by considering ideas of what a good or conducive practicum could be like to support and nurture PSTs' professional learning and construction of identity.

4.1. Situating the Practicum within the Teacher Training Program

It is important to note at the beginning of this discussion that the practicum is not a physical space. It is a virtual place in which PSTs undergo the process of becoming a teacher within a real school setting. It covers both tangible and intangible aspects of teaching practice and the practicalities of being a teacher. This ranges from the teaching experiences the practicum provides, to learning how to prepare the lessons, to getting to know the students, to managing classrooms, to working alongside mentor teachers in a classroom setting, and to being welcomed by future colleagues into the broader teaching community (Uusimaki, 2009).

As mentioned above, the teaching practicum is a central component within a PST education program. It is a crucial period in the PSTs' journey to becoming teachers as it provides ample opportunities for them to learn to teach in a school setting and work under the supervision of an experienced (mentor) teacher as well as a university advisor. It is considered important as it is the time "when theory meets practice and goodism meets reality" (Fallin and Royse, 2000 in Pungur, 2007, p. 267). It is here that the PSTs experience the real world of being a teacher, and the 'real ground of knowledge production'(Johnston, 1994), where they bring theory into practice including having opportunities to develop skills for designing lesson plans, delivering the lessons and classroom management.

> Students regard it [practicum] as the 'trial by fire,' the test of being 'real experience' through which they will finally know whether they can survive as teachers and an opportunity to consider their desire to even become teachers. (Danielewicz, 2001, p. 48)

The belief of the importance of the teaching practicum for developing knowledge and for the PSTs' professional learning opportunities is firmly rooted in the works of Dewey (1933), Vygotsky (1978), and Lave &Wenger (1991). Dewey highlights that developing knowledge (including knowledge about how to teach) is more effective when the learner engages in real-life situations. This complements Vygotsky's social constructivism where knowledge is constructed by a socially shared arrangement. Yet after gaining knowledge it must be put into practice to test the value and applicability of such knowledge. This social construction of knowledge is then corroborated by Lave and Wenger (1991, p. 4) who views "learning as a social participation"; that is, learning is situated in particular physical and social contexts and distributed across the individual, other persons, and tools within communities of practice. The essence of social theory of learning by Wenger and Lave (1991) is on the belief that the genesis of learning lies in social interaction between people rather than in individuals' minds.

4.1.1. Teaching Practicum as a Community of Practice

As discussed earlier, the success of the teaching practicum is central to a pre-service teacher education program. This is not only because the teaching practicum is considered the first official site where PSTs encounter a *real* school atmosphere, but more importantly because it provides PSTs the chance to work with a school community as a place where they are expected to construct a new identity – the identity of a teacher. It is therefore the teaching

practicum is considered a type of community of practice. The practicum provides PSTs a community in which they engage and participate with members of school community to develop their sense of being new teachers.

The identity of PSTs are further reshaped as they gradually assume and define the role of the teacher through the teaching practicum, and develop their conceptions of teaching (Danielewicz, 2001; Richards & Farrell, 2011). At the same time, the practicum also functions as a place of socialisation for the PSTs where they undergo "a process of becoming a member of a specific group, the teaching profession" (Farrell, 2001, p. 49). It is a place where PSTs engage and collaborate with their mentors, incumbent teachers, and other members of school community, so that they can navigate their identity in transition smoothly. Some prior studies have investigated how the practicum is identified as a specific site of struggle of PST's identity development (see, for instance, Chong, Low, et al., 2011; Trent, 2010, 2013; Varghese et al., 2005)

Drawing on the theoretical framework of 'identity-in practice' by Varghese et al. (2005) which describes an action-orientated approach to understanding identity, I argue that Wenger's (1998, p. 163) notion of identity construction as "an experience" can be used as one of the theoretical frameworks underpinning this study. It is argued that PSTs construct and reconstruct part of their initial teachers' identities through their participation and engagement with the school community during their practicum experience. In other words, the process of learning to become a teacher during the teaching practicum can be more effective as learning takes place through participation in communities of practice – in workplaces as living social communities – and aims for full participation in authentic contexts (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

The community is regarded as the basis of many successful practicum stories (Walshaw, 2009). Although the notion of a 'community' is elusive, complex, and therefore cannot be taken for granted (Chowdhury, 2008), generally speaking it rests on interactions between contexts and people: a *relationship* between settings and the people within those settings. To use Black's (in Niven, 2013) definition, the community is a group of people who share values, activities, hopes and dreams. In the context of this study, a sense of community develops from PSTs' shared understandings of respective roles and an agreed upon meaning

of pedagogical practice with their mentor teachers, university advisors, and school administrators during a practicum (Smith & Lev- Ari, 2005 as cited in Walshaw, 2009).

Within the practicum, mentor teachers are key players in establishing the kind of community that will nurture and facilitate the development of an effective teacher (Darling-Hammond, Chung, & Frelow, 2002 as cited in Walshaw, 2009). They will not only contribute to the professional learning of the PSTs, but also influence 'how', and indeed 'if', the PSTs' commitment to teaching will be sustained. Successful PSTs, as Sinclair (2008, cited in Walshaw, 2009) observes, are those who work within a professional community of shared knowledge of, and shared thinking about, pedagogical practice. They are also those who are assisted both practically and emotionally through personal and systemic support during the practicum.

In Wenger's (1991) words, it could be said that the professional community which exists in schools where student-teachers conduct their practicum is a *community of practice (CoP).* This term was first coined by Lave and Wenger (1991) in their study of *situated learning* in the context of five apprenticeships: Yucatec midwives, Vai and Gola tailors, naval quartermasters, meat cutters, and non-drinking alcoholics; it is now applied to other professionals, including teachers. Older cognitive models assume learning is an *individual* process that is best separated from other activities and where the pupil learns from teachers. In contrast to these perspectives, Lave and Wenger (1991) argue that learning is *situated*; that is, it takes place as it normally occurs and is embedded *within* activity, context and culture. Learning is best taken place through observation and learning from other learners; and therefore, it is social (Andrew, 2005). In other words, learning is a process of participation in communities of practice, participation that is first peripheral but that increases gradually in engagement and complexity.

Wenger later significantly expanded on this concept in his 1998 book, *'Communities of Practice: Learning, Meaning, and Identity '*. In this book, Wenger proposed a *social theory of learning* which stresses learning as situated in particular physical and social contexts and distributed across the individual, other persons, and tools within *communities of practice* (1998*)*. In other words, this social theory of learning re-emphasises the essence of situated

learning which views learning as a social phenomenon existing in the context of our lived experience of participation in the world. From this perspective, therefore, learning to become a teacher cannot solely rely on theories in the classroom during pre-service teacher education programs; what is more important is also the question of how to learn and acquire that notion through meaningful contexts, which in the case of this study is teaching practicum.

In its broadest sense, Wenger (1998) defines a CoP as a group of people who share a craft or a profession. It is through the process of sharing information and experiences with the group that members learn from each other, and have an opportunity to develop themselves personally and professionally (Lave & Wenger, 1991). It is also a community formed by people who engage in a process of collective learning in a shared domain of human endeavour. In communities of practice, groups of people share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly (Wenger, 2006).

In the case of this study, PSTs at Riau University can be said to have formed a CoP through their engagement in their teaching practicum program under unified aims and objectives. The group of people here are mentor teachers, university advisors, student-teachers, parents, and school administrators. They work collaboratively during the PST's practicum experience in an environment of both micro and macro contexts (see case study boundary in section 5.1). They interact, share information, and engage with the practicum program. The interactions within this community of practice provide student-teachers the opportunity to construct or reconstruct their professional identity as novice-teachers. In the context of this study, the interaction among members of this CoP has the potential to shape and reshape the PSTs' understanding of what it means to be a professional English teacher as well as their views on the notion of good English teaching (these two themes that will be discussed in more detail in sections 7.1 and 7.2.)

Wenger (1998) highlights that *practice* here includes both the explicit and the tacit; what is said and what is not (see section 3.1 for Foucault's notion on silence as discourse); and what is represented and what is assumed. It also includes the "language, tools, documents, images, symbols, well-defined roles, specified criteria, codified procedures, regulations, and contracts that various practices make explicit for a variety of purposes" (Wenger, 1998, p.47). This

means that all documents related to the teaching practicum, for example, like syllabi, lesson plan, curriculum, school rules, students' portfolio, and other relevant means are considered the kind of *practice* which systematically interplay and affect the PSTs' professional identity during their teaching practicum experience.

Wenger (1998) further adds that the practice also includes the discourse by which the "member creates meaningful statements about the world, as well as the styles by which they express their forms of membership and their identities as members" (Wenger, 1998, p. 83). As previously mentioned, the discourse here refers to both explicit texts and a condition when utterances are absent (silence). Therefore, the dynamic of discourses produced during the teaching practicum among members of the CoP affect the process of student-teachers becoming new members of the community of teachers at schools.

Together, the different facets of the teaching practicum as a community of practice can be visualised in the following figure:

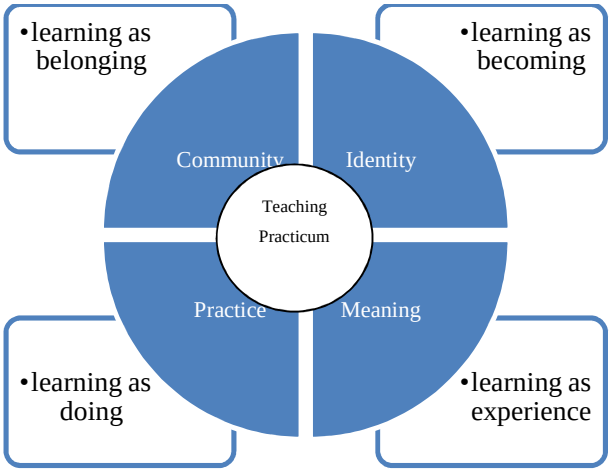


Figure 4. Teaching Practicum model as a community of practice, adopted from Wenger's (1998, p. 9) components of a social theory of learning

Adopting the elements of a community of practice by Wenger (1998), the figure above shows that the teaching practicum can be seen as consisting of at least four interrelated components: *meaning, practice, community, and identity*. Each component has its own specific focus but they are interconnected elements and mutually definitive. In this study, these components are

understood as a useful analytical framework to understand the complexities of PSTs' experiences when they navigate their journey to becoming novice teachers during the teaching practicum.

This framework means that the PST would *first* learn and struggle for *meaning* during their teaching practicum experience. *Meaning* in Wenger's (1998) words refers to a way of talking about our (changing) abilities – individually and collectively – to experience life and the world as meaningful. In the context of this study, *meaning* can be defined as the PSTs' understanding of themselves as teachers, their notions of 'good teaching' and the 'professional (English) teacher', and their knowledge and skills as novice-teachers. In other words, in the context of searching for meaning, the teaching practicum is clearly a place for professional learning (the notion of teaching practicum as a place for professional learning is elaborated in section 4.1.2).

Next, the component of *practice* within the teaching practicum emphasises that the practicum would also lead PSTs to scenarios where they could share their historical and social resources, frameworks, and perspectives in order to sustain mutual engagement during the teaching practicum program. This means that regardless of the fact that student-teachers are newcomers to the community, they are assumed to be able to share parts of their resources and past life experiences (biographies) when they interact with other members of the CoP. However, unlike the original community of practice model proposed by Wenger, in the context of this study this resource sharing might come in a different form because of embedded power relation issues between PSTs with school mentor teachers, as we will see in section 8.1.2.

The c*ommunity* is another component of the teaching practicum. It could be said that the collaborative work and engagement processes between PSTs, students, mentor teachers, university advisors, school administrators, and parents come together to form a community. As newcomers, PSTs would first adjust themselves to this new community (of English teachers) and ultimately struggle for a sense of belonging to this community. As discussed in the preceding section, the point at which they acquire a sense of belonging to this English teachers' community is the point where they could be regarded as having a *collective identity*

(Danielewicz, 2001), and therefore considered (in some ways) to have successfully transformed themselves to be novice-teachers. In this study, I look into various ways in which individual PSTs experience this transition and the specific factors influencing the success (or failure) of this transition.

The last important element is that the teaching practicum can be seen as the site for PSTs to struggle towards their *identity*, in learning to become professional teachers (Trent, 2010; Varghese et al., 2005). Wenger (1998) maintained that learning and identity were inseparable, and that learning within a community of practice was a process of constant construction and reconstruction of identities. In the context of this identity construction, Wenger (1998, p. 660) argues that identity does not lie only in the way a person talks or thinks about himself or herself, or only in the way others talk or think about him or her, but in the way identity is lived day-to-day. Wenger proposes that identities are formed amid the "tension between our investment in the various forms of belonging and our ability to negotiate the meanings that matter in those contexts". Therefore, this study also investigates the tensions experienced by pre-service English teachers in constructing their professional identity (examples of which we will see in Chapter 8).

Many studies have found that PSTs experienced significant tension and dilemma when they undergo their practicum program and or their pre-service teacher education program (for example, see Alsup, 2006; Kostogriz & Peeler, 2004; Viczeko & Wright, 2010). Many studies have found that PSTs experienced significant tension and dilemma when they underwent the experiences of their practicum program and/or their pre-service teacher education program (for example, see Alsup, 2006; Kostogriz & Peeler, 2004; Viczeko & Wright, 2010). The tension generally occurred as part of their experience in their search for meaning as beginners in the teaching profession. In Alsup's (2006) longitudinal study on six PSTs in the context of American pre-service education, for instance, the PSTs experienced tension as they did not really know what they should do as "new teachers" and how to negotiate between their personal selves and their professional selves during their teacher education program. This can be seen, for instance, when the PST had more difficulty establishing their "selves" in a position of authority in the classroom because they had never

experimented with such a role before. The tension also appeared when the PSTs had to deal with family and their teaching career

In many cases, the PSTs have to negotiate, reshape and reinterprate some existing roles, beliefs, and notions ascribed to teaching and learning that they already hold. The tensions sometimes also relate to the gap between theory and practice (Allen & Peach, 2007; Lugton, 2000); power relations between students teachers and their mentors or the school authority (Trent, 2010); the minor age difference between students and PSTs (Syahril, 2012); and the 'incomplete status' of PSTs as teachers (see section 4.1.3 for a further review on the practicum as a site of struggle).

These tensions and dilemmas imply that identity formation takes place through a dialogical process in which experience and its social intrepretation mutually inform each other. In the case of this study, how the pre-service English teachers construct knowledge – about the teaching profession, what it means to be a teacher, and how they understand the notion of the profesional English teacher – are "negotiated in the course of doing the job and interacting with others" (Wenger, 1998, p.146) during their teaching experience in the practicum program.

Another significant feature of Wenger's (1998) theory in the context of identity construction is his description of the three dimensions of belonging and sources of identity formation (*becoming*) — engagement, imagination, and alignment. These dimensions can also be explored during the teaching practicum. Engagement deals with the strategies employed in the social and contextual situations people experience, covering mutual participation (or choosing not to participate) in meaningful activities and interactions. Examples of engagement in the case of this study can be, for instance, when PSTs design lesson plans, when they prepare teaching materials, when they teach in the classrooms, or when they evaluate the class under the supervision of their mentor teachers and university advisors (see section 8.1.3 for more examples).

Yet, another mode of belonging is *imagination.* It is the area of goals and expectations where we create "new images of the world and ourselves" (Wenger, 1998, p. 176). Visualising

themselves as belonging to the real English teachers' community at the school where they are conducting the teaching practicum is part of this process of imagination. Rosetto (2006) explored both the idealised and the actual participation of nine PSTs in a school community in terms of their imagined persona as pedagogue before and after the teaching practicum. This study suggested that in addition to reflections on diverse real teaching and learning situations, prospective teachers also visualise themselves as belonging to so called 'imagined communities' (Anderson, 1991). This means that as part of their professional identity construction, PSTs are also trying to visualise themselves as belonging to the imagined 'English teachers community' which is believed to exist outside of just their individual school community.

The last dimension is *alignment*. This describes a process of coordinating perspectives and actions and finding common ground from which to act (T. Smith, 2006). This relates to "the extent to which members of CoP coordinate their energies and activities in order to fit within broader structures" (Wenger, 2001, p. 163), allowing the identity of a larger group to become part of the identity of individual participants. This means that in the context of PSTs' transformation in becoming novice-teachers, the PSTs would try, for example, to adjust themselves in accordance with the values and standard codes of conduct within the English teachers' community. They will align themselves by, for example, working like professional English teachers or by speaking like professional English teachers.

In the context of this study, the frameworks proposed by Wenger (1991), Wenger and Lave (1998), and the notion of 'collective identity' by Danielwicz (2001) are particularly instrumental in understanding data from participants to answer Research Question b - how the PSTs experience the transition in identity from being student-teachers to novice-teachers during the teaching practicum. Their learning to teach experiences are analysed on the basis of their interactions with members of school community, their participation and engagement with all activities during the teaching practicum, including through teaching and non-teaching roles they play (see Chapter 8 for detailed analysis).

In short, the complex nature of experiences PSTs face within the teaching practicum as a *community of practice* would facilitate the construction and development of their professional

identity. It is through a complex process of interaction, engagement, participation, reification, imagination, and alignment that they construct and reconstruct their identities. They progress from newcomers to becoming old-timers with a growing sense of professional identity. This study, among other issues, looks at these elements of the CoP within a teaching practicum program and how these elements shape PSTs' views on their transition from a student-teacher to a novice-teacher over the four months of teaching practicum.

4.1.2. Teaching Practicum as a Place for Professional Learning

The significance of the teaching practicum in the teacher education program also lies in its role in providing PSTs opportunities to have real school life experience to support their professional learning as prospective teachers. The practicum is systematically designed to prepare prospective teachers with knowledge, values, and skills for becoming good teachers. The term *knowledge* here is used to also include disciplinary content or subject knowledge, as well as pedagogical content knowledge or knowledge of how to teach (Wilke, 2004 as cited in Chong, Wong, & Lang, 2011). During the program, PSTs will learn, for example, common topics that include classroom management, lesson plans, and professional development. These sorts of skills would be useful for the basis of their quality of practice later when they become in-service (professional) teachers.

The accumulation of PSTs' professional learning experiences during the teaching practicum is expected to have a significant impact on the development of their skills and competency when they become new teachers. To put this in Wenger's (1998, p. 173) words, PSTs are expected to arrive at "regimes of competence", when they hold "signs of competent membership of a community of practice" which would include the ability to "engage and establish mutual relationships with other members of the community; take some responsibility and accountability for the 'enterprise' and its functions; and use a 'repertoire of practice' through participation in the historical practices of the community".

Professional learning can be generally understood as any activity or program designed within teacher education that aims to prepare PSTs to become professional English teachers in the future. However, it does not have to be understood as something that occurs outside normal work as PSTs. It could also be seen as something most PSTs *do* daily in their school

placement – that is, when they reflect on their teaching practice, work together and share ideas with other members of the school community, and strive to improve their students' learning outcomes (Morrissey, 2000).

In terms of this professional learning, the importance of the practicum to the teacher education program relates to the range of experiences and activities involved in the process of learning to teach. It is through engagement with these kinds of experiences that PSTs are offered opportunities to develop and gain new skills and knowledge for their professional learning; and later these experiences lead them to the gate of a teaching career. In addition, Richards and Crookes (1988) assert that the goals of the teaching practicum for PSTs include gaining practical classroom experience; applying theory and teaching ideas; discovering from observing experienced teachers; expanding awareness of how to set goals; and questioning, articulating, and reflecting on their own teaching and learning philosophies.

In relation to the professional learning, many studies have confirmed that the teaching practicum significantly functions as the first contextualised site to gain various knowledge and skills in learning to be a teacher (see Al-Hassan, Al-Barakat, & Al-Hassan, 2012; Farrell, 2001; Grootenboer, 2005; Hascher et al., 2004; Johnston, 1994; Sevki, 2010). A study by Sevki (2010), for instance, investigates the relationship between PSTs' teaching knowledge and self-rating of competencies and their practicum experience by using the Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT), the Teacher Competency Scale, and an open-ended questionnaire as instruments. The participants of this study were fourth year students in the Department of English Language Education of the Faculty of Education, Mugla University, Turkey. The results of the TKT and Teacher Competency Scale showed that the preservice teachers acquired means above the average. The quantitative data suggested that the teaching practicum experience do matter as context which has impacted their novice teachers' competencies.

In the Indonesian educational context, a recent doctoral study by Kuswandono (2013) investigated how 13 PSTs understood their own identity as prospective teachers and the ways they interpreted and made meaning of their learning and experiences through their reflections during the practicum. In terms of professional learning, his study revealed that

most PSTs reported that their sense of personal qualities as 'novice teachers' - such as caring, being patient, and showing enthusiasm – had significantly developed during the teaching practicum. In terms of the quality of caring, they all seemed to position it as their primary goal in education. Realising the importance of personal caring in being a good teacher, the PSTs expressed the view that "teachers should know and appreciate their students' needs. They should be inspiring and motivating for their students, and they should be adaptable to the diverse range of students they will meet in their classrooms" (Kuswandono, 2013, p. 209).

An earlier study by Johnston (1994) investigating how eight PSTs in Australia perceived the process of learning to teach during their school based teaching practicum revealed several specific ways of pre-service teachers undergo their professional learning during the practicum. The participants of the study reported that they began to grow their teaching competence during practicum by setting goals during their practices, modelling, gaining experience, developing routines, and trial-error during the practice teaching experience. Although they did not show a consistent and linear development, most of the PSTs admitted that they felt more confident to teach only when they were about to finish their practicum.

As described in the previous section, it is important to note that the teaching practicum should not be viewed solely in terms of the transfer of knowledge and skills to aspiring teachers, but also as a period of socialisation of the PSTs into all aspects of the teaching profession both outside and inside the classroom (Farrell, 2001) as well as "a crucial period of teacher identity construction" (Walshaw, 2009, p. 555). This view is consistent with Britzman's refutation of the reduction of teaching to the application of decontextualised skills and predetermined notions – rather, learning to teach "is always the process of becoming: a time of formation and transformation" (2003, p. 31).

Such identity construction is possible precisely because the teaching practicum serves as a strategic program that facilitates student-teachers transforming themselves from being 'purely students' to 'beginning teachers'. The process of this development of identity can be visualised in the following figure:

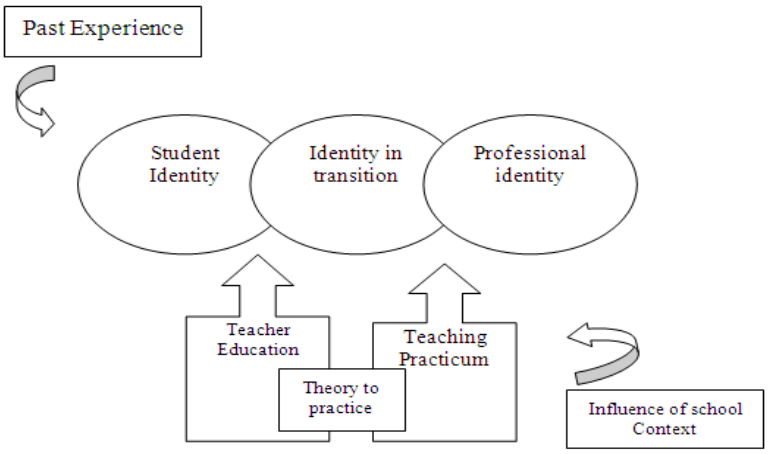


Figure 5. Development of professional identity in pre-service teachers (adapted from Beauchamp & Thomas, 2006, p. 9)

The figure above suggests that student-teachers come to a teacher education program not empty handed, but with a wealth of valuable past experiences as learners that enable them to work within a student-based identity that continuously develops during the teacher education program. The nature of this teacher education and the nature of the teaching practicum program function as points of intervention, which transform their student based identity to professional identity through the integration of theories into practice in the practicum contexts.

Danielwicz (2001, p. 113) maintains that the teaching practicum is supposed "to help the students cross over the border forever, to live inside and join the collectivity of teachers". Danielewicz furthers argues that when a student-teacher crosses the border, they are considered to have been able to construct their *collective identity* as a teacher. The collective identity is generally defined as an individuals' sense of belonging to particular group – in this case, the community of (English) teachers. It refers to ideas on what binds them as members of this professional group and the affinities felt, or not felt, by them compared with other professional communities.

In relation to the issue of PSTs' collective identity formation as discussed earlier, apart from student-teachers' engagement and participation during the teaching practicum, their earliest

collective identity also emerges from societal and cultural notions of teachers and teaching (Chong, Ling, et al., 2011). This includes certain societal expectations of PSTs to develop, for example, prescribed standards and basic competences during their pre-service teacher education (Schepens et al., 2009). In the Indonesian context, the factors that have shaped the PSTs' initial collective identity might include people's notions of what constitutes a 'good teacher' (such as being a good role model for their students), and a set of standards and competencies for professional teachers written in certain government legal documents relating to current Indonesian teaching reforms (Chang et al., 2014). This issue is looked into in depth in section 7.1.

4.1.3. Teaching Practicum as *a Site of Struggle* and Identity in Transition

This study considers PSTs as person in a state of identity-in-transition – from novice would be teachers to novice in-service teachers. This transition to becoming a novice-teacher within the teaching practicum is a highly complex process, and can be seen as the PSTs' 'struggle for voice' (Britzman, 2003, p.3) – a time when those PSTs are struggling to find meaning or make sense of their journey to becoming new teachers during the practicum program. Indeed, studies have shown that many PSTs experience 'transition shock' during this period when they experience a feeling of not having adequately prepared for dealing with the complexities of problems they face during the teaching practicum (see Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Korthagen, 2001). Kanno and Stuart's (2011) study investigated how two graduate students at a US-based teachers training instituition transformed their identities from students to new language teachers throughout teaching practicum. Their studies revealed that moving from the identity of a graduate student to that of a teacher is complex, not a quick and automatic transition, even for individuals who have made a clear commitment to make that transition. Many students experienced a kind of cultural schock. As Britzman (2003, p. 27) states, "The first culture shock may well occur with the realisation of the overwhelming complexity of teachers' works and myriad ways the complexity is masked and understood". Another researcher (Achinstein, 2006, p. 123) also calls this stage a 'practice shock' in which these beginning teachers find a conflict between their ideal view of what it means to be a teacher and the reality they experience when starting their first real-life teaching experience.

One reason for the shock might be that PSTs are often not adequately prepared in their teacher education to be confronted with the challenges a teacher has to cope with in a real classroom. Another reason could relate to lack of efficacy perceived by the PSTs during the teaching practicum - which is normal as they are still in the early process of learning to be a teacher. A study by Kelchtermans and Ballet (2002) investigating how 14 beginning primary school teachers in Belgium socialise and experience their first year of teaching suggests that the new teachers usually want to do a good job and invest time and energy into their work, while at the same time they feel vulnerable in terms of their own limits of competence. Although the study did not investigate PSTs, it implied that the same vulnerability is experienced by PSTs during a practicum. This vulnerability is elevated by the degree of visibility of their teaching practices in that they are subject to ongoing observation and assesment by mentor teachers, the principal, and parents, both in their classroom and in the school at large.

A qualitative study by Trent (2010) investigating teaching practicum experience of eight pre-service English teachers in Hong Kong indicates that participants constructed rigid divisions between the different identity positions that they took on, resisted, and rejected during their teaching practicum experiences, and that relations between these identity categories were often characterised by antagonism. The study also reveals that an important tension for PSTs lies in the dissociation between school and university courses. One participant, for example, reported that he had experienced conflict and tension when trying hard to be a 'creative teacher' as their university course suggested, but the reality they found in their placement school led them to be 'robot teachers'. "We are in a struggle because during teaching practice we have to be robot teachers because schools tell us that we have to do all the textbook exercises, exams, grammar structure," one participant stated (Trent, 2010, p.5).

In the Indonesian context, a report by Syahril (2012) introduced a breakthrough in PSTs' professional learning experience conducted at the Sampoerna School of Education (SSE) based in Jakarta – Indonesia, where PSTs were involved in a series of school experiences each semester during their pre-service teacher education program. Syahril found another reason for this shock was the minor age difference between PSTs and their 'students' at school. This is because the PSTs have had just graduated from their senior high school and

seemed to feel strange and lacking in confidence when they are called ‘pak or bu’ (sir or madam) by their school community members.

Rather than reviewing these examples of confusion as potential barriers which could hinder the development of PSTs’ professional identity, Britzman (2003) views them as positive factors in the PSTs’ experiences. He believes that all of these seemingly unwanted experiences of the PSTs’ transition to new teachers are important contributors to the process of knowledge construction for would be teachers. He argues, “Mistakes, misrepresentations, confusions, conflicts, and little gifts of errors are all crucial to the stuff of understanding and constructing of knowledge” (Britzman, 2003, p. 2).

This recalls the work of Fullers and Brown (1975), whose model of PST development suggested that novice-teachers would normally begin their professional development with this kind of shock and eventual feeling of survival, before they are gradually able to cope with teaching (strategies, techniques, contents, and approaches) and finally have more concerns about students’ needs and successes than worrying about themselves.

A longitudinal study over three years by Danielewicz (2001) of six undergraduate students exploring the complex process of becoming teachers suggest that the relationships and any engagement made by student-teachers with their mentor teachers, university advisors and school administrators within a teaching practicum are important because “interactions with authoritative figures powerfully affect who we become and how we think about ourselves” (Danielewicz, 2001, p. 77). This can be clearly seen from the story of a student on her teaching practicum experience (Danielewicz, 2001) recalling the development of her newly formed perception of herself as an insider - a teacher, through the reactions of other teachers who *treated* her as a teacher. The nature of this student’s interactions with her mentor teachers, university advisors, and with school administrators significantly affected her sense of being the ‘insider’.

The interaction of PSTs during teaching practicum is not only limited to members of school community as mentioned by Danielewicz (2001); it could also include students’ parents and the broader society outside the school. A very recent study by Seban (2015) exploring the

impact of practicum in multigrade classrooms in rural areas in Turkey found that the pre-service teachers' identity was constructed not only as a result of their interaction and dialogue with mentor teachers or students, but also with villagers who explicitly treated them as real teachers in contexts outside the school.

This kind of social categorisation experience, according to Danielewicz, is an example of "instances when other people recognise you as a member of a group or not" and "are especially relevant in constructing professional identities" (p. 112). In the later chapters of this study, we will discover how the research participants cross the border from having a student's identity to being a part of a 'collective' identity of professional teachers and in what ways their interactions with other members of school community have shaped and reshaped their novice-teachers' identity.

Two other studies (Caires & Almeida, 2005; Merseth, Sommer, & Dickstein, 2008) confirm that there is a significant influence of teaching practicum on the development of students teachers' professional identity. These studies respectively investigated 224 student-teachers in Portugal, and one group of graduate students enrolled in a teacher education program at an Ivy League university in the United States before and after their teaching practicum. The first study found that the the practicum prepared these trainees to teach in a more competent and autonomous way, as well as to deal with the socio-institutional challenges of the profession, such as communication with the different elements of the educational community and the context of the school dynamics.

The latter study also revealed that the personal and professional identities of these individuals affected - and were affected by - their experiences in the urban teaching practicum. It was found that "as the professional identities of these new teachers developed, the personal identities that they brought to the process of learning to teach were challenged and sometimes redefined" (Merseth, Sommer & Dickstein, 2008, p. 92). Together, these studies imply that the teaching practicum does matter as an important context which would affect elements of PSTs' professional identity, such as affecting their self-concepts as teachers as well as their notions of teaching, professional teachers, and being 'good teachers'.

A more recent longitudinal study by Chong, Ling, & Chuan (2011) on 166 PSTs at the National Institute of Education, Singapore (NIE), investigated their perceptions about teaching before they embarked on the initial teacher preparation program and to explore the changes in their perceptions at the point of graduation from the program. Their survey results at the exit point (graduation) showed that PSTs' perceptions of the teaching profession and their values about teaching significantly changed in positive ways after four years of the teacher education program. The study, however, also suggested that there was a significant decline in PSTs' personal efficacy as a teacher at the exit point compared to their entry survey data. Although the study did not explore what actually happened with this variable, for the PSTs this aspect of identity was particularly vulnerable to change from one practicum experience to the next, as each school placement differed widely. Some of these contextual variables are discussed in Chapter 8.

The teaching practicum, however, might not be able to meet *all* expectations of PSTs, nor is it even able to successfully support student-teachers to move into being novice-teachers (L. Grudnoff, 2011). Unsuccessful stories of the teaching practicum might result from several factors such as unqualified mentors and supervisors, a lack of support from school authorities, or 'negative' school cultures. A study by Farrell (2001) investigated how one trainee teacher experienced the socialisation process to become a novice teacher during a practicum in a Singapore language teacher education program. It indicated that the teacher encountered certain problems, including unclear lines of communication and weak support structures for trainee teachers at the school during the socialisation process. The lack of support the teacher trainee complained about, for example, included being posted in an isolated place – the resource room – where they felt like strangers and could not communicate well with the senior teachers at school. In terms of school cultures, what Farrell (2001) found was that the success of the teaching practicum was hindered by the lack of collaboration between the mentor teachers and university supervsiors. The participant in this study reported that he was not happy with this phenomenon whereby the teachers at school did not work as a team and there were a lot of politics and power play. Consequently, teachers became wary of one another and did not share resources or experiences with colleagues.

Another factor which hinders the smooth transition to becoming teachers during a practicum is the possibility of conflicting identities as student-teachers and as novice-teachers during this process of the teaching practicum, and this is a common phenomenon as far as this study is concerned (see section 8.1.2). A study conducted by Johnson (1992 as cited in Varghese et al., 2005) followed Marc, a Mexican woman in her late 20s, enrolled in a two year MA TESOL program in a large urban university in the United States. It revealed that during Marc's teaching practicum, her multiple identities as both a language teacher and language student seemed troublesome for her mentor teacher, who appeared willing to accept Marc as a new and emerging *ESL teacher* but struggled with Marc's concurrent self-identification as an ESL student. This thesis looks at such sites of struggle, conflict, and friction and how PSTs adopt to this process, how they feel, and what kind of negotiation they make in dealing with such conflicting identities. Chapter 8 shows how pre-service English teachers at Riau University experience these kinds of conflicts and challenges during their 16 week teaching practicum program.

A study by White and Moss (2003, as cited in Wilson, Hall, Davidson, & Lewin, 2006) reveals evidence of the development of beginner teachers' identities. The researchers conducted a study of 60 beginning teachers in a micro-study of the 'internship' experiences of teacher educators. They argued that the transition from pre-service training to being an employed teacher is marked by certain challenges and difficulties. Some have portrayed this as a process of gaining 'technical competence' and have documented the problems and deficits of the beginner teacher. By focusing on beginner teachers' stories, White and Moss (2003, p. 6) identify a 'silent rage' felt by many in their sample of new teachers and report that "while grappling with issues of professional identity, these teachers have been astounded at both the complexity of teaching and the lack of professionalism in the profession" (p. 6). Similarly, in his review of teacher inductions, Gold (1996 as cited in A. B. Grudnoff, 2007) concluded that feelings of disillusionment and feeling a lack of ability to cope with every day pressures were the greatest problems faced by new teachers.

With regard to these challenges and difficulties, some earlier studies of teachers' stages of development also suggest that the first teaching experience has frequently been found to be challenging and very difficult. A number of studies and reviews draw attention to the

‘transition shock’ that novices experience in their shift from being a pre-service student to being a teacher. A case study by Corcoran (1981), for example, suggests that it is a common phenomenon to see PSTs view the transition (from university to a school site as a beginner teacher) as an intense and challenging period. Having conducted several interviews and observations in the first 14 weeks of teaching by her participants, she concluded that the beginners are usually paralysed by the discovery that they do not have sufficient knowledge for all that they need to know, and are unable to effectively draw on either previous classroom training or the wide range of potentially helpful resources that surround them in a particular school. While describing this transition shock as a natural phenomenon, she also argued that this kind of feeling might be attributed to inadequate training and inappropriate supervision previously in the teacher education program.

In his classic study, Veenman (1984) also confirmed that the transition from teacher training to the first teaching job can be a dramatic and traumatic one. He used the concept of ‘reality shock’ to showcase the discrepancy between the idealised concepts the new teachers encounter during teacher training with the harsh and rude realities of everyday classroom life they meet (Veenman, 1984, p. 143). This ‘shocking’ situation could bring about changes in the beginning teachers’ perceptions of their subjectively experienced problems, their attitudes or belief systems to teaching methods, their personality and self-concepts, and their personal decisions to either stay or leave the teaching profession. From the 91 studies reviewed, Veenman identified 24 problems that are most frequently perceived by beginning teachers. The eight most frequently perceived problems were (in rank order) classroom discipline, motivating students, dealing with individual differences, assessing students' work, relationships with parents, the organisation of class work, insufficient materials and supplies, and dealing with problems of individual students. Some of these were reported by the participants of this study (in Chapters 7 and 8).

Although most research conducted in the area of teachers’ professional development as mentioned above focused more on investigating teachers who were categorised as novice teachers to expert teachers, it does not mean that these theories about and studies of teachers’ professional development are not applicable to PSTs who are still in their journey of becoming a novice teacher. To some extent, this present study uses these theories as a

framework to understand how PSTs transform themselves from being PSTs to being novice teachers during a teaching practicum.

4.2. Defining a Conducive Practicum for PST's Learning and Identity Construction

This study is not about evaluating the role of the practicum as part of teacher training. It does not ask, for example, if the practicum in question is good or effective in preparing student teachers' pedagogical competence. However, I consider that reviewing particular aspects of a conducive practicum is important not only because the practicum itself plays an important part in shaping PSTs' identity and their professional learning, as previously discussed, but also because it provides us with an insight into the improvement of a teaching program within teacher training programs. The term *conducive* here refers to the necessary conditions which enable the teaching practicum to be a right place for PSTs to undergo their professional learning experience and construction of their professional identity effectively. In conceptualising a conducive practicum, this review mainly draws on Cornu and Ewing's (2008) conceptual framework for developing high-quality professional experiences for PSTs as well as on Fung's (2005) philosophy of the teaching practicum.

Although Cornu and Ewing's (2008) theoretical framework is based on Australian pre-service teacher education context, their classification for professional experience orientations is applicable to PSTs' education programs in various contexts, including Indonesia. In terms of the orientation, they generally categorise the teaching practicum into "traditional, reflective and learning communities" (Cornu and Ewing, 2008, p. 1801). The traditional view of professional experience is reflected from the term used to describe it: *teaching practice*. From this view, PSTs put their newly acquired knowledge from their studies at university into practice during their practicum at schools. The process of learning to teach was theorised using a theory–practice dichotomy, that is, "when PSTs were at college or university they learnt 'the theory' and when they were in schools, they 'practised teaching'" (p. 1801). The focus of this traditional orientation firmly emphasised PSTs mastering skills, techniques and methods of teaching.

In terms of supervision, the traditional view emphasises the need for the supervision to enable PSTs to develop specific observable skills in teaching and to help them improve instruction (Nolan & Francis, 1992, as cited in Cornu & Ewing, 2008). The process was viewed as 'direct, overt surveillance' (Smyth, 1993 as cited in Cornu & Ewing, 2008 p. 1801) where clinical supervision models were implemented with the supervisors taking on the role of the 'critic'.

The *reflective* framework of professional experience then changes the nomenclature from *teaching practice* to *practicum.* The focus of this reflective professional experience is the professional decision-making under a reflective orientation, which is "when student teachers go beyond a consideration of the technical skills of teaching to consider the moral and ethical issues involved in teaching and learning in a particular social context" (Cornu & Ewing, 2008 p. 1802). The process of learning to teach in this orientation, therefore, included a recognition of personally owned professional knowledge, which is gradually built up by integrating learning in both university courses and school sites (Meere, 1993 as cited in Cornu & Ewing, 2008).

Professional experiences are viewed as opportunities for reflections on practice. There is a shift in emphasis from an exclusive focus on PSTs' teaching, to their own learning and the notion of a student teacher as a learner (Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1985 as cited in Cornu & Ewing, 2008). There was also an acknowledgment that each student brings a whole 'virtual schoolbag' (Thomson, 2002 as cited in Cornu & Ewing, 2008 p. 1802) of understanding, skills, expertise, experiences or 'institutional biographies' (Richardson, 1999 as cited in Cornu & Ewing, 2008) to the classroom rather than coming to the profession with a blank slate or tabula rasa.

The last model mentioned by Cornu and Ewing (2008) goes beyond reflective orientation, and speaks of professional experiences as *learning communities.* Drawing on the work of Lave and Wenger (1991) and Wenger (1999) who theorised *communities of practice* as particular kinds of networks of people who were engaging in a situated learning process, this orientation does not only remain committed to the notion of 'personally owned professional knowledge', it also extend beyond this view, from an individual focus to a shared focus. In

other words, the focus of learning to teach from this view has shifted from an individual to a group focus: "when working in a learning community, the aim is not just to develop one's own reflection skills but to facilitate the development of others' reflection skills also" (Cornu & Ewing, p.1803). With this model, the relationships between PSTs and mentor teachers or supervisors are characterised by *trust and reciprocity* with a strong appreciation of the critical nature of professional conversations for ongoing professional learning. Consistent with the framework of *learning communities*, "there is the potential for PSTs to be involved in more team teaching and shared risk taking rather than individual teaching and individual risk taking" (p.1803). At the same time, the role of supervisors is also different in this model. There is a significant emphasis on moving to more shared learning and a joint construction of what it means to teach, rather than supervisors being mere facilitators of reflection.

The last two models of professional experience proposed by Cornu and Ewing (2008) seem to be in line with the philosophy of the teaching practicum outlined by Fung (2005). The basic tenet of the teaching practicum philosophy in Fung's view is encapsulated by the term "*educative practicum*" which emphasises the function of the practicum as a site *for practice and learning from practice*. Fung (2005) further asserts that the teaching practicum is not only functional for PSTs to practice the teaching skills they have learned in university teacher education programs, it is also "a continuation of teacher education in another setting – a genuine classroom and school setting for PSTs to practice in and to learn from their practice" (Fung, 2005, p. 44). Fung noted that practicing and learning in this proposition is not the same as the traditional form of apprenticeship and work role socialisation. As mentioned by Cornu and Ewing (2008), such forms of learning practice tend to mislead PSTs into simply following and modeling their mentor teachers' teaching practices and the teaching norms in the school. Fung believed that the PSTs' imitation and direct modelling potentially leads to damage their development in teaching and learning as they do not have sufficient opportunities to construct their own solutions or develop their own strategies for improving their teaching.

For this reason, an 'ideal' practicum according to Zeichner (1993, as cited in Fung, 2005) is one which can help PSTs to act as serious learners *in* and *around* their practice. This means that, instead of blindly following the strategies and activities of their mentor teachers, PSTs

are supposed to commit themselves to take responsibility for their own professional development through reflection. This is important as schools are indeed functioning as social laboratories for PSTs to learn to test their teaching hypotheses (Hake, 1993 as cited in Fung, 2005), and to reflect on or improve their teaching practice.

These significant processes will not work if PSTs simply imitate and model others' teaching practices, which may not be in line with their own selves, abilities, interests, values, and beliefs. In other words the teaching practicum is a site for PSTs to experiment, reflect on, learn, and reconstruct their own teaching and learning, not to simply follow or imitate others' practice. To make this work, Fung (2005) emphasised that it is necessary for mentor teachers to play their role as a facilitator of reflection by posing some examples as well as guiding the PSTs to analyse and interpret their own teaching practices. They also need to challenge PSTs for value justifications and to encourage a positive outlook in teaching.

Furthermore, Fung (2005, p. 45) describes how the teaching practicum should be the place where PSTs could generate "individual theorising capacity through deeper understanding of underlying principles from theory and practice". To achieve this, PSTs need to reflect on the underlying principles of theory and practice. It is also important according to Fung (2005) to develop the capacity of mentor teachers, so that they can help PSTs to learn by demonstrating their ways of interpreting situations setting problems and conduct the professional analyses and value judgments they place on the corresponding contextual elements.

In the context of the practicum, Shulman (1988, as cited in Fung, 2005 p. 50) emphasised that in their first experience of learning to be teachers, PSTs need to learn to give an account of 'why you do what you do'. Other than asking questions of '*how* do my decisions work?', PSTs also have to ask '*why* do my decisions work?' Clear answers to these questions would create a strong theoretical basis from which PSTs could later direct and sustain their teaching. Most importantly, theories or practices cannot be taken for granted without being examined in genuine contexts of teaching.

In practice, PSTs could undergo the reflective processes by reframing the reality of their classroom teaching and reconstructing their practice. Fung (2005) believes that by

reconsidering their actions in the classroom – *what is done* and *why, who the pupils are*, and *how they themselves feel about all of this* – PSTs can renegotiate the meaning of their actions and reconstruct alternatives to their actions in the classroom. In other words, they are expected to be able to challenge their former conceptions and practices which they might have taken for granted.

These former practices and conceptions about teaching and learning might have been shaped from their past life experiences, such as schooling, which contributed to the provision of their 'virtual schoolbag', as previously discussed. Some are highly resistant to change their initial beliefs and this has frequently led them to have erroneous and simplistic beliefs about teaching, such as the belief that teaching is mainly for transmitting knowledge (Pajares, 1992 as cited in Fung, 2005). In the field, it is very likely that some PSTs often do not realise the importance of challenging their own beliefs. Therefore, a well-designed practicum program should be able to help PSTs understand the importance of this and subsequently transform their beliefs about teaching and learning.

Fung states that a conducive teaching practicum should be able to develop a collegial relationship of support and collaboration, not only between PSTs and their mentor teachers, but also with other teachers and professionals in the school at large. The teaching practicum should be framed around such a collegial-style support and work collaboration system, incorporating inquiry communities, networks, and collaborative teacher researchers. Fullan (1995, as cited in Fung, 2005) believes that collaborative skills and relationships enhance learning. The closest and most important partners of PSTs during the teaching practicum are their mentor teachers and their university lecturers. Therefore, it is important for PSTs to maintain a constant and egalitarian dialogue and open discussion with their mentors and supervisors, in the hope that they could facilitate the analysis and critique of the PSTs' thinking and beliefs about teaching and learning. This concern has been echoed in the participants' voices in this study.

Last but not least, an ideal teaching practicum according to Fung (2005) should be able to transform the PSTs in terms of their personal theory of teaching and learning. She explicitly asserts that as a part of teachers' education, the teaching practicum is a journey towards more

complex forms of thinking about teaching with the ultimate purpose of transforming the PST. Transformation, as projected by Perry (1970, cited in Fung, 2005), is a realisation of one's tasks in real life as intellectual, ethical, and questioning of one's identity in a world of multiple contexts. This transformation requires the learner to regard the self as a legitimate source of knowledge and to be conscious of the self as an active maker of meaning.

In a more technical sense, some researchers have emphasised that the practicum should be integrated with the degree and within the central management of the teacher education program (Beck & Kosnik, 2002). They also suggested that it should take place in certain 'innovative schools', perhaps ones partnered with the university in a joint program of research and teacher development. However, Lugton (2000) criticised a phenomenon in some developing countries where PSTs were frequently placed in some schools located in urban areas which are close to the university. In reality, upon graduation and certification, most PSTs would be placed in schools located in rural areas which might have huge differences to schools located in urban areas, in terms of environment, resources, and school cultures. Therefore, it is important for the university with a teacher education program to post more PSTs in rural area schools to enable them to get the opportunity to practice their teaching skills in locations similar to those in which they may eventually teach (Dove, 1986, as cited in Lugton, 2000).

Furthermore, it also important to discuss the timing of the teaching practicum – when would be the best and most productive time for the PST to experience it? Traditionally, the teaching practicum is usually placed at the end of a pre-service teacher education program, as is the case in many universities in Indonesia, including Riau University (see Table 3). This positioning implies, although unintentionally, that teaching experience is a culminating rather than a beginning point of the novice teacher's learning process (Lugton, 2000). In his review of pre-service teacher education in developing countries, Ghani (1990) sets forth some of the arguments for and against positioning the practicum at the end of a pre-service teacher education. Proponents of the 'practicum towards the end of the degree' approach argue that by the end of the pre-service teacher education program, the student will be sufficiently well-versed in educational theory and be sufficiently mature to apply his or her learning effectively (Ghani, 1990, p. 46 as cited in Lugton, 2000). However, this view overlooks the fact that

without a practical or applied setting in which to critically consider the theories on an ongoing basis, students may not integrate their theoretical learning into their practice teaching early on. This opinion also underestimates the multifaceted nature of the knowledge learned from the practicum and the difficulty in applying this knowledge to different teaching settings. Moreover, in the practicum with longer duration, the problem is also that students may have simply forgotten the stored theory by the time they reach at the practicum.

For the sake of the novice teacher's learning process, Ghani (1990 as cited in Lugton, 200) proposed another option: that it would be better to conduct a teaching practicum at the same time the PSTs are learning theory during their preservice teacher education program. "If teaching practice occurs at the same time that theory is being learned, its relevance may more easily be seen, learned and applied" (1990, p. 46 as cited in Lugton, 2000). Lugton believes that this approach will not only harmonise the practicum with the notion of holistic learning but also increase the relevance of the practice teaching.

4.3. Chapter Summary

In the continuum of one's constantly evolving self, the practicum is considered a place of transit where a PST transforms his or her identity from a student to a novice-teacher. This transformation can be said to have occurred when the PST holds a sense of collective identity – that is, when she or he feels like an "insider" – being a part of an English teachers' community. As discussed above the three modes of engagement, imagination, and alignment in their participation with a community of practice are central to this sense of belonging.

This chapter has discussed important key concepts within this proposed study: identity, the professional identity of teachers, the nature of construction of identity, the professional English teacher, a teacher's stages of professional development, and the teaching practicum as a community in which PSTs participate, and construct or reconstruct the foundations of their professional identity. Some of these key concepts raised by other researchers in this area have been collectively discussed and will be employed in this study. This means that together these concepts constitute the epistemological framework on which this study is based. This

concept will also be used as a framework to understand data from participants, when applied in Chapter 8.

V. DESIGNING THE STUDY: METHODOLOGY

"The only generalization is: there is no generalization"

(Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 27)

This study aims to gain an in-depth understanding about how a group of pre-service English teachers navigate their journey to becoming novice English teachers during their teaching practicum. It specifically explores how these PSTs embark on the English teaching profession as well as examines how they construct and develop their early professional identities as teachers' during the practicum, in terms of their understanding of the notion of 'good English teaching' and the 'professional English teacher' in the context of teaching English as a foreign language in Indonesia.

In the previous chapter, I reviewed related theoretical concepts employed in this study and have discussed the complexities of these notions with reference to scholarly literature. The review was built on two separate chapters. While the earlier focused on the notion of identity, the latter reviewed the teaching practicum as community of practice. Together these two concepts are the most important concepts employed in this study. This review has built a conceptual framework in understanding data from participants with this chapter presenting the study design or methodological aspects of the study and describing the rationales used in the choice of particular research methods.

This chapter also details how these methodological principles were designed, developed, and represented in the context of this research. The first section explains the paradigm and approach employed as philosophical perspectives underpinning this research. Sections two and three describe the participants - how they were selected and their brief profiles. Sections four and five discuss the way data was collected and analysed. Sections six and seven discuss the ethical aspects of the study and the role of the researcher. The last section deals with validity and reliability issues relevant to this study.

5.1. Research Paradigm and Approach

This is a qualitative case study conducted under an interpretive research paradigm. From an ontological perspective, unlike the position of the positivist paradigm in which there is the belief that there is only one truth and that objective reality does exist independent of human perception, this study employs the constructivist view of reality and the essence of phenomenon. The constructivists view truth as relative and dependent on one's perspective. This paradigm "recognises the importance of the subjective human creation of meaning, but doesn't reject outright some notion of objectivity" (Crabtree & Miller, 1999, p. 10). This study concurs with constructivists in that subjectivity is an inevitable part of our endeavour to understand a phenomenon, and reality is constructed and reconstructed through the process of human and social interaction (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). In my case, participants' subjectivities are an inevitable part of my endeavour to understand the issues of the construction of teachers' professional identity, which my research focuses on.

With regard to the aims of this study, as mentioned earlier, I believe that understanding can be drawn from a deep and careful analysis of participants' biographies, their schooling and teacher training experiences, and their everyday teaching practicum experiences. Participants' experiences were gathered from various methods of data collection (which will be described in section 5.4), and analysis was conducted to make sense of their experiences. As Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2004, p. 3) state, "If you want to understand the meaning of a particular subject, if you want to listen to the subjective experience of others and somehow make sense of them, you may want to consider a qualitative methodology for your research". Therefore, the qualitative approach is considered appropriate for this study.

The nature of teachers' lives and work represents a complex reality that is in practice difficult to investigate through quantitative methods, such as an experiment or a survey. It is argued in this study that exploring the way PSTs construct professional identities would be best uncovered by means of dialogue and conversations, a narrative approach, or through the use of methods of personal reflection. PSTs' participation and interaction within teaching communities during practicum, or their beliefs about teaching and classroom practices, could be better explored through a multi-method approach, which is explained in more detail later in the next section of this chapter.

Additionally, drawing on the qualitative research paradigm, this study views that the complex issues surrounding the construction of professional identity can be better researched and understood through a naturalistic approach which "seeks to understand phenomena in context-specific settings" (Patton, 2002, p. 39), by deeply analysing bits of participants' responses in forms of words and descriptive data, rather than through numerical data. The deep analysis of that descriptive data enables one to come up with rich detailed information of a phenomenon under investigation.

Furthermore, within the qualitative approach, this research has been conceptualised and designed as a case study. Merriam-Webster's Dictionary (in Flyvbjerg, 2011, p. 301) defines a case study as "an intensive analysis of an individual unit (as a person or community) stressing developmental factors in relation to environment". The definition stipulates that apart from focusing on an individual unit, case studies are also "intensive". Thus, case studies comprise more detail, richness, completeness, and variance - that is, depth - for the unit of study than does cross-unit analysis. Case studies stress developmental factors, meaning that a case typically evolves over time, often as a string of concrete and interrelated events that occur at specific times and places and that constitute the case when seen as a whole. Finally, case studies focus on relation to environment or context (Flyvbjerg, 2011).

This research is considered a case study for three main reasons. *Firstly*, the nature of this study focused on a deep analysis of a particular group of people at a particular place and at particular times. The issue of particularity is central for a case study. As Stake (1995, p. xi) maintains, a case study is "the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances". In this case, the group investigated in this study was a cohort of PSTs from the English Education department of Riau University who did a teaching practicum in secondary schools in Riau, Indonesia.

The second reason relates to what Yin (2003) suggested about case study design which should be considered when: (a) the focus of the study is to answer 'how' and 'why' questions; (b) you cannot manipulate the behaviour of those involved in the study; (c) you want to cover contextual conditions because you believe they are relevant to the phenomenon under study; or (d) the boundaries are not clear between the phenomenon and context. In the

case of my study, in seeking the answer to my research questions (as outlined in section 1.3), I was not able to manipulate the behaviour of the participants involved in this study. Rather, I solely relied on every single response of my participants throughout various methods of data collection in finding out the answers. In addition, I think that the contextual conditions (such as school cultures, socio-cultural and political practices) were also relevant and an inseparable part of the phenomenon of teachers training being observed. All of the reasons above convinced me that it was methodologically conducive to enact this study through a case study approach.

To be more specific, this study is a *descriptive case study* (Merriam, 1998), as it produces a rich and in-depth description of the phenomenon (the metamorphosis of teachers' identities over time) under study. This study investigated and explored in detail the complexities of each pre-service English teacher's personal stories behind the decision to become an English teacher and looked at their experiences during the teaching practicum in terms of the construction of their professional identities. From a slightly different perspective, this study could also be categorised as an *intrinsic* case *study* (Stake, 2005 in O'Toole & Becket, 2010) in the sense that this project was aimed at developing a deeper understanding and conceptualising of a specific phenomenon (construction of professional identity), and not intended to achieve generalisability as in the case of an *instrumental case study*. In other words, it looked at the complexities and the uniqueness of phenomena.

Creswell (2003, p. 485) defines the case study as "an in-depth exploration of a bounded system (e.g., an activity, event, process, or individuals) based on extensive data collection" (p. 485). Creswell recommends the case study as a methodology if the problem to be studied "relates to developing an in-depth understanding of a 'case' or bounded system" (p. 496) and if the purpose is to understand "an event, activity, process, or one or more individuals" (p. 496). A system is a collection of interacting things or parts into a functioning whole. According to Creswell (2003, p. 485), " 'Bounded' means that the case is separated out for research in terms of time, place, or some physical boundaries". In other words, it is possible to create limits around the object to be studied (Merriam, 1998).

Since a case is a ‘bounded system’ with ‘functioning specifics” (Stake, 2008), it is important to clearly define the case(s) within my study. The clear definition could clarify the people to be included as research participants and the specific context to be examined (Miles & Huberman, 1994). A clear context becomes especially important in the case of this study as this project is aimed at exploring the self and the construction of identity by PSTs during their interaction and socialisation in their practicum. It is argued in this thesis that “if we are to study lives, including selves in social interaction we must study them from *within* the social contexts they unfold, not separate from them” (Holstein & Gubrium, 2000, p. 33).

As reviewed in Chapter 3, previous research on the construction of teachers’ identities (e.g., Beijaard et al., 2004; Beijaard et al., 2000; Canrinus et al., 2011) indicate that the process of identity construction is highly complex, and influenced by and related to many factors both from the personal dimensions of the individual teachers (e.g. individual’s childhood, family background, and previous schooling experience) and external factors (e.g. cultural values, societies’ expectations and policy in education). In this study, this process can be visualised as three non-concentric circles with one bigger circle intercepting part of the first three circles. The process of teachers’ identity in the making lies at the centre of the first bigger circle. Teacher education in Indonesia as a socio-cultural and political dimension, as well as government and policy in Indonesia, lie at the outmost external part of the three circles.

In the context of boundaries of this case study, they function as several backgrounds (macro contexts) that might be significant in contributing to the process of construction of teachers’ identities by the pre-service English teachers. The boundaries are also specified by some micro contexts, such as the ELT curriculum in Indonesia, Indonesian teachers’ certification programs, family and schooling experiences, pre-service English teacher education and the specifics of the teaching practicum at Riau University (see Figure 6 for details). All of these micro contexts are considered essential elements, which cannot be separated from the phenomenon under investigation. They have uniquely influenced construction of professional identity by PSTs, including their unique stories and reasons for becoming an English teacher; their perceptions of what it means to be a *professional English teacher*; and their personal transformation to becoming a novice teacher during the teaching practicum.

The circles that make up the process of the teachers' professional identities in the making can be illustrated by the following graph:

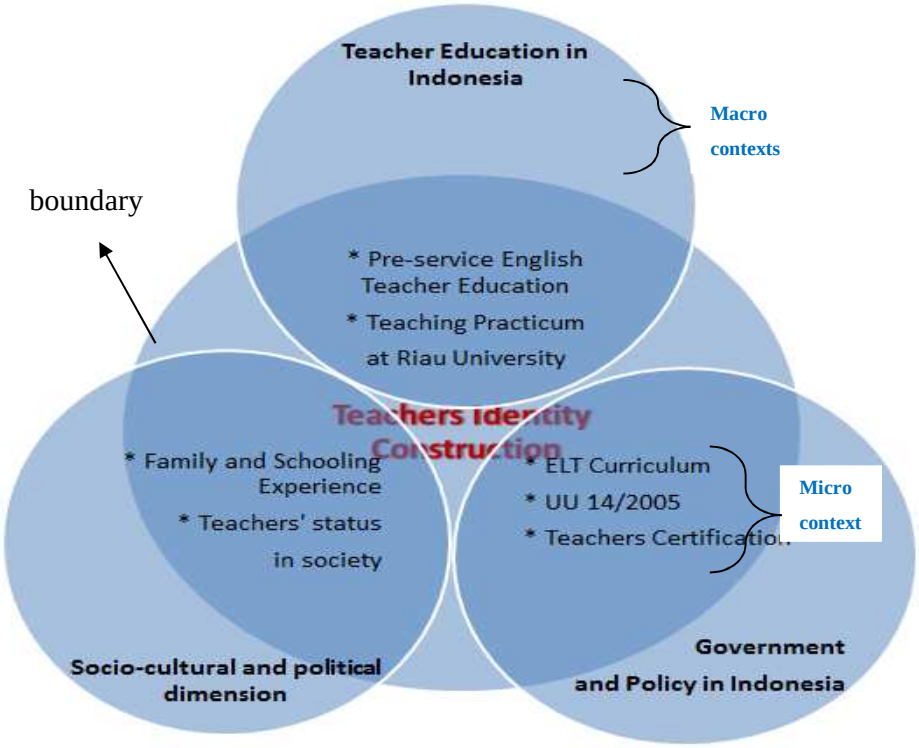


Figure 6. The case: pre-service teachers' identity construction in the Indonesian context

These circles are considered as building the bounded system of my case study in the sense that I have focused on seeing professional identity construction from the individual perspectives of pre-service English teachers themselves, within the context of the teaching practicum as part of their teacher education program at Riau University, in Indonesia. This means that this study is not projected to explaining all PSTs in Indonesia, nor all pre-service English teachers in Riau University; my study is rather bounded only to the perspectives of certain individuals who participated in this study. However, as mentioned earlier, the nature of the teaching practicum program in each placement school is an inseparable context from the phenomenon that I investigated.

Consistent with the principles of the interpretive research paradigm as discussed earlier in this chapter, this research did not take the issue of representativeness or generalisabilty as important aspects of the study, as Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 27) strongly declare, “the only generalization is: there is no generalization". Rather, what is important in this study is the complexity and boundaries of the case. Like other studies typical of qualitative research, the in-depth analysis and description of the researched phenomenon is the main concern of this study. In other words, the findings of this study would only be valid and true within its specific context or boundaries and these principles also imply that other researchers in different contexts and different research settings might have different findings regarding the same topic.

While it is impossible to generalise the findings of this context specific study, they could be applicable to larger contexts with similar situations. The findings might be also true for other people in different settings, or similar projects using the same methods but conducted in different environments, although establishing this is not the intention of this project. As Stake (1995, as cited in Shenton, 2003, p. 69) suggested, “although each case may be unique, it also an example within a broader group and, as a result, the prospect of transferability should not be immediately rejected”. For this reason, I anticipated some elements of *transferability* of the findings of this study to a different context. The basic tenet of transferability in the context of a qualitative study is that that the findings have the potential to be applicable in similar contexts.

5.2. Research Participants: Recruitment

For my research participants I chose ten pre-service English teachers from the Faculty of Education at Riau University, Indonesia who were about to begin their teaching practicum program in early October 2012. These pre-service English teachers were all English department students who started studying at Riau University in 2009 and were at the beginning of their fourth year of study when they participated in this research. As mentioned in Chapter 2, as part of the requirements to be entitled to join the practicum program, they had passed all the required coursework before they embarked on the practicum. The detailed profiles of each participant are presented in the following section.

The participants were chosen by *purposeful random* sampling (Patton, 2002). This means that I deliberately targeted particular groups of people as my potential research participants and some individuals within the group were randomly selected. In other words, those who are not English department students of FKIP at Riau University or those who were not about to do their practicum in October 2012 were excluded from being potential participants. This kind of purposeful selection of participants is deemed appropriate in qualitative research as "it will best help the researcher understand the research question" (Creswell, 2003, p. 185).

The selection process was conducted as follows. *Firstly*, I invited potential participants by posting an open and a general invitation on Riau University's English Department Students' Facebook group with my contact details on it (a screenshot of the invitation is attached in *Appendix* 4). This Facebook group has members of almost all registered students of English education departments from many cohorts, including the students I was targetting as my research participants as mentioned above. At the time I posted the invitation, there were 270 students listed as registered members.

I posted the invitation in September 2012 soon after my research Ethics application was approved by Monash University's Ethics Committee and right after I finished my Confirmation Seminar on 18 September 2012. The reason I had to post it first through the Facebook group was because I was still in Australia at that time. I needed to make contact with all potential participants as soon as possible, considering they were supposed to start their practicum by mid October 2012 in accordance with Riau University's Faculty of Teachers Training and Education (FKIP) academic calendar. One of the important stages of my research scenario was that I would conduct first round interviews with partcipants before they embarked on their placement schools (pre-practicum interviews).

Secondly, as soon as I arrived in Indonesia for data collection early in October 2012, I printed out the invitation and put the open announcement for recruitment on notice-boards around the Faculty of Teachers Training and Education of Riau University requesting reseach participation. The invitation from the Facebook group, however, was more effective in attracting the candidates as the responses from potential participants seemed more referred to the research by the Facebook group announcement.

I initially planned to have six to eight participants for my study as suggested by the panel members of my research confirmation seminar. Yet, responses from the potential participants were really strong. There were more than ten pre-service English teachers who confirmed their willingness to participate, either through Facebook or via personal messages to my mobile. Once I got initial responses, I contacted them to reconfirm their willingness to participate before finally deciding on the first ten confirmed pre-service English teachers who responded, as research participants. I considered ten a sufficient number of participants to generate in-depth data for my qualitative study offering relatively rich and different perspectives. This number also provided me some leeway if any participants withdrew from participation in the middle of the data collection process. By the end of data gathering, however, none of them decided to pull out from being participants.

Furthermore, once approval to be participants was gained, Explanatory Statements and Consent Forms (see *Appendices* 5 and 6) for this study were delivered in person by seeing the confirmed candidates at the Riau University campus prior to their departure to their school placements. I re-explained the nature of this study, its aims and objectives, and why their partcipation in this study was significant. At this stage, the issue of confidentiality was also addressed by explaining some points within the Consent Forms stating that all data would be kept confidential in a storage system at Monash University over a period of time, and only accessible to the researchers. The volountary nature of participation was highlighted during the explanation. After the Consent Forms were signed, the first round of interviews were scheduled, depending on each participant's availability. All of these procedures were carefully undertaken to make sure that there was no potential bias from the research process which could harm or create disadvantage for participants (Flick, 2002).

5.3. Participants' Demographic Profiles

As mentioned earlier, there were ten pre-service English teachers taking part in this study. They were all students of the English education department of the Teachers Training and Education Faculty (FKIP) of Riau University. Seven participants were females and the other three were males. This number is arbitrary, as gender was not considered a variable in this study. They were arround 21-23 years old when they participated in this project. They enrolled at the faculty in the same year (the class of 2009) and were at the same stage of their

coursework when they participated in this study. Some of them had received some teaching experience before they conducted their practicum, but others had not. With the exception of Arel and Demire, all participants were placed in public high schools. All schools in the practicum program were based in rural areas around the provincial capital of Pekanbaru, except for SMP 1 Tapung, which was located about 40 kilometres outside the city. The following table (Table 3) summarises participants' demographic information and is followed by their brief profiles (see also *Appendix* 7 for more demographic information about the participants):

Table 4. Participants' demographic profiles

Name	Sex	Age	Working Experience	
			Teaching	Length
Selly	F	21	Yes	1 year
Rike	F	22	No	NA
Ayi	F	21	Yes	1 year
Arel	M	21	Yes	6 months
Dewinta	F	23	Yes	2 years
Nisa	F	20	No	NA
Evi	F	21	No	NA
Dodi	M	21	No	NA
Maysil	F	20	No	NA
Demire	M	23	Yes	2 years

The analysis and discussion parts of this study (Chapters 6, 7 and 8) are structured around the particular themes participants engaged in rather than case studies from each of them as PSTs. Below are short vignettes about each participant. The information about participants was gathered based on personal information forms they completed before the first round of interviews (see *Appendix* 8) as well as from conversations with them during the interviews. Some additional information was also gathered through follow up questions via personal emails and Facebook messages. These short vignettes provide a useful point of reference throughout the thesis and give a 'face' to the name. I have chosen pseudonyms for the student participants in the interests of privacy.

Selly:

Selly is a cheerful girl. She was born and grew up in Pekanbaru, the capital city of Riau province, Indonesia. She was 21 years old at the time she participated in this study. She is the first child and the only daughter in her family. Selly was raised in a 'teacher family'. Her mother is an elementary school teacher and her father is a director in a private company (a building contractor). Many of her relatives are also teachers; two of her aunts are Biology and English teachers in Bengkalis, Riau. Her uncle used to work as a lecturer at Riau University as well. When she was about five to six years old, she often followed her mother to school and 'observed' her mother teaching in class. She had been inspired to choose teaching as her professional career while she was still in primary school. Therefore, she decided to pursue her study to be a student in the English education department at the FKIP of Riau University. She initially planned to study in Java Island, going out of her hometown. Yet, her parents did not let her go far away from home. In terms of teaching experience, she had never experienced teaching in formal public schools, but she already taught some primary school students privately at home before she went to her teaching practicum program. This 'private tutoring' is a common practice in Indonesia where teachers come to the students' home for conducting private classes.

Rike:

Rike was born and had grown up in Pekanbaru, but her parents were originally from Pariaman, West Sumatera, a neighbouring province to Riau, located 200 km away from Pekanbaru. She is the eldest child in her family. Unlike Selly who was raised by a 'teaching family', both of Rike's parents are traders. Her father died when she was doing her practicum in January 2013. She admitted that she had no intention at all to be a professional English teacher before she attended the English education department at the FKIP. Her reason to join the English education department was because she wanted improve her English, as she believes that having good English proficiency is very important. She was 21 years old when she participated in this study. Unlike Selly, she had no teaching experience at all before she did her teaching practicum.

Ayi:

Ayi was 21 years old when she participated in this study. She was born in Pekanbaru, Riau province. She was also raised in a 'teaching family'. Her father was a teacher trainer in Riau's provincial training centre and her mother was a housewife. She grew up among family members of whom some are teachers. An elder brother is teaching at university and some of her relatives are also teaching in primary and secondary schools. She said that she already had a dream to be a teacher when she was still in junior high school. She loved playing with children. Before going on the practicum, she already conducted a private class, teaching English for elementary school students at her home. She told me that she sometimes had discussions about her practicum experience with her father at home. She considered her father as a 'second mentor teacher' for her during the practicum.

Arel:

Arel was 20 years old at the time of this study. He was born in Tanjung Batu, Kundur, a small island located in Kepri province. It is located in the eastern part of Sumatera, approximately 350 kilometres from Pekanbaru. Arel usually takes more than nine and half hours from his hometown to travel to the city of Pekanbaru by public transport. He is the eldest child of two brothers in his family. He completed all his primary and high schooling in his hometown. During data collection, Arel articulated tension between his personal and professional subjectivities, namely how he negotiated between his dream career of being a policeman with the reality of studying at an English education department. When he finished his senior high school, with the full support of his family members, he wanted to be a policeman. Unfortunately, he did not pass selection for joining the police force. He wanted to try again in the following year. Yet, while waiting for the following year's selection process, his father suggested that he go to university, so he could have qualifications. He chose to study at the English education department, not because he wanted to be an English teacher. Instead, it was because he just loved English. It is probably because he wanted to be a policeman that he deliberately chose to do his practicum at SMK Taruna Pekanbaru. This is a semi-

military school based system where students were treated like members of the armed forces. All students are males and they are treated according to strong disciplinary rules and processes. Before going on the practicum, he had been teaching English in private mode for four to five secondary school students at his home for six months. Although enjoying the dynamics of the practicum, by the end of the practicum he consistently stated that he still wanted to be a policeman, not an English teacher.

Dewinta:

Dewinta was 23 years old when she took part in this study. She was born in Pekanbaru but grew up in Batam Island as her family moved there until she was in year five of her primary schooling. After that, she returned back to Pekanbaru and resumed her schooling in this town. She stayed with her grandmother in Pekanbaru as her parents still lived on Batam Island. Her father was a businessman and her mother was a housewife. Some of her close relatives (like her aunts and nieces) were teachers. She loved studying English, but never thought to be an English teacher before she joined the English education department. Instead, she once dreamed of being a doctor when she was in her high school. However, because she was not selected by the medical faculty, she went to the English education department as her second choice. Before going to her practicum program, she had been teaching English for high school students in a branch of the *Primagama Quantum Kids English* (a privately owned Educational institution) as well as conducting home based English tutoring for at least two years.

Nisa:

Nisa was 20 years old when she agreed to participate in this research project. She was born in Pekanbaru, and grew up in Bengkalis, a small town well-known as an oil generating area in Riau, located about 120 kilometres from Pekanbaru. She completed all of her primary and high school education in this 'oil town'. In terms of family background, she was also raised in a 'teaching family'. Her father is a retired government officer and her mother is a schoolteacher. Many of her relatives (such as her aunts and brothers in law) are also teachers. She was accustomed to being around

teachers' daily activities when she was a child. She started to love the teaching profession when during her childhood she frequently 'observed' her mother's life as a teacher. Having graduated from high school, she went to the English Education department at Riau University because she did have a dream to be a professional English teacher. She had no teaching experience at all before she conducted her teaching practicum.

Evi:

Evi was 21 years old when she was first interviewed for this study. She was born in and grew up in Bengkalis. Evi and Nisa already knew each other before they went to the English education department of Riau University. They attended the same high school in Bengkalis. Evi is the youngest child in a large family. Her parents were originally from West Sumatera but they migrated to Bengkalis few years after they got married. Her father was a retired employee of PLN (the state owned electricity company) and her mother was a full time housewife. Evi mentioned that some of her relatives, like her aunts and uncles, were schoolteachers. She joined the English education department because she loves English. She also deliberately wanted to be an English teacher. She narrated that she was first inspired to be a schoolteacher when she was impressed with her aunt's teachers' uniforms. She thought that it was great to see teachers wearing the uniform.

Dodi:

Dodi was 20 years old when he participated in this study. He was born in Kuala Merbau, Kepulauan Meranti regency, Riau province. He spent all of his childhood and primary as well as secondary schooling in his hometown. Kuala Merbau is a rural area, located around 300 kilometers from the capital city of Riau. In terms of socio-economic background, most of people in Kuala Merbau worked as farmers, labourers, and fishermen. Dodi's mother was a farmer and his father passed away before he was born. As the first child in his family, Dodi usually helps his mother to look after his youger brothers and sisters. Having been inspired by his favourite English teacher when he was

in high school, he decided to purse his study at the English education department at Riau university. He loved English and wanted to be an English teacher. He wanted to do something significant for improving the quality of life for people in his hometown. He proved this by being selected for a student exchange program to Japan recently under a program called the *40th Ship for Southeast Asian Youth Programme - SSEAYP 2013*. Regarding his teaching practicum, as he loved challenges, he deliberately chose to be placed in a high school located in a rural area, SMP Tapung, located about 60 kilometres outside Pekanbaru city. This is a school with a majority of students coming from lower socio-economic backgrounds.

Maysil:

Maysil's grandparents from the side of her mother were originally from Java. They migrated to Pekanbaru before 1945. Maysil was born in, grew up in, and finished her high school education here, including her university life in Pekanbaru. She was also from a 'teaching family'. Her father is a teacher at a vocational high school in Pekanbaru and her mother is a civil servant. She said that five of her relatives, like her uncles and aunts from her father's side, are also teachers or university lecturers. However, she did not intend to be a teacher initially. Instead, she wanted to be a tour guide. She loves travelling and meeting with new people. She also loves learning about other cultures, including English speaking ones. She decided to enrol in the English education department of Riau University, because she wanted to improve her English proficiency. She found the practicum really challenging with various conflict and tensions. She articulated that her father's unconditional support at home contributed to help her feel confident in dealing with the challenges she faced during her practicum.

Demire:

Demire was 23 years old when he participated in this research project. He was born in Pasaman, West Sumatera. He is the eldest son in a large family with nine brothers and sisters. His parents got divorced when he was five years old, therefore he had to help his mother to support his family, including earning an income. He was the only

participant who had quite an extensive working (and teaching) history before he embarked on the teaching practicum. He had even started to earn money by being a newspaper boy when he was six years old. He came across as smart and a quick learner. Apart from learning English at school, he also learned English independently. Having good English speaking skills, he had been working as an English instructor in various institutions even before he joined Riau University's English education department. Therefore, it is no wonder that his English proficiency is above average compared to his fellow pre-service English teachers. He proved to be proficient in English by being a professional debate trainer for high school students around Pekanbaru while he was studying at Riau University. He was also the only participant who used English for all interviews and reflective journals for this study. Although Demire had strong English proficiency, he said that he did not really want to be a professional English teacher. He preferred to run a business for a living as it could make more money. He also wanted to experience new challenges by doing other jobs other than teaching English. He considered being an English teacher not challenging enough for him. Section 8.2 specifically looks into his dilemmas.

5.4. Methods of Data Collection

I employed three specific methods for collecting data in this study: in-depth interviews, guided reflective journals, and a focus group discussion (FGD). Data was gathered from October 2012 to February 2013. One individual interview with each participant was conducted before they embarked on their practicum. During the 16 weeks of the practicum, all participants were required to write fortnightly journals, reflecting on their experience during the practicum. After the practicum every participant was again interviewed by me, followed by a focus group discussion as the final method of data collection. The transcription and translation process was processed simultaneously as the process of data collection was conducted (see Figure 7 for a step by step breakdown of the process of data gathering, data processing, and data analysis). The following section discusses in detail the rationales behind each method of data collection as well as the procedures I took when I collected the data.

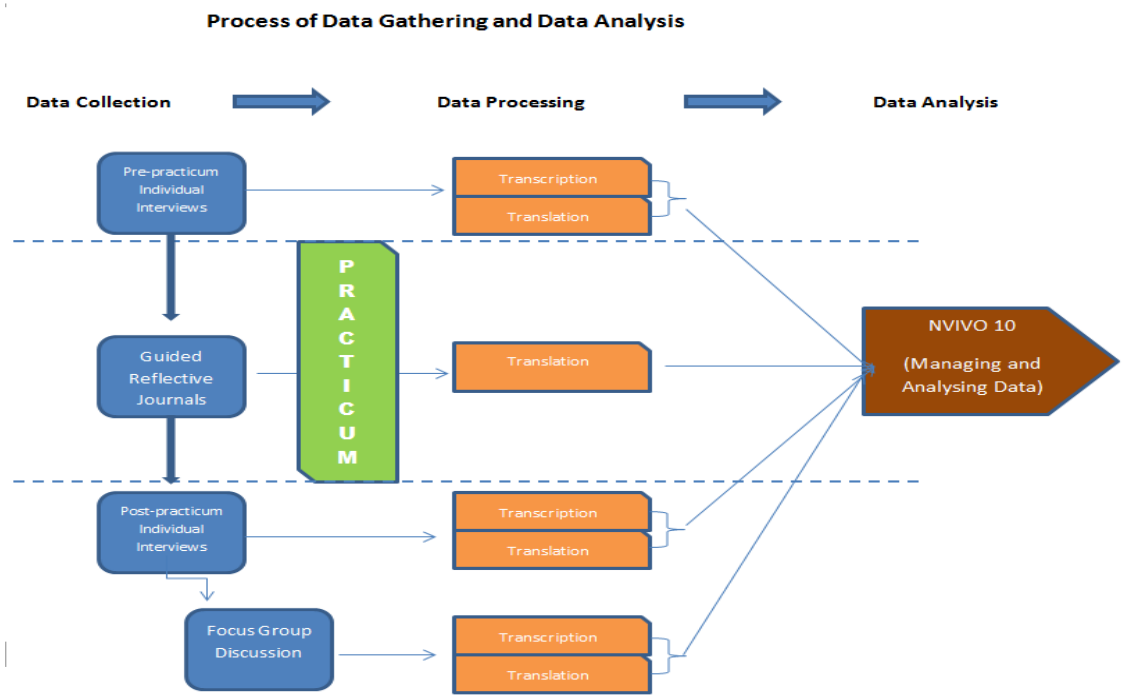


Figure 7. Process of data gathering and analysis

5.4.1. Semi-structured Interviews

The first method of data collection employed was the use of *semi-structured interviews* conducted at two different periods – before and after the teaching practicum. The (semi-structured) interview was chosen because I believe it would enable me to get more comprehensive data about the topic I was investigating. This was possible because it allowed me to have direct interaction with individuals on a one to one basis through interviews. As McDonough and McDonough (1997, p. 184) suggest, the interview is considered "being close to the qualitative paradigm because it allows for richer interactions and more personalized responses". In addition, the semi-structured nature of the interview provided me a sense of flexibility in collecting data as I could improvise and generate new questions during the interviews for collecting potential data relevant to the topic being investigated. This was because the list of questions in the interview protocol was considered only a way of organising the interview rather than a way of standardising the data. Making new questions

during the interviews was permissible, as Hancock (1998, p. 9) suggests, "in a semi structured interview the interviewer also has the freedom to probe the interviewee to elaborate on the original response or to follow a line of inquiry introduced by the interviewee". From this perspective, a researcher's way of generating new questions could be understood as his way to promote the dynamic nature of this type of interview, and to obtain richness from the data.

To be more specific, in the case of this study the interviews were chosen as one of the main tools in gathering data for several reasons. Firstly, issues related to the professional identities of teachers require understanding of the internal and external concepts that teachers form of themselves; and the exploration is essentially driven by discourse. In other words, narrating personal stories of engagement with significant others in the form of a live interview is essential to enable them to interpret and reinterpret their experiences. This study concurs with Beijaard's (2004) view that the professional identity of teachers is historically, socially and culturally constructed by *interpreting and reinterpreting experiences* and by talking about these experiences with oneself (inner speech or introspection) and with others. In other words, the issues related to identity construction could be documented through the analysis of each participant's subjective stories or narratives. In this study, the interviewees did speak a lot about, for example, their personal histories, family and school backgrounds, their reasons for study at the English education department, their motivation to be an English teacher, and their cognitive understanding of English teaching and the notion of being a professional English teacher in Indonesia.

Secondly, by interviewing the research participants twice during the process (before and after the practicum), this method allowed me to monitor the development of participants' perceptions, beliefs, motivations, attitudes, and expectations about the nature of becoming an English teacher. This is drawn from the understanding that identity of teachers stems from a neverending process of construction; it is a fluid process and subject to change over time, depending on specific contexts around the construction of the identity. As Bouma and Ling (2004, p. 180) believe, the interview provides the "greatest opportunity to find out how someone thinks or feels and how they react to various issues and situations".

The third reason for using interviews in this study was because interviews provided an opportunity for me to interact directly on two different occasions with each of the research participants. In other words, the interviews were useful in terms of the potential for getting the story behind a participant's experiences. They allow us to "enter into other person's perspectives" (Patton, 2002, p. 341). These face-to-face encounters allowed me to clarify particular issues and ask follow up questions. I could also observe non-verbal communication, (such as eye contact, or cues to frankness and meaning) used to further the conversation. Some of these have been noted in the transcripts in the following chapters. Indonesian was used as the main language of the interaction, since I believe that this promoted the natural flow of the conversation and represented a spontaneous tool for the expression of meaning.

Furthermore, the first round of interviews was intended to explore participants' biographies – both personal and institutional life histories (Britzman, 2003) – in terms of tracking their stories in deciding to study at an English education department and exploring their motivations to be English teachers. The interview was also utilised to explore participants' views on good *English language teaching* and what it means to be a *professional English teacher* in the context of teaching English as a foreign language in Indonesia, as well as to see how their early teaching identities are shaped and reshaped by sites of influence, such as social, economic, politic and educational settings (see appendix 9). Additionally, the interview aimed to find participants' feelings and expectations about their practicum program before they embarked on the practicum.

The second round of interviews was then conducted to revisit participants' conceptualisations of the notion of 'good English language teaching' and what it meant to be a 'professional English teacher' in Indonesia. This post-practicum interview specifically aimed to examine if there were any changes to and development in participants' understanding of these two notions after they finished with their practicum program. Hypothetically if participants brought up new or different ideas, questions of the second interview were directed at exploring the reasons or complexities behind the changes accordingly (see *Appendices* 9 and 10 for the complete interview protocol for both pre- and post-practicum interviews).

In addition, considering my own position as a teacher educator who also shared similar experiences in the past with the study participants, I concur with Chowdhury (2008) who argues interviews are a site wherein knowledge is jointly constructed by participants' own experiences and the researcher's experience of the same phenomenon. This notion was first coined by Mercer (1995, p. 3) who believed, "the nature of knowledge is a joint possession, as it can be very effectively shared". In Mercer's view, what makes knowledge understandable is the point when "people put it into words" (p. 120) and share it with others. Therefore, the use of talks is central to the construction of knowledge. In the context of this study, I hoped to get in-depth information about the complexities of PSTs' identity construction through interviews as I can jointly construct my understanding of this topic by sharing the participants' experiences during the practicum and my own experiences in the past. I discuss my own role as a researcher further in section 5.7.

As mentioned in the previous section, I had to arrange the interviews as soon as I arrived in Indonesia, as the PSTs (the study's potential participants) were officially about to embark to their placement schools. Fortunately, participants who had confirmed a willingness to participate in this study were reconfirmed not long after I arrived in Indonesia. After confirming the interview schedules with all participants, the first round of interviews (pre-practicum interviews) were conducted during the first weeks of October 2012. The interviews were all held in the provincial state library, located in the heart of Pekanbaru city. The reason behind choosing this place was because it was easily accessible by everyone involved, and also because it could be considered a 'neutral' place where participants and the researcher could feel comfortable and at ease.

The interviews lasted for around 30 minutes each. Two participants were interviewed per day. The interviews were conducted in Bahasa Indonesia to enable the student teachers to freely and fluently explore any ideas in their minds without necessarily worrying about the language barrier issue. However, one participant – Demire – preferred to do the interview in English. The interviews were recorded with two digital devices at the same time. The main device for digital voice recording was an Olympus VN-711PC and the second device was my mobile phone device (iPhone 3G) for a back-up file, in case I had a problem with the main digital recorder. The audio recording was immediately copied and transferred to my laptop as

well as my fieldwork folder in my cloud on Google Drive. The folder was shared and connected with my research supervisors' Google Drive, so my supervisor could review and see the progress of my field trip and or data collection by looking at the files I posted to the shared folder, such as audio files and corresponding transcripts.

As soon as I finished the interviews, I transcribed the interviews. This prompt transcription is important in capturing what actually happened during the interviews as they were still fresh in my mind, including the participants' facial expressions, tone, intonations, and other body language. These kinds of intangible meta-linguistic aspects of interviews in many ways could enrich the understanding and interpreting of what participants said. Therefore, I made notes and annotations about non-verbal language in my transcription. After transcribing, I also imediately translated the transcriptions into English. The translation was finalised a few weeks after the interviews. I did immediate translations and annotations while I was collecting participants' reflective journals as well – another method of data collection (I will discuss this second data gathering tool in the next section).

With regard to the nature of translation, I am aware that there is a potential of ideas being lost in translation as commonly happens in the translation process. The lost in translation phenomenon could later create an issue for validity of a study (Temple & Young, 2004) as meaning is constructed in language. To deal with this issue, I did not translate the words literally into English. Instead, some culturally specific words mentioned by participants were kept in Bahasa Indonesia as they were. I explained the words with descriptions if I referred to the specific terms through this thesis (see p. viii where I write glossary of these cultural specific terms). Additionally, I am also a native Indonesian speaker who shared the same culture and values with participants, so I can confidently state that I understood the cultural meanings of some of the participants' linguistic expressions in our conversations during interviews. This reflects the notion that

> …the solutions to many of the translator's dilemmas are not to be found in dictionaries, but rather in an understanding of the way language is tied to local realities, to literary forms and to changing identities. Translators must constantly make decisions about the cultural meanings which language carries, and evaluate the degree to which the two different worlds they inhibit are 'the same' (Simon, 1996 pp. 137–8 in Temple & Young, 2004).

The second interviews were conducted soon after the students finished their practicum placements. They were conducted over a period of two weeks during late February 2013. Similar to the first round of interviews, I contacted the participants soon after they finished the practicum and made arrangments for the interviews. The interviews were conducted in the same place as the previous round – at the Riau province public library. Each interview lasted for around 30 to 40 minutes each. I could not do the transcription and the translation straight away after the interviews as I was about to return to Australia with my family by the end of February 2013. I therefore did the transcriptions as well as translations, soon after I returned at Monash University.

5.4.3. Guided Reflective Journals

The second method of data collection was the use of guided reflective journals. This method was chosen to specifically explore answers to my second and third research questions: how the practicing teachers experience the transition from being a student-teacher to become a 'novice-teacher' during the practicum and in what ways the teaching practicum contributes to the construction of their teachers' identity. For a study investigating a complex notion such as the professional identity of teachers, the reflective journal can be a powerful tool of investigation as it "allows for documentation of emergence and bifurcation and assist to build up an holistic picture of the interplay between individuals' histories and their current and emergent 'state', thus providing insight into 'sensitivity to initial conditions" (Phelps, 2005, p. 37). A guided reflective journal also provides PSTs with the opportunity to examine their own situations, looking at various inputs which would allow them in turn to examine their emerging sense of professional identity (Byrd, 2010).

These journals aimed to capture and record as much important moment, event, and context as possible that contributed in shaping and reshaping the emerging sense of being a teacher within the PSTs during the practicum. It also captured possible tensions, struggles, and conflicts the PSTs experienced in navigating the journey to becoming 'new teachers' during the teaching practicum. The journal writing was also a means of reflection for the PSTs to rethink and experience self-assessment about the process of learning to teach, which they experienced during their practicum program.

The journals are ‘guided’ because I provided some prompts within the journal and asked the participants to write them fortnightly based on the prompts, and reflecting what they experienced for the preceding weeks. One of the prompts, for example, led the PSTs to reflect on what specific events, context, people, or situation nurtured and constructed their emerging sense of being a ‘novice teacher’ during the practicum. These prompts were intended to guide participants to reflect on specific issues relating to my research questions, especially Q-b - How do the PSTs experience the transition in identity from being student-teachers to novice-teachers during the teaching practicum? (for example, see *Appendix* 11).

To be more specific, question 1 in the journal - in general, how do you feel about the practicum in the past two weeks? Is there anything interesting you learnt or experienced? – was intended to capture possible challenges, tensions, conflicts or dilemma the PST experienced during their teaching practicum. I also expected to capture the development of their approach in facing the challenges, tensions, conflicts or dilemma. The question was then also aimed at recording any specific lessons or insights the PSTs developed as “new teachers” during the practicum.

Next, question 2 of the journal - what kind of processes, events, acts, persons, contexts, institutions which seemed to be influential for the development of your sense of becoming an English teacher in the past two? – was intended to capture how these potential factors had played and contributed to the formation and developments of PSTs’ professional identity during the practicum. At the same time, participants’ responses to this particular question were used to identify the most influential factor cited by the PSTs in their development of becoming a teacher during the practicum.

Apart from these guided questions, I also provided them space in the journal where they could write freely about ideas outside of the prompts (question 4 of the journal). I deliberately employed this reflective journal not only as a means for the generation of more data on the construction and the development of the professional identity of these PSTs, but also as a way to triangulate the data which could strengthen the credibility of this study. Generally speaking, triangulation refers to the idea of combining different methods of data collection in a research project for several purposes. As Flick (2002) maintains, it can be used as a strategy for

promoting the quality of qualitative research and it also can be used as an approach to do qualitative research in the most appropriate way. In the case of this study, drawing on Denzin's (1989, in Flick, 2002) classification of triangulation, it employed *methodological triangulation* by which different means of data gathering were employed (interviews, reflective journals, and focus group discussion). The use of these three different methods is expected not only as a strategy to validate results obtained with individual methods, but also as a way for "enriching and completing knowledge and towards transgressing the (always limited) epistemological potentials of the individual method" (Flick, 2002, p. 444). In the broadest sense, this triangulation is a way to increase the quality of this study in terms of its accuracy, validity, and reliability of the findings (more on this in section 5.8).

In practice, the participants sent their journals to me through fortnightly emails during their teaching practicum (from mid October 2012 to mid-February 2013). Almost all participants submitted their journals through sending it to me by regular emails. Ideally, the participants would submit six fortnightly reflective journals during their 14 week teaching practicum. Although there were some delays in sending journal entries from some participants, seven out of ten participants sent the journals fully and the other three missed only one reflective journal entry. With the exception of Demire who wrote his reflective journal in English, the other nine participants wrote in Bahasa Indonesia.

I immediately read and translated every journal I received from participants. I also did early data analysis while I was translating the journals by annotating data perceived as important information from the journals. Simultaneously, I tried to find themes, similarities and patterns from each participant's answers for each guided question in the journal, by cross-referencing it with other participants' stories. Yet, the final and comprehensive analysis was undertaken after all the journals were completed. I finalised the data analysis when I had already returned to Melbourne a few months after data collection was complete (the detailed step by step procedure of data analysis is discussed in the upcoming section).

5.4.3. Focus Group Discussion

In addition to the semi-structured interviews and guided reflective journals, I employed a focus group discussion (FGD) as the third and final stage of the data gathering process. Fontana and Frey (2000, p. 651) consider focus group discussion as a kind of group interview defining it as a "qualitative data-gathering technique that relies upon the systematic questioning of several individuals simultaneously in a formal or informal setting". In the case of this study, I conducted the FGD in a semi-structured manner using a set of prepared questions, copies of which had been given to the participants at the beginning of the session (see *Appendix* 12). Like a semi-structured interview, the reason behind this semi-structured nature of FGD was to provide a sense of flexibility during the discussion. Providing copies of questions to participants was intended to facilitate the participants with initial ideas on what was going to be discussed. It also provided them a space where they could track back and remember specific things they encountered during their teaching practicum if the nature of the question led them to do so. This would subsequently result in a situation when participants were more likely to express themselves resulting in wider and richer data, compared to a situation when they did not know the topics to discuss in advance.

Paton (2002) in Flick (2002, p. 196) sees a focus group discussion as a highly efficient qualitative data collection technique, which provides quality controls on data collection as "participants tend to provide checks and balances on each other which weeds out false or extreme views. The extent to which there is a relatively consistent, shared view can be quickly assessed". This is possible as the main feature of a focus group discussion lies in its group dynamic. Harell and Bradley (2009, p. 80) describe a focus group discussion with an analogy comparing it to a soccer game with the coach and team, where "the coach is on the sideline, and the ball is in play among the players. The players move the ball around among themselves, and the coach encourages the action from the sideline". The coach's main role is directing the game and not playing. This is consistent with a focus group where a researcher is acting to moderate the discussion and the participants are dynamically interacting among themselves about the questions raised.

The FGD was conducted in February 2013 (one week after all participants completed their second round interviews). It was located in a silent reading room in a library run by the local

government in Riau province. Just like the individual interviews, the venue was deliberately chosen in a neutral place to enable all participants to feel free and comfortable to share their ideas without necessarily feeling under pressure if the interviews were conducted at the Riau university campus or in one of their placement schools. All participants were invited to come to this FGD, yet only seven participants turned up and the other three did not come because of personal reasons. One participant, for example, was visiting her family in Bengkalis (a small town located around 128 kilometres away from Pekanbaru) on the day of FGD, and therefore she could not attend.

In the case of this study, this FGD was intended to be a tool by which I could explore chosen interesting responses from the previous individual interviews, as well as from the PSTs' reflective journals. As Fontana and Frey (2000) argue, FGD or group interviews could be used for exploratory and triangulation purposes. I considered this FGD to be especially beneficial in exploring these issues through more detailed and more in-depth discussion across participants. Question 6 of the FGD, for instance, which asked " D*o you think that the role of your mentor teacher stregthens your dreams to be a teacher? Why?"* was intended to explore ideas on the importance of mentor teachers as key persons affecting the development of PST's teachers identity, including their intention to be a teacher or not after the practicum. It is possible that this topic might have been previously discussed by particular participants either through their post-practicum interviews or their reflective journals.

The FGD was indeed used for further exploring the chosen themes from the previous methods, especially in looking for richer data to answer questions related to how PSTs experienced the transition period of being a student-teacher to becoming a 'novice-teacher' during the teaching practicum. It was also used to explore how the practicum has shaped and reshaped their early sense of teacher identities (see *Appendix* 13 for a detailed list of questions). The exploration focused, for example, on issues related to participants' views on improving the quality of the existing teaching practicum program at Riau University. Discussion also explored their views about the nature of mentoring and supervision they experienced during the practicum in relation to their emerging sense of becoming new English teachers.

Additionally, the FGD also functioned as a data triangulation tool, which could potentialy strengthen the validity and reliability of the findings. Therefore, similar questions in the pre-practicum interview or post-practicum interview were again asked in the FGD. In terms of data triangulation, this focus group discussion allowed me to track and compare individual responses to the same questions in previous interviews or with their reflective journals. One of the questions raised in a previous interview was, for instance, related to their conceptualisation of 'professional English teachers'. This question was again raised during the FGD, not only for exploration purposes but also for data triangulation. For example, question 14 of the FGD - *some of you said that a professional English teacher doesn't have to be someone with a fluent English speaking ability. Do you agree with that?* (*Appendix* 13), was actually the exploration as well as way of triangulation of question 8 of post practicum interview (*Appendix* 10) - *Do you think that that teaching practicum has changed your views on the characteristics of professional english teacher?* - or for question 5 of the pre-practicum interview - *how do you define a "professional English teacher*? *What characteristics do you think they should have?* (*Appendix* 9). All of these questions were closely related each other.

Although the FGD has the potential to produce rich data, it can also bring potential risks. Kvale (1996) points out that group interaction could reduce the interviewer's control of the interview situation and this may lead to difficulties in the systematic analysis of the participants' responses. To address this potential difficulty I both tape-recorded and took notes of the focus group session, and I ensured that I had noted interesting and important responses from each participants. To make sure the discussion flowed effectively, Fontana and Frey (2000) suggest that the interviewer's skill in leading the discussion plays an important role. To do this, I led the discussion in a comforting manner; that is I tried to reflect certain characteristics – being flexible, objective, non-directive, patient, calm, reassuring, warm, and caring – as expressed by Fontana and Frey (2000).

I constantly encouraged everyone to speak up by repeating the "golden rule" that there were no right or wrong answers, so every participant was willing to speak; and no single participant would dominate the discussion. This was also to ensure that a certain group culture that might have emerged did not have to interfere with individual expression.

Furthermore, although questions in this FGD were already predetermined, I also allowed degrees of flexibility in 'leading' the group discussion. Like the semi-structured interviews, I allowed myself some "out of topic" ideas to flow during the discussion as far as it did not deviate too far from the prepared list of topics.

5.5. Data Analysis

The core business of data analysis is finding "patterns" in the data and the relationship of one 'set' of data with another before interpretation is attempted. Unlike the process of data collection which was done deductively to maintain the significance and relevance of data to the primary objectives of the research, the analysis part of this study was carried out inductively. The basic idea of an inductive procedure within a qualitative content analysis was that the procedure was used to develop themes and categories gradually from the data collected (Mayring, 2000). In other words, the data analysis is not set out to test whether data is consistent with prior assumptions, theories, or hypotheses identified or constructed by an investigator; rather the main purpose of the inductive approach is "to allow research findings to emerge from the frequent, dominant or significant themes inherent in raw data, without the restraints imposed by structured methodologies" (Thomas, 2006, p. 238). In doing so, McMillan and Schumacher (1993) maintain that inductive data analysis organised data into categories based on themes, patterns, and relationships among categories.

For this study, the analysis was conducted with the assistance of the software NVivo 10. Having attended some information sessions about this tool and attending professional NVivo training at Monash University, I decided to use this software to organise and manage my data. I found using this software was handy for qualitative data management. NVivo 10 is a software which helps a qualitative researcher - like me - to manage, organise, and analyse qualitative data. It specifically helped me organise and analyse my non-numerical or unstructured data, such as interviews, reflective journals, and focus group discussion notes. This software also allowed me to classify, sort, and arrange information; examine relationships in the data; and combine analysis with linking, shaping, searching, and even modeling. Using this software, I could identify trends and cross-examine information in a multitude of ways using its search engine and query functions (QSRInternational, 2014).

Apart from being aware of the potential strengths of NVivo, I fully understood that the software only functioned as a supporting tool for data management. It would never be able to replace the role of a human researcher in conducting all research processes, including data analysis. As Kolenic (2013, p. 9) reminds us, “NVivo is just a tool to facilitate the researcher's thinking; it does not do the thinking for the researcher.” Therefore, the core data analysis in this study was basically performed by me as a researcher.

In using NVivo 10, I first imported all of my data (interviews and discussion audio, transcripts, translation, and reflective journals). Once all data was imported and integrated into the NVivo system, I began to read and reread the data and tried to identify themes within the data. The process of ‘reading’ the data had even started before the data was imported into NVivo; that is when I played the audio files of the recordings of the interviews and focus group discussion several times prior to using the software. I also read transcriptions repeatedly to enable me to fully immerse myself with the data, so that I could identify themes and categories embedded within the data and consider possible meanings and how these fitted with developing themes.

Within the NVivo system, I began to develop a set of ‘nodes’ or containers which function as places to keep particular themes found within, and emerging from, the data. The nodes consisted of some ‘parent’ nodes as well as ‘child’ nodes, or even ‘grandchild’ nodes. The way nodes classification works is similar to the way we create a folder and sub folders in a normal Windows explorer type system. While the nodes here functioned as containers of particular data, it also meant that particular themes were developed and sorted from raw data from the three methods of data collection.

In the case of this study, I developed four parents nodes, starting from participants’ profiles, participants’ perspectives on particular issues about teachers’ identity, issues around the teaching practicum as a community of practice, and one final node which captured issues beyond teachers’ identity. Each parent node contained several child nodes as well as grandchild nodes. The parent nodes on participants’ perspectives, for example, contained four child nodes. At the same time, the parent node related to issues to do with the teaching practicum also comprised of several child nodes (see Figure 8 for a detailed picture of the nodes).

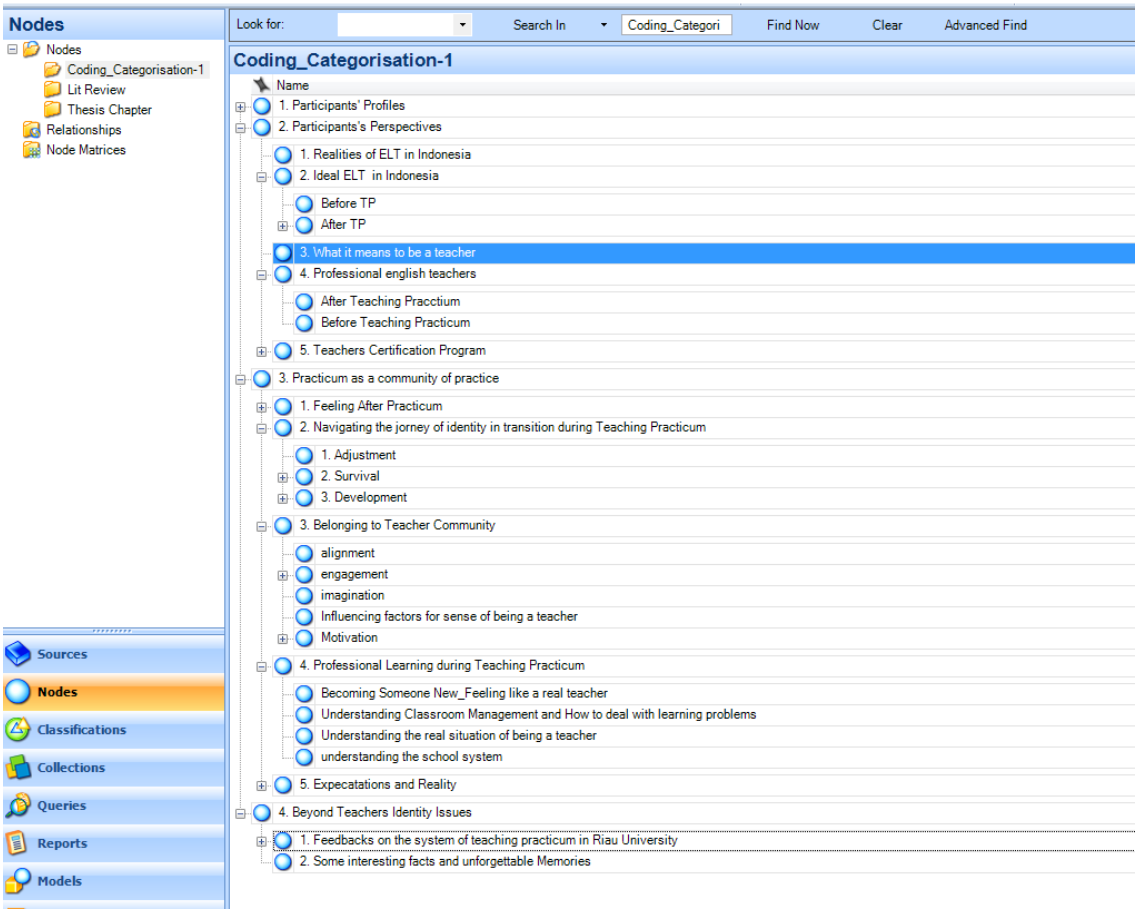


Figure 8. Nodes description of data analysis

Looking back to my research questions was helpful as a starting point to build up these node(s) and identify the themes. Some ideas for node classification and development also arose from literature I reviewed. However, rather than making categories prior to the identification of themes, I identified all themes within the collected data. In other words, all the themes were grounded from the data. For example, in developing themes in relation to questions about how the PSTs experienced the transition from being a university student to being a novice teacher during the teaching practicum, the themes I developed - such as adjustment, survival, and development 'stages' (see again Figure 8) - were purely based on thorough analysis of participants' guided reflective journals. Therefore, I would argue that the data analysis of this study also applied, to some extent, to some principles and procedures of the grounded theory research approach. Yet, unlike the core principle of a grounded theory

which aims to generate or discover theory using open and axial coding and theoretical sampling, this inductive approach is intended to identify themes or categories which are most relevant to research objectives (Thomas, 2006).

Flick (2002) describes that the inductive data analysis involves three phases; open coding where all themes are captured and categorised, axial coding where the categories are interconnected with each other, and selective coding where only relevant and potential themes are selected for the discussion of the research. Selective coding, Flick (2000) adds, requires ample understanding of the issue from the researcher. Therefore, referring to the literature review constantly is imperative. Therefore I had to select and sort the data without losing sight of important points from the existing literature, or including insignificant information. Furthermore, the three phases, according to Flick, are the foundations for discussion in the research process.

Drawing on these three phases of data analysis, I used the following process when developing the open, axial, and selective codes. All the interview transcripts, reflective journals, and transcripts of focus group discussion were first set up as separate word document files. As mentioned before, all data sources were then imported into the NVivo system. Before working with NVivo, however, I preferred to start the open coding process by working on the hard copies of the data, believing that this would provide a sense of "proximity" between me and the data and so allow patterns and hunches to emerge. I immersed myself in the data by simultaneously and repeatedly listening to the audio files and reading the interview transcripts, reflective journals, and focus group discussion transcripts. I used different coloured pens to highlight various emerging concepts or potential themes. For the purpose of the open coding, I used the language of the participants when developing the open codes to ensure that the themes, which eventually emerged, were grounded in the data (Glasser, 1992).

Only after identification of the initial codes and major themes, did I work with the Nvivo software in managing and classifying the data. I began developing nodes based on themes I found during the 'manual analysis' stage. Then I imported all the coded data either from the transcripts or reflective journals into each theme. The nodes development of NVivo was dynamic as it often changed. I sometimes altered or revised the name of the nodes/themes, or

sometimes merged one particular node with another node. In other words, at this stage I started to classify the themes and saw patterns and relationships among the themes (*axial coding*).

I managed developing the theme based primarly on research questions. To answer the question on how the PSTs experience the transition in identity from being student teachers to novice teachers during the practicum, for instance, I started with building several open codings regarding their professional identity development, such as adjustment, observation, nervousness, anxiety, dilemma, tension, and conflict, challenges, resistance, ignorance, frustration, acceptance, performance, and recognition. These themes here mostly emerged from participants' journals and post practicum interviews. Initially, these themes were on equal separate grand child nodes of the child node on Navigating Journey of Identity Transition during Teaching Practicum in NVivo (see again Figure 8).

In the next phase, I revisited each theme and looked if particular themes had overlapped or if they could be integrated into one theme or if they could be simply deleted. I then decided to group themes of dilemma, tension, conflict, challenges, resistance, ignorance, and frustration under one child name – survival. At the same time, the themes on acceptance, performance and recognition were grouped under a new childnode – development. The node classifications for the theme of PST's identity in transition were finally made of the three themes – adjustment, survival, and development (see section 8.1 for more detailed discussion).

5.6. Ethical Considerations

In a research project involving humans or animals, ethical issues are of major concern. The issue of ethics become important, as "they are connected to the authenticity and validity of the research project" (O'Toole & Becket, 2010, p. 96). It is the responsibility of a researcher in a study to make sure that these issues are managed in acceptable ways. The ethical issues within the research might be related to the participants or even the process of the research itself.

Flick (2002) maintains that growing concerns about ethical issues in research are triggered by several scandals in research history and that the abuse of prisoners for research and experiments by doctors during the Nazi period in Germany are particularly horrifying instances, which led to the development of ethical codes for research. Flick (2002) adds that some past and recent cases of research deception have encouraged German research councils to develop rules of good practice, which have to be accepted and enacted by every university or institute applying for research funding. The growing understanding of ethical issues in research over the years has resulted in the formulation of a large number of codes of ethics and the founding of ethics committees in many fields.

For research involving humans at Monash University, ethics approval is granted by the Monash University Human Research Ethic Committee (MUHERC). The need for ethics in conducting research primarily concerns the *three Ps* – protection, power, and privacy (Chowdhury & Podorova, 2014). In terms of protection, MUHREC needs to protect the university, participants, and researchers from physical or psychological harm, from breaking of the law, *and* from misuse of data. In terms of power, the ethics body is required to make sure that the nature of participation is under a voluntary basis with no coercion. The privacy issue relates to how research is conducted by protecting the identity or confidentiality of participants.

In the case of this study, I was aware of the issue of potential power relations between myself as a researcher and my participants, as the participants in this study were all pre-service English teachers of whom were to have been my ex-students. I deliberately attempted to ensure that participation was free from any impact of the power relationship between the participants as the data sources and the researcher myself, by telling them that I was on study leave on the day of data collection and had no direct contact with them in the classroom. Statements in the Consent Forms (see *Appendices* 5 and 6) also explicitly addressed that their participation in this study was completely voluntary and each of the participants had the freedom to participate or not to participate, as the research participants of this study. I will address this issue in more detail in the next section.

I also reminded the participants about the nature of the interviews and focus group discussion prior to their decision to take part in the research, and reminded them that the interviews as

well as focus group discussions would be recorded, that all interviews and focus group discussion would be conducted in neutral settings such as a designated silent room in a library. In terms of confidentiality, I clearly stated in the Consent Forms that there would be no third party who could get access to the original data of this study. In other words, the original data would be kept under lock and key. I also addressed the issue of anonymity by assigning a pseudonym for each of the participants.

5.7. The Role of the Researcher

I was aware that I played two roles as an outsider (*etic*) and insider (*emic*) in this research at the same time. I understood that this study was conducted in my 'own yard', as it involved some pre-service English teachers whom I had taught or came across somewhere in my university. On the one hand, my familiarity with participants and the research context brought advantages for better research in terms of a more comprehensive understanding I could get about the participants and the context of the study. This familiarity provided me with the opportunity to prevent issues of reluctance from the participants in communicating with me as a researcher. In other words, they did not have to feel uncomfortable speaking to a stranger and therefore they could explore their ideas freely and happily. Lincoln and Guba (1985, cited in Shenton 2003) even suggested establishing what they called '*prolonged engagement*' between the researcher and the participants, as this could potentially enhance the issue of credibility in qualitative research. This kind of engagement is recommended for both investigators and participants "to gain understanding of an organization and to establish a relationship of trust between the parties" (Shenton, 2003, p. 65).

The fact that they were my students in the university, on the other hand, could lead to the issue of power relations between a researcher and participants. However, I already made sure that their participation in the study was fully voluntary and that they were aware of the right to withdraw at any time they thought they needed to (as stated in the Consent Form). Moreover, I was on a long study leave and there was no direct imbalance of power in my relationship with them in the classroom when this study was being undertaken, as previously mentioned. As I am writing this chapter, I know that most of them have already graduated from the university and I will no longer meet them in my classes by the time I return to my

teaching duties. Therefore, the likelihood of power-relation implications in this case is negligible and has been fully addressed.

Furthermore, I could be considered an insider of this research in that I myself am a teacher educator who also experienced the complexities of becoming a professional English teacher, including during my teaching practicum, as I recounted in Chapter 1 (section 1.2.). This experience might have built my own beliefs and assumptions on this topic. I took advantage from my own experience as a PST and as a teacher in understanding and making sense of the data from participants by reflecting on my own experience. This kind of internalisation was possible and acceptable in a qualitative case study as "the subjectivity of the researcher *and* of those being studied becomes part of the research process. Researchers' reflections on their actions and observations in the field, their impressions, irritations, feelings, and so on, become data in their own right, forming part of the interpretation" (Flick, 2002, p. 16). However, to strengthen the objectivity of this study, as a researcher I always kept reminding myself that I have to make sure that I am positioning myself as an outsider and should refrain from relying on my own assumptions and personal beliefs. In other words, I have to see and accept the information I obtained from participants as it was.

5.8. Validity and Reliability

Issues of validity and reliability are central in both quantitative and qualitative research projects. In qualitative research, *validity* concerns the degree to which a finding is judged to have been interpreted in a correct way and *reliability* concerns the ability of different researchers to make the same observations of a given phenomenon if and when the observation is conducted using the same methods and procedures (Maxwell, 2005). That is, validity refers to the idea of how to choose correct tools or methods, and reliability is dealing with how to use the tools or methods correctly.

Drawing on suggestions by Shenton (2003) in addressing issues of *internal validity* or *credibility* in Guba's terms (1985), apart from carefully designing and selecting appropriate methods of data collection, triangulation is another way of addressing the internal validity of this study. As discussed earlier, I used three methods of data collection: in-depth interviews, guided reflective journals, and focus group discussion. These three methods enhanced my

research credibility as “the use of different methods in concert compensates for their individual limitations and exploits their respective benefits” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 cited at Shenton, 2003, p. 65).

Triangulation also affects the reliability of this study, because the validity of a study could in turn affect the reliability aspect of that study. Lincoln and Guba (1985) stressed the relationship between validity and reliability in qualitative research and argued, “a demonstration of the former goes some distance in ensuring the latter” (cited in Shenton, 2003, p. 71). To triangulate the reliability of the data, for example, I repeated particular topics that aimed to answer the same research question in some methods of data collection, like in the in-depth interviews session, guided reflective journals, and focus group discussion.

To ensure spontaneous and natural articulation from participants, in my approach to the potential participants I made clear from the start that their participation in my research was completely voluntary, and they had the right to refuse to participate in this study or withdraw at any time they thought they needed to. This was to ensure that those participating in my research were only those who were genuinely willing to take part freely.

In addition, in order to enhance the validity and reliability of the data in this study, I involved the participants in rechecking the transcribed interviews and focus group discussion transcripts to clarify if any ideas were missing or if miscommunication occurred. Some researchers (such as Carlson, 2010; Merriam, 1988) call this procedure ‘member checking’ in which participants of the study are given the opportunity to verify the accuracy, and to check or approve particular aspects, of the data (in this case, the transcriptions of their interviews and focus group discussion). The transcriptions were sent to the participants to let them check and examine them, to see if there were any concerns. However, most participants did not respond to the transcriptions; implying that they had no serious concerns with the transcriptions made.

5.9. Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I have discussed my choice of research methodology, starting from my research paradigm to rationales behind each of the three choices of research methods. The

chapter has reiterated that this is a qualitative case study drawing on constructivist's views of seeing reality. Central to the discussion was the stance of this study that seeks in-depth exploration of particular issues, rather than aiming for generalisation as commonly practiced in the quantitative research tradition. The discussion also deals with details of my field trip in collecting data for nearly one semester in Riau province, Indonesia. The full procedures have been reported as they are in the field; some potential benefits and risks of each procedure were also addressed. I hope that the descriptions in this chapter have built the case for a sound methodological choice underpinning this study.

In the following three chapters, I will present the findings of this study. They are selected conversations between me as a researcher with the research participants, during interviews and the focus group discussion. The findings are also generated from another method of data collection in the guided reflective journals. The upcoming chapters are separated on the basis of different research questions. They are deliberately made separate to allow the reading of the ideas presented in a comfortable way, considering the amount of words embedded within each chapter.

VI. EMBARKING ON THE ENGLISH TEACHING PROFESSION

"being a teacher, for me, is like making a plantation for 'dakwah'. It means that being a teacher is an altruism choice, in which we are supposed not to get any reward from this profession. It is up to the society to reward it. If a teacher has begun doing this profession by calculating any kind of reward they might gain, so what is the difference of a teacher with a businessman?"

(Arel, pre-practicum interview)

Having reviewed the literature; designed an appropriate methodological framework; and gathered and analysed the data; attention now turns to the discussion and interpretation of the data in connection with the theoretical frameworks underlying this study. The next few chapters present and discuss the results of the findings from the data. The findings are distributed into three different chapters with this particular chapter specifically discussing findings related to early forms of participation by participants in their journey of embarking on the English teaching profession.

This particular chapter is arranged on the basis of Olsen's (2008) model of teachers' identity formation which considers – among other elements - their reasons for entry into teaching profession, and their childhood and schooling experience as important factors contributing to the formation of their identity (see section 1.3). The first section of this chapter therefore captures personal stories behind participants' decisions to enter an English teachers' training institution. It is followed by a section exploring their reasons for wanting to be an English teacher. The last section explains participants' narratives about the roles of significant others through their journey to becoming an English teacher. The data here was generated and cross referenced from the three methods of data collection: pre- and post-practicum interviews, fortnightly reflective journals during the 16 week practicum, and the one hour focus group discussion, as discussed in Chapter 5.

6.1. Studying in the English Education Department: Behind the Scenes Stories

To investigate participants' stories with regard to their unique journeys to becoming English teachers, one of the first questions asked in the pre-practicum interview was '*why did you*

want to study in the English Education Department (EED)'? This question was designed to elaborate on participants' personal stories behind their decisions to study in an English teacher education program. This question also aimed to explore the nature of early participation they have engaged in during the continuum of their professional development. It is argued in this study that these personal accounts contributed significantly to the formation of their identity as teachers well before they officially entered an English teachers' training institution, as data in this chapter reveals.

Data from the interviews indicate that reasons for study at an EED varied greatly. Their answers could be broadly categorised into two different groups. The first group of participants (n=7) is the group of PSTs who joined the EED with a pre-existing intention to be an English teacher (*professional aspiration*). The second group (n=3) comprises those PSTs with no intention to choose teaching as their profession. The data generally indicated that joining a teacher training institution does not necessarily mean that a PST really aspires to be a professional English teacher. Their specific reasons are elaborated on in more detail in the following section.

The first group of participants who deliberately decided to study at the EED of the Faculty Teachers Training and Education (FKIP) confirmed that long before they decided to study in this department, they already had sufficient information about the department in that their subject choice would lead them to the gate of being a professional English teacher. In other words, they wanted to be an English teacher therefore they enrolled in this FKIP. As Selly said, "I know that graduating from FKIP I will become a teacher, and I think that being a teacher is a *noble* profession, so I chose studying at an EED."

This kind of *professional aspiration* has also been strengthened by their personal interests, with regard to the fact that English is an international language. Data showed that most of the participants considered the current status of English (as an important means for international communication) as their basis to choose the EED. They believe that studying English would benefit them in the future. English is not only perceived as a language which would be valuable for them in terms of their career development as English teachers, but also a language which would enable them to be part of an international community.

In other words, most participants were aware of the multifaceted advantages English as an international language could bring to them. Drawing on Bourdieu (1991), it could be said that they believed that English is a valuable form of linguistic and cultural capital which bring the holders symbolic power. This means that mastery of English knowledge is symbolically becoming cultural capital that is regarded as a socially and economically valued superiority. English competence deliberates to people a symbolic capital-prestige and honor as well as economic capital-material wealth. In short, participants of this study were fully aware that English will open more opportunities in their future lives

Some particular advantages participants mentioned are related to the pursuit of better education; the cultivation of knowledge; more open and wider interaction with people from other parts of the world; and the openness of the job market.

> The reason I chose English education is because, generally speaking, English is very important. We can see that English is needed in many parts of our lives. So, I think as an international language, English will be needed more in the future. As a student, English helps me find information from outside, not only from Indonesia. I can also interact with people from 'foreign countries'.
>
> (Ayi, pre-practicum interview)

Realising the potential benefits English might bring to their lives, some other participants also considered the promising brighter future of those speaking English as an international language. Therefore, studying English will open the windows of the world for them and bring good opportunities, such as in the field of business.

> As we know we are entering the globalisation era where many people from outside come and go to Indonesia. Many of them are even trying to find a job here. In this era, English is therefore really needed. So, we are not left behind the outsiders. At the same time, Indonesian people can also work outside. And the key is again English. And English teachers play roles here.
>
> (Selly, pre-practicum interview)

In some parts of the interview, Selly referred to the existence of *Sekolah Berstandar Internasional* (Internationally Standardised Schools/SBI) in Indonesia as one example of

good opportunities for English teachers to develop their careers as well as to gain financial advantages. SBI is a new kind of school established in Indonesia after Law No. 20/2003 was passed. The law made it possible for foreign educational investors as well as domestic investors to establish a so-called "international standardised schools" with their own unique curriculum (National Curriculum Plus). This means that the schools still used the same national curriculum as enacted in non-SBI schools, yet they also employed an international curriculum as an addition to the national one. These internationally standardised schools are usually run by international education institutions in collaboration with local foundations. The schools usually charge students more expensive tuition fees than non-SBI schools. At the same time, they usually pay the teachers' salaries at a much better level than 'normal schools' (Afrianto, 2013).

Regardless of the fact that the pilot project to open public International Standard Schools was finally cancelled by the Indonesian Supreme Court due to issues of fairness and nationalism (Afrianto, 2013), private 'International Standard Schools' still exist. The most apparent differences of these SBIs compared to non-SBI schools is in terms of the use of English as the language of instruction (Coleman, 2011). In other words, English is not only a language of instruction for teaching the English subject, but also for other subjects, like Math, Bahasa Indonesia, or History. For this reason, Selly understands that these schools would need more qualified English teachers, as English is an official language of instruction at these schools. This understanding has led her, in some ways, to study at the EED.

Furthermore, unlike some study participants who had been aware of the objectives of studying at the EED since the beginning, three participants reported that they had never realised that studying in this stream would lead them to becoming an English teacher after they graduate. As Arel confessed in his pre-practicum interview,

> I initially felt shocked and kept thinking why did I choose the teacher education faculty? When I chose this department, at the beginning I had never known that this department will lead me to become a teacher.

For a student like Arel, he chose to study in English Education for two reasons; *firstly,* it was because he did not pass the police academy test – the first occupation he dreamed of, and

secondly because of financial concerns. Studying at the EED for Arel was basically his second choice. Although he stated that he loved studying English, he preferred to aim to be a professional policeman, rather than an English teacher.

> I wanted to be in the army or be a policeman, but didn't pass the test. I had a financial problem. Then, my parents gave me an option, 'you have a break for a year while we are collecting money, or you keep studying in a different major'. Then, I thought that I took a break, I was afraid that I did something wrong as a teenager outside. So, I decided to keep studying and then I chose the English education department.
>
> (Arel, pre-practicum interview)

What he means by *financial problem* might be related to an issue commonly shared by some Indonesians saying that candidates must illegally pay an amount of money in bribes to be able to pass the police entrance test. In other words, he thought that he might have failed to be selected as a police because of this bribery expectation. It is beyond the scope of this study to further explore this bribery phenomenon in the Indonesian public service in relation to choosing English.

Like Arel who did not intend to be an English teacher in the first place, Rike's decision to study at the EED also reveals similar findings. Her first genuine expectation to enter the EED was solely to improve her English proficiency, rather than expecting to be an English teacher. Her willingness to gain a certain degree of proficiency in English was triggered by her constant wonder at seeing that English is everywhere around her. Therefore, she challenged herself to improve her English skills, so that she could take advantage of her English sometime later in her life.

Additionally, Demire's story also suggested that his reason to study in the EED was more due to *pragmatic* and *practicality* reasons, rather than a true intention to be an English teacher. Being confident with his English proficiency, he decided to study in this department because he thought that it would be much easier for him to follow the lessons. He thought that he did not have to study as hard as his other friends might have to. He confidently declared,

> If I study English education, I don't need to really study it. I have been able to speak English. So, what I need is only to study *how to teach not how to understand English*. So, if I take other departments, for example, if I chose Chemistry or other departments I

> have to study two concepts. But in English education I just need to understand how to educate.

Despite his English proficiency being above average compared to his fellow students, as mentioned above, Demire apparently entered the EED with no initial intention to be a professional English teacher. Although he also mentioned that he loved teaching and sharing with others, he never intended to choose the teaching profession as his career choice. In fact, at the time of the pre-practicum interview, he was working in a part time job as a private English tutor in a growing English institution in Pekanbaru. Financial gain might have been the most important factor that drove him to consider this as a career option. Demire's story indicates that he had to negotiate between his passions to teach with his immediate need to earn money. Given the fact the he was the eldest child in his family with no father, he deliberately chose running a business rather than a teaching job so he could help his family to survive (see Demire's short profile in section 5.3). The nature of this choice remained until he finished his teaching practicum program, when he deliberately stated in his post-practicum interview that he prioritised being a businessman, instead of being a teacher (see section 8.2 which presents the complexity of Demire's stories in constructing his early teaching identities).

6.2. Motivation to be an English Teacher

To resume analysis of the data from the previous section, the first group of participants (those reporting that they deliberately choose to study at the EED because they wanted to be an English teacher) were asked a follow up question – 'why do you want to be an English teacher?' The findings suggested that these aspirations were inspired by interrelated reasons, ranging from principles of *altruism,* to *gendered opportunities,* to *the 'speciality' of English.* Datails of the findings are discussed in the following sections. The findings indicated that participants' reasons for becoming an English teacher showed similarities with some studies conducted in different contexts (e.g. Basalama, 2010; Richardson & Watt, 2006; Suryani, Watt, & Richardson, 2013), as reviewed in section 3.4.2. Unlike the reasons being considered by policy makers in Indonesia, in this study factors such as current remuneration policies within the teacher certification program did not really appear to have any significant effect in their choices to enter this teaching profession.

6.2.1. Altruistic Motives: "Because teaching is like a plantation of *dakwah*"

Data from the pre-practicum interview shows that six of the ten participants reported that their aspirations to be an English teacher were driven by altruistic motives. They were committed to the *principles of altruism* that emphasise the importance of selfless concern for the sake of the well-being of others. They wanted to educate the future generation of the nation – transferring knowledge and educating young people in order to secure a bright future for them, in the true spirit of the Indonesian "Guru".

> For me, being an English teacher is a challenge … I see a very low level of education of people in my hometwon. Looking at this unhapy situation inspired me to be a teacher in my hometown. I want to improve the quality of life of the people in my hometown.

(Dodi, pre-practicum interview)

In Dodi's case, he was passionate about making substantial efforts to upgrade the quality of human resources in his hometown. He was born and grew up in a rural area where many people dropped out of school (see his profile in section 5.3). The majority of the villagers only graduated from primary school therefore most lived in poverty. This situation inspired Dodi to decide to be an (English) teacher and he wanted to change the local people's quality of life through education. This reason can therefore be considered part of Dodi's altruistic motives to be a teacher.

In later parts of the pre-practicum interview, Dodi continued his story explaining that he also decided to be a teacher because he believed that teaching was a noble profession as a teacher's main role was to educate people. The nobility of the teaching profession was mentioned by other study participants as their reasons for becoming (English) teachers. They also view *teaching as a respected profession* - an honorable role with its core responsibility to serve the people by any means.

Treating teaching as a noble profession is a typical consideration for those from Asian countries where Confucian and other Eastern philosophies are central and commonly applied in the field of education. The nutshell of this philosophy lies in its emphasis on the role of the

teacher as *Jun Zi*, representing a person who is a model of morality with outstanding knowledge and wisdom (Basharat, Iqbal, & Bibi, 2011). The Confucian values are rooted from Chinese history when Confucius — a man committed to improving the human condition — lived during an era known as the Spring and Autumn period (722-479 BC). According to de Bary (in "The Confucian tradition: China at the time of Confucius ", 2012), during this time the old order was breaking down, the old traditions were being confronted, and traditional privileges and rights of the ruling class were being questioned. Confucius was born in 551 from a family who had noble status, but had fallen on hard times and who were living in straightened conditions. At that time, Confucius travelled from feudal state to feudal state, advising rulers how to lead ethically. Chinese history notes that Confucius appears as a scholar, a teacher, a moralist, and someone who has a sense of responsibility and sacrifice towards public service. Confucian values have greatly influenced Chinese culture where moral obligations to other people are imperative in public service, including in education. Hong (2014) describes that the influence of Confucianism values in educational practices is not only limited to Mainland China, it has spread across the borders of China and affected teaching and learning values of many Asians, including those residing in the neighbourhood countries such as Japan, South Korea, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Singapore, Malaysia and Indonesia.

Furthermore, this finding indicates that the teaching profession is still considered by the younger Indonesian generation to be a ‘sacred profession’ through which people sacrifice their lives to serve their community, including in improving the educational quality of the nation. Dodi, for example, specifically stated that his dream to be an (English) teacher was prompted by seeing the poor quality of life for people in his hometown. He was personally inspired to improve and leverage the people’s lives in his hometown by choosing to be an (English) teacher.

Dodi’s dream and his strong idealism about improving the lives of the poor people in his hometown is similar to what drove the late Ki Hajar Dewantara (1889-1957) to establish a number of schools for educating Indonesians during the Dutch colonial era. Ki Hajar Dewantara was the driving force behind one of the most remarkable indigenous educational movements anywhere, which was established amid a campaign against colonialism in that

period of time. He named the movement *Taman Siswa*, or ‘garden of students’, which had established more than 166 schools in Java and Madura by 1932, outside the control of Dutch imperialist authorities (Harper, 2009).

The *Taman Siswa* school was considered so significant that it was given a prominent place in the history of the nation. It is deeply rooted in the history of Indonesia's struggle for independence. Its establishment was considered a turning point in the struggle for Indonesian independence. According to the *Jakarta Post* (in "Taman Siswa, a legacy of Ki Hadjar Dewantara ", 2002), the most important thing that was taught at *Taman Siswa* was that students must be dependent on themselves, not the colonial government. The students were made familiar with national culture through various activities, like plays and songs. They lived in dormitories under the supervision of teachers. Although *Taman Siswa* seemed to have not fully succeeded in preserving Ki Hadjar's ideas, it was clear that it had made a significant contribution to the spirit of struggle among nearly all Indonesians before it was caught up in the country's War of Independence in 1942.

Consistent with such the principle of altruism, some participants claimed that the feeling of happiness and satisfaction on seeing students understand what they taught is more important and valuable for them than financial rewards. This is reflected, among other things, in a metaphor used by Arel describing teaching as like making a plantation for *dakwah* (as written in the epigraph). The choice of the word ‘*dakwah’* as mentioned by Arel in referring to the nature of the teaching profession indicates a significant and substantial meaning. *Dakwah* is an Islamic term referring to any activities that preach the ‘truth of Islamic teaching’ to all people. As the most populous Muslim country in the world, Indonesia incorporates a lot of social and cultural values naturally derived from people’s religious beliefs and doctrines. This is also evident in the discourse and practices of Indonesian education where religious values are embedded in Indonesian educational practices, including in the PSTs’ reasons to become a teacher, as described by Arel.

Throughout the history of humankind, *dakwah* was regarded by Muslims to be the holy works of prophets and messengers of God to guide people to ‘the right paths’. For the Muslim community, it is the oldest and most respectful ‘profession’ in propagating the faith. In the case of Arel, his situating of the teaching profession as *dakwah* clearly indicates his

decision to become a teacher as truly an altruistic, even religious choice. What Arel said could be seen as his understanding as a Muslim of how the important roles and responsibilities of being a teacher were just as 'holy' as the work of prophets or religious figures. He saw the profession as full of service, sacrifices, and dedication for the sake of improvement of people's lives.

Being motivated by such a spiritual factor (seeing teaching as a form of *'dakwah'*) may seem strange to teachers in the West, where teaching generally has no direct relation to religious values. While Western countries have teachers who see their profession as concerned with ethics and moral behaviour, the emphasis on moral, and especially religious values, is more pronounced and culturally sanctioned in Indonesia. However, the notion of teacher as moral educator is actually not only unique to Indonesia. This is also a familiar issue in some other parts of Asian countries (Vu & Le, 2015) or even in the USA (see Lumpkin, 2008; Weissbourd, 2003). The importance of the role of teacher as a moral educator in the USA can be traced from the old work of Paolitto (1977, p. 73) who believed "teachers, like their students, are moral philosophers". Therefore, teachers need to struggle with the ideas of what is right and what is wrong, what is appropriate and what is not at any time they play their roles as teachers.

As a nation that explicitly endorses and upholds Islam, religious values permeate Indonesian educational philosophy. This relationship can be seen in the goals of national education as stated in Law 20/2003 on the national education system. Article 3 of the Law 20/2003 states that the development of national education is an "effort to develop the intellectual life of the nation and improve the quality of *faithful*, devout, and moral Indonesian people who master science, technology and the arts to create a modern, fair, prosperous and civilized society based on *Pancasila* and the 1945 Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia" ("Law on National Education System," 2003, p. 2). The notion of being *faithful* indicates that all teachers, including English teachers, need to remain faithful to their calling. *Pancasila* means 'five principles' and refers to the philosophical foundations of the Indonesian state. The first principle is *Ketuhanan Yang Maha Esa* (Belief in the Divinity of God). This principle indicates that Indonesia is a religious country and religious considerations are inherent in every aspect of life, including in the educational sector.

The findings show that that the teaching profession is still regarded as a 'holy' and respected profession by members of Indonesia's younger generation. The model of the teacher as 'guru' embedded in Indonesian culture appears to have been transferred to young Indonesians. The belief that teaching is a 'holy' profession is significant, because such a personal view of the profession could help maintain perseverance in these young student teachers faced with the challenges of becoming real teachers in the 'baptism of fire' that is the teaching practicum. In addition, this sense of a personal mission could affect the construction of their identity as new teachers, and, in the long run, their competence as teachers (Korthagen, 2004). These findings are in line with what Suryani et al., (2013) found in their study of the motivation of 802 fourth year undergraduate teacher education students in four universities in Jogyakarta Indonesia. *Making a social contribution* and *religious influences* were the main reasons for choosing teaching as a career among these student teachers.

6.2.2. Teaching as a Perceived Female Profession

It appeared from the findings that five out of the seven female participants said that teaching is a good profession for them as females. Their answers are, among others, based on their perceptions that this profession offers some flexibility for them, in terms of time and duties; and therefore it is more suitable for them as females. As Selly justified, "I am a woman. I think that a teacher is not a complicated profession for a female like me compared to other professions, like working in a company or other fields."

I am aware that there is a potential gender bias in these answers describing teaching as a female profession, as 7 out of 10 study participants were indeed females. Yet I found this theme a relevant factor that drove some females to enter the teaching profession. This finding correlates with statistical data on the number of teachers in Indonesia. In terms of gender, female teachers for outnumber male teachers. Data from Indonesian Ministry of National Education, for example, reports that there are 8003 subject teachers for all secondary schools across Riau province in 2010, comprising 2,988 (37.33%) males and 5,015 (62.67%) females (Kemendiknas, 2010). Further analysis of this finding can be linked to the domestic ideology and socio-economic tradition found in Indonesian culture where working women usually play multiple roles and responsibilities in their families (Rahmah et al., 2013). Apart from being schoolteachers, they have frequently domestic responsibilities on a daily basis at the same

time; being a housewife, cook, and mother looking after children. Therefore, the flexibility of the teaching profession in Indonesia made them interested in becoming a teacher.

However, the feminisation of the teaching profession is not exclusively an Indonesian case. The phenomenon of female teachers outnumbering male teachers is evident in many parts of the world (See Drudy, 2008; Mohideen, 2014). In the Australian education context, for instance, a study by Richardson and Watt (2006) investigated the characteristics and motivation of undergraduate students choosing teaching as a career in three Australian universities. It revealed that enrolments within each teacher education strand were largely female dominated. This was most noticeable for early childhood teacher education and primary teacher education. A study on the gendered beliefs of male ELT teachers by Mohideen (2014) also reports a similar phenomenon in which male teachers are heavily underrepresented in Malaysia. According to the 2008 Malaysian Educational Statistics as cited by Mohideen (2014), more than 66% of the teachers in the Malaysian secondary schools are females and this is parallel to research findings in most Western countries, which suggest that teaching is often a female-dominated job.

In the same vein, data from the Statistics Division of the United Nations indicates that women dominate the teaching profession at primary level worldwide except in several regions in Africa. As the following table shows, the proportion of female teachers drops as the education level they work in rises. It needs another study to investigate why the number drops as the level rises.

Table 5. Teaching staff by ISCED LEVEL

World Region	Female Teachers Primary Education	Female Teachers Secondary Education	Female Teachers Tertiary Education
Africa	44,80%	28,00%	20,00%
Asia	70,50%	54,90%	38,50%
Europe	85,80%	65,70%	42,30%
North America	79,70%	60,40%	46,00%
Oceania	63,40%	51,10%	38,80%
South America	79,30%	61,70%	41,00%

(UNESCO, 2009)

Once again, some of the female participants of this study might have come to the assumption – that teaching is a female profession – because they thought that teaching is not as demanding as other professions required. They see that they do not have to spend the whole day staying at school, and that it is not as rigid as working in a private company. In other words, they expected to still play their other roles as a wife or a mother, for instance, when they got married in the future.

> To be honest, I can see that being a teacher is a nice profession, not really hard, and has flexible working time … I don't have to stay at school all the time, because … moreover if we talk about the future, I am a female, so I feel that teaching is my life.

(Elvina, pre-practicum interview)

In the case of this study, this perception that teaching is not really a demanding profession is very likely based on a convention or a policy applied in many Indonesian schools where teachers do not have to stay at school from the morning to the afternoon every day. The idea that *jadi guru itu enak sebab banyak liburnya* (it is nice to be teachers as they have plenty of holidays, my translation) is widely acknowledged in Indonesia (Sampurno, 2009). To the best of my knowledge, some schools expect their teachers to teach 24 hours (a minimum requirement to be eligible for remuneration payment) in a week – equivalent to three full days of teaching. The remaining days are optional for them to come to the school. While their

default obliged school attendance should be five days in a week, some schools have even provided privileges to their teachers to have two official days off in a week. It is this kind of flexibility which has made the female participants of this study see teaching as a more appropriate profession for them as females.

6.2.3. The 'Privilege' of Being an English Teacher

Furthermore, with regard to the specific question of *why they wanted to be an English teacher* (and not a teacher of other subjects), some participants considered the special status of English as an international language, as one reason to decide to be an English teacher. They were aware of the fact that English has not only been a very important subject within the current Indonesian education system (as described in Chapter 2), but that it has also been an important means of communication in a globalised world (see Fiedler, 2011; Nickerson, 2005; Xue & Zuo, 2013). They were proud of being part of the English teaching community, because they thought that they belonged to a group of 'special teachers' with 'added value' compared to other subject teachers in the school. To put this in Bourdieu's (1991) notion that this study participants believe that they gain a kind of *symbolic power* by choosing to be an English teacher (see also section 6.1).

> I think if we are an English teacher, people will probably see us as a 'special teacher', different from other subject teachers. So, we have an 'added value' as an English teacher … It seems to me that an English teacher is identical to someone smart. I also see that the English teacher has many friends. He could be friends with *bule* (a term for white people). So, it impresses me. It looks cool. That's why I wanted to be an English teacher.
>
> (Ayi, pre-practicum interview)

The *added value being an English teacher* raised by Ayi in the interview is apparent in current Indonesian social practice. As mentioned in Chapter 2, one is considered a well-educated person and belonging to the middle class in society, for instance, if she or he masters English in both theory and practice. The choice of English as medium of instruction in international standard schools as well as its use in news programs in some Indonesian television stations also reflects this perceived privilege. This phenomenon is in line with

Pennycook's (1995, p. 40) assertion that, "English has become one of the most powerful means of inclusion or exclusion from further education, employment, or social positions".

Considering this potential benefit from being an English teacher, it is no wonder that the number of students who registered in university with English teacher training and education departments is getting higher. At Riau University, for instance, data from the number of applicants who registered for the 2012 university entrance test (SNMPTN) indicated that the EED was one of the top ten most preferred departments chosen by SMPTN applicants. EEDs stood at the number seven most preferred subject out of a list of 49 departments or schools at Riau University. There were 1377 applicants in 2012, with only 30 seats available (see *Appendix* 14 for details of these figures).

6.2.4. Financial Rewards

Data from my participants showed that the financial reward or remuneration policy as part of the current teacher certification program (which promises a double incentive scheme for a *'guru professional'* or certified professional educator, as discussed in section 2.3) did not, as expected, seem to have a significant contribution to the PSTs' motivations to be teachers. Having analysed the data, it was found that only one participant clearly stated that she considered the remuneration policy in teacher certification programs as the dominant driving motivation to study at the EED and to be an English teacher. In other words, the majority of participants reported that they did not consider the financial incentive as their most important reason to be teachers.

> I can't deny that, I am glad to hear that [double incentives scheme]. But, I don't take it as the main reason to be a teacher. (Dodi, post-practicum interview)

This is slightly contradictory to the assumptions made by some policy makers in Indonesia, who believe that the teachers' certification program with its remuneration scheme policy could trigger high school graduates to be more motivated to be teachers (Jalal et al., 2009; Maulia, 2008). This assumption is based on the pre-existing image in Indonesian society of the teaching profession being considered in the past as a less promising career in terms of financial gains and benefits, as previously discussed in section 2.3. The financial reward is aimed at improving the teachers' welfare and attracting more bright young Indonesians to

embark on this profession. However, as far as this study is concerned, it does not seem to have yielded the expected result.

While a few of the participants realised that there have been certain changes and improvements to certified teachers' lives and well-being after they completed the certification program, most participants confirmed that the improvement in Indonesian teacher salary levels had never been the main reason for them to join the teaching profession. At this stage, the pre-service English teachers seem to have been driven more by intrinsic motivation (committment to the principle of altruism), rather than extrinsic motivation (financial rewards) promised through the teachers' certification program. The participants strongly endorsed factors such as *teaching as a noble profession, teaching is like a plantation of 'dakwah', being a teacher is a hero,* and *making a difference in others' lives* – all of which can be argued as generally related to the principle of *altruism,* rather than materialistic enticements.

In the present study, such idealism may be attributed to the young age of these pre-service English teachers, ranging from 21 to 23 years old. These are ages when people often tend to be idealistic, or inspired by factors beyond their personal interest (Latif, 2013). Hellsten and Prytula (2011) investigated 279 pre-service English teachers in Saskatchewan, Canada, and confirmed a similar result that younger participants were less motivated by financial incentives than older ones provided their idealistic reasons for becoming teachers. In other words, the findings are likely to be different if participants of this study were those of older age with more children and financial responsibility who, for example, might put financial reward as the most important driving factor in choosing teaching as a career.

6.3. Narratives of Significant Others

Having outlined some factors or reasons behind the participants' choices to enter the EED and motivations to be English teachers, the data analysis then turned to see how these stories related to significant others the PSTs encountered through their life trajectories. Andersen, Chen, & Miranda (2002, p. 160) define the *significant other* as an "individual who is or has been deeply influential to one's life, or in whom one is or once was emotionally invested". It is argued in this study that teachers' identity is socially and historically constructed; therefore

the participants' complex interaction with various people in different contexts would affect their professional identity as teachers.

The data reveals that their motivations to be an English teacher often initially originated from their childhood, schooling, and familial experiences. The students' decisions to study at an EED – on a path which might later see them as English teachers - could be traced back long before they entered their teacher education programs. Most participants reported that they were inspired to be English teachers through forms of participation and interaction with their own schoolteachers as well as with some of their family members who were already teachers. Specifically, the data indicate that the students' decisions to be English teachers are closely related to the influence of significant others in their lives.

Participants' interaction with good English teachers from the past, for example, formed their initial notions of *who a good teacher is*, and this piece of interaction also inspired them to be like their teachers.

> I think that it was from my English teacher when I was sitting in primary school. My English teacher was a good English teacher; she could speak English fluently and she was easy to understand. Since then, I was interested in English.
>
> (Selly, pre-practicum interview)

Similiar stories were voiced by Dodi and Ayi in their pre-practicum interviews when they recalled their experiences during high school in answering the question *'why do you want to be an English teacher?'* Dodi clearly stated that his dream to be an English teacher stemmed from when he learned English in high school with an English teacher – Mr. Narsim – whom he thought of as a very good teacher. Dodi described how Mr Narsim could approach the students really well and deliver lessons effectively through various interesting methods and ways. Therefore, Mr Narsim became an important figure who inspired Dodi a lot in learning English. It was Mr Narsim who had made him "fall in love" with learning English and led him to think of the possibility of choosing to be an English teacher as his career choice.

This finding is similar to other studies in the field of construction of teacher identity, which reveal that inspiration to be a teacher could come from a lengthy complicated process,

including PSTs personal interaction with particular teachers during their own schooling (See for instance Borg, 2004; Lortie, 1975; Tyminski & Mewborn, 2006; Wright & Tuska, 1965). The study by Wright and Tuska (1965), for instance, investigated how childhood experiences make a teacher. They collected information on 20 different childhood relations from 3,149 middle-class college and university women and 1,959 middleclass college and university men in Chicago. One of important findings from their study was that participants' decision to become a teacher was partly a result of the influence from their childhood relationship or because of their admiration to significant persons during their childhood, especially their fathers and their school teachers.

Additionally, the finding also correlates with a long tradition in the literature on teacher education that acknowledges the role of the *apprenticeship of observation* (Lorti, 1975). It is widely accepted that PSTs enter teacher education after a long history of experience in the classroom as learners. This experience has built their *virtual schoolbag* consisting of existing beliefs and knowledge about teaching and learning, based on which they develop their professional practice in the future.

In relation to the schoolteacher's influence, another participant – Ayi – explained that she was first interested in becoming an English teacher when she was in junior high school. In her mind, an English teacher was identical to a *smart person* with a lot of *added value* and wider perspectives. She came to this conclusion as she was impressed with one of her English teachers who had these characteristics and she wanted to be like him.

> It was because I saw my English teacher when I was in junior high school. It seems to me that an English teacher was identical to being someone smart. I also saw that the English teacher has many friends. He could be friends with '*bule'* [a popular term in Indonesia to refer to white people visiting the country]. So, it impressed me. It looks cool. That's why I wanted to be an English teacher.

Some participants also consistently reported that their *childhood stories* and the *influence of their family members* such as mothers, fathers or other relatives who work as teachers made them choose to be English teachers. Some of these influences and inspirations stemmed from their direct contact with relatives or family members in terms of observing their teaching activities and having discussions about teaching issues at home. Selly, for example, recalled

that she was first inspired to be a teacher after ‘observing’ her mother’s teaching activities. Her mother was a primary school classroom teacher. When she was six years old, her mother sometimes took her to school where she was impressed with the way the students respected her mother as their teacher and with the fun teaching atmosphere created by her mother. This experience led her to think about the possibility of this teaching profession as her career choice.

In addition to observing their relatives’ teaching activities, three other participants were inspired after looking at their relatives’ physical appearance as teachers. One participant, Dodi, reported that he was first motivated to be a teacher after looking at his uncle *wearing a teacher uniform* or “pakaian seragam” (which is common in Indonesia) every morning. In his eyes, the teacher’s uniform looked great and it symbolised the higher social level of the one wearing it.

> I was first inspired by probably family sir, because there are many relatives of mine who are teachers, like my uncles. I saw them wearing neat and clean uniforms every day, going to school, I liked it.
>
> (Dodi, pre-practicum interview)

Drawing on Hall’s ideas of how language constructs meaning through a *representational system* (S. Hall, 1997, pp. 1, my italics), the teacher’s uniform is an element which *works like a language* (Hall, 1997, p.5, my italics). The members of the same culture build a shared understanding and so interpret the meaning of the uniform in roughly the same ways. In some cultures, people sometimes associate particular values with certain professions from the outfits worn by the members of those professions. To the best of my knowledge, Indonesian society generally tends to associate more positive values and images with professions with professional attire, such as those wearing uniforms with ties and clean shiny black shoes. As Dodi narrated, for some people, such a professional outfit symbolises a higher social status. They might be considered middle class individuals, regardless of how much their monthly salary actually is. Therefore members of the younger generation might choose to be a sales person wearing this kind of professional attire, for instance, although their salary is actually much less than those who work in, say, farming. In fact, the same allegory also applies here in the story of becoming a teacher, as indicated from Dodi’s narrative.

With regard to the influence of the significant others, three participants mentioned that their childhood experience in coming across *bule* (white people visiting Indonesia) during their childhood also inspired them to be English teachers. Rike, for example, narrated that her first encounter with English happened when she accidentally met a *bule* coming to her small village during Independence Day celebrations when she was a little girl. Having listened to the language spoken by the *bule*, she started to be curious about the language and thought that she wanted to learn the language. Stories of interaction with *bule* were also shared by Ayi and Nisa.

> When I was a kid, 5 years old, I joined in celebrating the Independence Day ceremony, suddenly there was a 'bule' coming by my side and he asked me some questions in English. I just kept silent because I didn't understand at all what he said. But I was wondering what kind of language he spoke. I had never heard that kind of language before. Then, I asked my mother. And she said that it was English. It was after that moment, I knew that there are some other languages out there, not only the Indonesian language. I started to love learning English since then …
>
> (Rike, pre-practicum interview)

Rike's first inspiration to learn English after her acquaintance with the *bule* could be further related to the effects of colonialism in Indonesian society. Given the fact that Indonesians lived under colonialism for a hundred years, it seemed to make many Indonesians pay special respect to people with "fair skin" and an "Anglo-Saxon" physical appearance. Some Indonesians might have a lack of confidence to deal with foreigners. In an extreme situation, this effect from colonialism has led some Indonesians to hold an *'islander mentality'* through which they lost their pride as Indonesians but still appreciate and respect what the *bule* has, including their language and culture, more than what they have as Indonesians.

Participants' 'teaching experience' during their schooling period also played an important source of inspiration in their choice to be a teacher. For instance Arel, though he mentioned that being an English teacher was not his first choice, he did state that he wanted to be an English teacher in the future. He claimed that his experience as a 'peer tutor' for his classmates when he was in Grade 12 of senior high school brought a good impression to him about the teaching profession. He felt happy and wonderful when he could share his knowledge with his classmates who came to his house to learn together.

Furthermore, another source of inspiration is the experience during the *teaching practicum* as part of the participants' bachelor's degree in education. This happens when PSTs interact with their mentor teachers and other teachers at the placement school. Four participants mentioned that the high dedication of their mentor teachers had inspired them to be like them; that they wanted to be as effective as their mentors.

> I am really happy with my mentor teacher. She has made me change like today, from not really interested to be a teacher to becoming really passionate about it. She always supervises me, leading me to the right path if I find some problems along the way. And I could feel that I am now growing quite well.
>
> (Dewinta, post-practicum interview)

The influence of mentor teachers on the construction of the PSTs' identity, including their aspirations to be teachers, is a phenomenon which takes place during the teaching practicum. This is because the mentor teacher is the closest and the most influential person who routinely interacts with the PSTs during the practicum program. The quality of their interaction and engagement with mentor teachers significantly influences the formation of the PSTs' career aspirations. They will be negatively affected, for instance, if the mentor teacher can not really perform well, as recalled by the participants in section 8.1.

While some PSTs were inspired to be teachers from their interaction with qualified and effectively performing mentor teachers, unusual inspiration also came from unhappy stories of the real world situations in placement schools where some existing senior teachers were perceived as being under-performing. Some of these student teachers wondered how unhappy stories like these happened and felt challenged to overcome the problems they encountered in their teaching practicum program. Their idealism as younger teacher candidates was affected, so it could be said that the low performance of some mentor or supervising teachers strengthened their dreams of becoming teachers in that they did not to want to be like the unperforming teachers. As one of these PSTs explained,

> I am bit worried with the teachers' condition at the moment. For me, it is the negative teachers who have motivated me more to be a teacher. We can minimise the existence of the negative teachers by becoming the good ones. I just don't believe in putting the future of the nation on their shoulders.

(Demire, Focus Group Discussion)

In her reflective journal another study participant, Dewinta, mentioned one example of the 'negative attitude' of some incumbent teachers during practicum, when a few teachers deliberately made abused them as PSTs, by intentionally not letting them pass the practice teaching test. She was suspicious about whether these mentor teachers did this intentionally, because when the PSTs requested a remedial test these teachers asked the students to give them 'something' as compensation.

Similar to previous findings reporting that most of the participants were not really attracted to being teachers by better remuneration schemes (see section 6.2.4), what was mentioned by Dewinta above was also likely to be related to the issue of the idealism she held as a young teacher. As a beginning teacher, it was hard for her to face the unexpected reality she found in her placement school. This unhappy story positively inspired her to put substantial effort into reforming the negative sides of the national education system, including eradicating the practice of uncommitted or unethical senior teachers asking for gifts which she found during her practicum experience.

In relation to the question of whether these reasons for being a teacher changed during the teaching practicum, seven out of ten participants confirmed that their willingness to be English teachers had grown stronger after the teaching practicum. The "colorful" interaction with school members in a *community of practice* seemed to be the reason behind this growing sense of being a teacher, as expressed by Dewinta.

> … before my teaching practicum, my willingness to be a teacher was not as strong as today. It was only about 50% at that time, but now it is nearly 90%. Probably, because I have met with many new things, directly seen and interacted with students in real life, understanding how a school system works, how a learning process works. And I found those things fun.

(Dewinta, post-practicum interview)

It is important to bear in mind that the degree of growing willingness to be an English teacher was starkly different from one participant to another, depending on the quality of interaction and supervision they received during the practicum. One participant, Arel, mentioned that his motivation to become an English teacher had fluctuated during the practicum. He initially

came to his teaching practicum with no intention to become an English teacher. He joined the EED because he did not pass the police entrance test so he could embark on his dream career in the police force as discussed earlier. Yet throughout the practicum experience, he was impressed with his students' behaviour in respecting him as a PST and therefore he thought that he might choose teaching as his career after all. However, in his post-practicum interview, he reported that his motivation went down again as he was not happy faced with the fact that he could not really help his students to learn English better during his teaching practicum because of various external factors. He therefore kept aspiring to be a policeman when he graduated, as he first planned.

6.4. Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the complex stories behind each participant's decision to study at the EED and to choose English teaching as their career choice. Central to the findings within this chapter is the idea that the journey to embark on the English teaching profession is subject to unique and idiosyncratic factors which are different from one participant to another. Findings showed that motives to be English teachers were widely varied. They included altruism, religious values, the special status of English, and the idea of teaching as a suitable profession for females. Data also revealed that these motivations often originated from childhood, schooling, and familial experiences of participants. In addition, the influence of significant others appeared to be one of the dominant factors behind their decisions to be English teachers. Yet unlike the belief widely held by educational policy makers in Indonesia, factors such as an improved remuneration (double incentive) scheme as part of the current Indonesian Teacher Certification Program did not appear to have any significant effect in their choices to continue with, or abandon, the English teaching profession. This indicates that young teachers often tend to value idealistic principles over financial rewards.

Although all participants were studying at the English teacher training institution, it was found that not all of them wanted to be a professional English teacher as their career choice. This chapter also addressed how the choice to be or not to be an English teacher was influenced by socio-cultural values (such as Islamic values) as well as by broader economic and political contexts. These findings indicate that the PST's narratives on reasons to be a teacher or their past interaction with significant others did contribute to how they view the

teaching profession (Olsen, 2008). The findings also highlighted how the journey to becoming an English teacher can be described as a continuum in which the PSTs constantly negotiated their decisions about pursuing an English teaching career, by considering a range of mediating factors.

VII. CONCEPTUALISING "PROFESSIONAL ENGLISH TEACHER" AND "GOOD ENGLSIH TEACHING"

"What I mean by a professional English teacher is that s/he should first have good faith in God (imaan and taqwa). I think that faith is a foundation for everything. If a teacher has strong faith, it will help them make it easier in educating students."

(Elvina, pre-practicum interview)

This chapter presents another important aspect of this study in relation to how the PSTs conceptualise the notion of the '*professional English teacher'* (PET) and 'good' English teaching in improving the quality of teaching Englsih as a foreign language (EFL) in Indonesia. In other words, this section is intended to describe and problematise desirable attributes the PSTs aspire to imbibe and enact as teachers by taking the teaching practicum as an important context in their conceptualisation. Unravelling this issue is considered important because I argue that their understanding of what it means to be a 'PET' is a part of their construction of teachers' professional identity (see review on section 3.3.1). For the PSTs, this understanding could be their basis to understand *who they are as teachers to be* - their roles and responsibilities as an English teacher in the future when they join the real community of PETs. At the same time, this would be theoretically understood as having the potential to drive them to understand what kind of teachers they aspire to be in the future as teaching and identity are closely related (Palmer, 1998).

To be more specific, this chapter has two main separate sections. The *first* section discusses in detail participants' conceptualisation of the notion of the PET by comparing their answers from two differently timed interviews (before and after the teaching practicum). Within this section, two distinctive roles – teachers as *knowledge transmitters* and teachers as *value educators* – are deliberately further discussed as I consider these as two important points mentioned by the participants of this study. Friere's (1970) critical theory of pedagogy – the banking concept of education - is employed as a framework to understand and analyse these particular findings. Factors that have constructed, deconstructed and reconstructed the PSTs' understanding of the notion of the PET are also addressed throughout this section. The

second section deals with PSTs' perception on "good" English teaching in the Indonesian context. This particular section is specifically elaborated in terms of their understanding of the realities and challenges of current ELT in Indonesia and possible 'good' solutions they offer to deal with these challenges.

7.1. What It Means to be a Professional English Teacher

As prospective English teachers, today PSTs are required by the Indonesian government to be *professional* before they can officially receive a teaching license. For professional accreditation and acknowledgement, the Indonesian government has set up specific procedures and a set of indicators all teachers must achieve before they are officially and administratively entitled to be accepted as *'guru profesional'* with certain privileges (see section 2.3). Yet, the notion of a 'professional' English language teacher is somewhat vague; it means different things to different people in different contexts. In the context of this study, the term *professional* does not only mean a person engaged, accredited or qualified in a profession, in current Indonesian educational discourse it also entails a broader meaning as it is used by the government as a point of reference to standardise qualified teachers. As reviewed in section 3.4.3, the term *professional teacher* in this study is interchangeable with other terms, such as 'good teacher', 'effective teacher', or 'qualified/skilled teacher'.

Having explored participants' unique stories in embarking on the English teaching profession in the preceding chapter, subsequent questions were developed to explore how the PSTs defined the notion of the PET; what skills, knowledge and competency an English teacher should have, what an English teacher's roles are, and what the desirable attributes of a PET should be. As previously mentioned, answers to these questions were explored at two different points in time (before and after teaching practicum) to see the influence of the practicum as an important context which facilitated this conceptualisation of the PET.

The findings suggested that PSTs did have some initial concepts about the 'PET' before their commencement of the practicum program. To put this in the words of Thomson's (2002 as cited in Cornu & Ewing, 2008), this initial concept was like their 'virtual schoolbag' of understandings of the notion of the PET, which was often a result of their 'institutional

biographies' as well as their personal biography (see section 3.4.1). The findings also indicate that the participants of this study did not come to the teaching practicum with a blank slate or *tabula rasa* (Britzman, 2003).

Their concepts of the 'PET' could be generally summarised as qualified individuals with multiple roles and responsibilities, holding a set of competencies, knowledge and skills, and particular attributes as a PET imposed by both government and society. Specifically, participants' perceptions of the PET could be classified into two main themes as follows – *teachers as multi skilled beings and multiple role agents.*

Although the two are interrelated, they are also different in a sense that the skills (including knowledge and competencies) are prerequisites for the PET to play their multiple roles effectively and successfully. If the former relates more to pedagogical issues, the latter deals with cultural expectations. Teachers' skills would determine how good they would be in playing these roles. On the other hand, to what extent they could fulfill their roles depend on how skillful they are as professional teachers. The differences are described and discussed in more detail in the following section.

7.1.1. Teachers as Multi Skilled Beings with a Set of Competencies

Referring to the framework of the *professional teacher* defined by Law number 14/2005 about teachers, the skills or competencies mentioned by the participants of this study in interviews and focus group discussion can be aligned to the terms used by the Law in defining the *professional teacher* in the Indonesian context; they are *pedagogical competency, professional competency, personality competency,* and *social competency* (see section 3.4.3 for details). Although these categories can be questioned and contested, I consider the categories as a useful starting point of reference for categorising themes which emerged from data findings, especially in answering question regarding how participants describe the notion of a '*professional English teacher'* in the context of teaching English a foreign language in Indonesia. Unlike other conceptualisations which tend to limit the definition of 'good teachers' in terms of competencies, skills, and knowledge (See Nunan, 1999; Thompson, 2008; Wichadee, 2010) or simply in terms of dividing it into two broad

categories in a mechanical component and a mental component (Brown & Rodgers, 2002), this framework entails a relatively holistic approach in defining PETs.

These competencies' categorisations as mentioned in the Law were observed to be embedded in the answers given by the participants through both pre- and post- practicum interviews. In terms of their competencies, the summary of participants' conceptualisation on what it means to be "professional English teachers" can be seen from the following table 6:

Table 6. Identified Competencies of 'Professional English Teachers' as perceived by PSTs

No	Competencies	Descriptions
1	Pedagogic	having effective teaching strategies; being able to create a live, dynamic, and interactive class; maintaining student-friendly teaching approach; having creative, enjoyable, and motivating teaching techniques.
2	Personal	having strong faith; being patient, tech-friendly, decisive, caring; disciplined, reliable, tolerant, responsible, punctual, kid-friendly, flexible, and approachable
3	Professional	having a high level of English language proficiency; having a sense of flexibility
4	Social	being friendly and approachable, supportive, sociable, and communicative

In terms of *pedagogical competency*, some participants perceived that a PET should have effective teaching skills and strategies to enable English learners to improve their English proficiency as outlined in the current English curriculum for secondary schools in Indonesia. For instance, they specifically mentioned that good English teachers should have an ability "to create a live, dynamic, and interactive class" (Ayi, pre-practicum interview), and "to create better techniques for teaching, to produce new methods to enable the students to learn better in a dynamic mode" of learning (Selly, pre-practicum Interview).

What Ayi and Selly described referred to the teaching skills or pedagogical competency they believed a PET should hold. Highlighting this kind of *student friendly* teaching approach indicated that the participants of this study were aware of a common understanding in many Indonesian students who usually considered English a 'hard' subject to learn. They believed

that using creative, enjoyable, attractive, and motivating techniques would be effective pedagogical strategies to maintain the students' interest in learning English. Otherwise, English will remain a 'disease' for many students in Indonesia, as Arel articulated in his pre-practicum interview.

> I think that the ELT is so far not sucessful yet. The fact is that there are still many students who think that English is a 'disease'.

The term 'disease' used by Arel was a metaphor to showcase the difficult nature of English learning perceived by many Indonesian students. Indeed, what Arel said was accurate in that many Indonesian school students still perceived the English subject as a serious psychological burden. The burden may be the result of misleading concepts on the nature of learning English before starting learning the language. Some students may think that English should be learned in a different way in comparison to the ways the other languages are learned (Panggabean, 2007). Some others think that it is more difficult to learn than their native languages and even that English is the most intricate one of all human languages.

At the same time, what Arul mentioned above could be understood that the PSTs' personal stories in the past and their *virtual schoolbag* (Thomson, 2002 as cited in Cornu & Ewing, 2008) as English learners who experienced tough journeys to master the language made them aware of the importance of this dynamic and friendly teaching approach from PETs. Their schooling experience contributed to shaping their conceptualisation of PETs, in terms of their pedagogical competency.

Treating English as a hard subject is actually not a new issue as I myself also experienced the same story when I was in junior and senior high school. Some of my classmates preferred to leave the class and played outside rather than sit in the English class, as I have previously mentioned. This story remains the same until the present day when the majority of the students regard English as a 'nightmare' for their learning (see Mistar, 2005). As a result, this negative attitude led many teachers to experience difficulties in conducting an English lesson in Indonesian schools, no matter how many methods and strategies the teachers have tried to apply (Jazadi, 2004; Marcellino, 2008).

In addition, it can be seen from the data that a PET should demonstrate *personal competency*. This relates to the idea that a good English teacher is someone who has a positive personality or who holds strong positive values. Some attributes mentioned by the participants across methods of data collection were *having strong faith, being patient, being tech-friendly, being decisive, being caring, being disciplined, being reliable, being tolerant, being responsible, being punctual, being kid-friendly, being flexible, and being approachable* (see Figure 9 - a Wordle image representing the frequency of each attribute mentioned by the PSTs across three methods of data collection - the bigger the particular words look, the more frequently they were mentioned by these study participants). These positive characteristics are important for professional teachers in playing their roles as educators, which usually implies that a teacher should be a good role model with a *positive personality* for their students.

Figure 9. Personal attributes of PET as perceived by PSTs

In terms of this personal competency, one participant, for example, mentioned that a PET should first have strong faith in God as it would be an important basis for the PET to play the roles of educator (see the epigraph of this chapter). Elvina's emphasis on the importance of showing faith for an English teacher is a unique finding of this study as an English teacher is by default not supposed to teach religious content. However, in the case of Indonesia where teachers have been widely perceived by the majority of the people as role models, this issue is highly relevant and important. This is especially in line with the goal of national education

in Indonesia that puts an emphasis on guiding students to be religious and pious as an important goal. In fact, article 3 in the National Education Law no. 20/2003 specifically states that the national education development is an “effort to develop the intellectual life of the nation and improve the quality of faithful, devout, and moral Indonesian people who master science, technology and the arts to create a modern, fair, prosperous and civilized society based on *Pancasila* and the 1945 Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia” ("Law on National Education System," 2003, p. 2).

As mentioned in the Law, the emphasis on morality and religious issues is closely related to the *Pancasila* – the five pillars which has been the official philosophical basis of the Indonesian state. The first pillar explicitly declares that the nation is based on the belief in the divinity of God, (in Indonesian, *Ketuhanan Yang Maha Esa*). This pillar has been the source of inspiration for Indonesian society in many aspects of life, including in education. Therefore, it is understandable that PSTs consider the religious aspects of defining the notion of a PET quite seriously.

Other participants mentioned the importance of being a teacher with extra steadfastness in dealing with students’ diverse behaviours and uniqueness. This point was specifically raised by the PSTs during post-practicum interviews after they experienced real challenges in dealing with students’ behaviour. Some participants made a reference to the fact that a class might consist of extremely aggressive and disciplinarily problematic students. Mischief might range from students’ ignorance about teachers’ instructions to the disavowal shown by some students with the PSTs’ placement in their schools. Having experienced these challenges, one participant – Rike – concluded that a good teacher is supposed to be “the most patient person in the world” as they have to deal with many students with diverse characteristics, habits, and behaviours.

With regard to the challenges, participants of this study also mentioned that a PET should be someone who is *decisive* and *disciplined* but *caring* and *approachable* at the same time. These attributes were especially mentioned by participants during their post-practicum interviews, rather than in the pre-practicum ones. Their own difficult experiences in dealing how to manage the class was apparently the source of inspiration for these important

attributes and their views that a good teacher needs to be friendly but authoritative to make sure the class is under control. However, being a decisive teacher seemed to be difficult for PSTs as they were frequently regarded as *'only'* a practicing teacher' by most of the school students. Some of the PSTs felt they were in some ways rejected by the students as their presence seemed to have been ignored by some students (stories about this kind of resistance and the state of being powerless is discussed in section 8.1.2).

What the PSTs mentioned above is similar to findings from a recent study by Kuswandono (2013) who reported that PSTs in his study also had difficulties to be 'real teachers' during the practicum due to their status as 'only' practicing teachers. In the context of Kuswandono's study, in addition to the problems of maintaining their self-confidence or self-assurance during the practicum, the participants were particularly concerned with issues on how to manage students' behaviour in a classroom as well as on how to deal with school culture which provided less creativity for the PSTs in delivering a lesson.

In relation to *professional competency*, in the pre-practicum interviews most participants stressed the importance of having a high level of English language proficiency, so that English language teachers could fluently communicate in English during the teaching process. Specifically, they considered that PETs should be "masters in English" and "proficient in English", especially in their oral English skills. According to most PSTs, it is highly important for the PET to consistently use English as medium of instruction. What was understood by the participants of this study in defining the PET is in line with the government's expectations in describing the profile of PETs' competency. As described in Ministry Regulation (Permen) No. 16/2007, the Indonesian government defines PETs as "teachers who master both spoken and written English as well as possess both receptive and productive skills in every form of English competence – linguistic, discourse, sociolinguistic and strategic competence" (Depdiknas, 2007, my translation). This implies that an English teacher is highly recommended to use English as the language of instruction.

However, having observed their placement school students' low levels of English language proficiency during the practicum, some participants in the post practicum interviews stated that a PET did not necessarily have to use English all the time in a classroom. Although they

kept stressing the importance of being highly proficient in English, they also believed that an English teacher needed to be *flexible* in using both English and the students' native language. This was especially crucial when the majority of their students could not understand English well enough. For this reason, they suggested that the teachers sometimes could code-switch to ensure that the students understood what the teachers were saying. This means that they sometimes had to switch from using the target language to using their native language (in this case, Bahasa Indonesia) for clarity and intelligibility purposes.

Although code-switching is not recommended in an English class following the tenets of Communicative Language Teaching (Ivone, 2005), this kind of flexibility was necessary in the situation where the particular recommended teaching approach could not work well. The 16 week teaching practicum seemed to have enabled in PSTs the understanding that what was happening in the field was often more complicated than the situation portrayed in books. The complexities often led many of these PSTs to reflect, interpret and reinterpret their experiences during the practicum. This reinterpretation enabled them to challenge some of their initial beliefs and practices about teaching and learning, leading to their new conceptualisations of what professional teachers should do in a classroom.

It could be further understood that most participants experienced a paradigm change in the second round of interviews post practicum, shifting from stressing the importance of being proficient in English and using it as a medium of instruction, to focusing on issues of intelligibility in communication. In other words, the responses tended to be more pragmatic in the sense that they would employ any teaching strategies that could enable their students to learn to communicate intelligibly or clearly. After the teaching practicum, most were open to the possibility of using students' native language as a medium of instruction if necessary.

> … related to the professionalism of the teacher, in my point of view before was that an English teacher should be capable in speaking English, should be fluent. But, when I see the reality, actually an English teacher should not always be that good as an English speaker. But, most important is how an English teacher could, even a bit, motivate the students to speak.
>
> (Demire, post-practicum interview)

The flexibility of teaching approach expressed by the participants indicates that their interaction with the students and the school contexts does influence the way they define the notion of the "good English teacher". Their dynamic of interaction and engagement with practices during the teaching practicum led the PSTs to challenge their initial beliefs on one aspect of good teaching. This finding further proves that the formation of teachers' professional identity, as Britzman (2003) argues, is seen as being a constant dialogue between individual identity and social experience. It is in this dialogue that the meanings of lived experience are named and negotiated. Britzman (2003) emphasises the process of dialogue and the negotation teachers do to make sense of their experiences during their interaction with their surrounding worlds. It is through this constant dialogue and negotiation of meaning that teachers shape their professional identities.

The last competence mentioned by participants is related to *social competency*. In order to be able to socialise well with students, some participants mentioned during the pre-practicum interviews that the teachers should be friendly and approachable, but were still respected by the students. Two participants, Maysil and Dewinta, mentioned that the student teachers could regard their school students as their 'friends', whom the students could talk to about their personal problems. According to Maysil, such a close relationship mode of *friendship* could enable teachers to easily motivate students to "perform better in their learning" (pre-practicum interview). Although Maysil did not really explore why this friendship mode of the student-teacher relationship could enhance the learning achievement, it could be understood that the teacher would have an advantage in a sense that she or he could practically and easily tell students about any kind of instruction with no psychological barriers.

Similarly, Dewinta argued that a close relationship with students could facilitate an enjoyable learning atmosphere, as the students did not need to worry about issues of teachers' power and rigid authority in the classroom.

> A good teacher should be someone friendly but respected by his or her students, not someone to be afraid of. The way he/she teaches should make the students enjoy the process of learning. By being friendly, a student doesn't have to worry to raise a question if necessary. Otherwise, students will worry to express their ideas freely.
>
> (Dewinta, pre-practicum interview)

It seemed that the PSTs who were relatively close in age with most of their senior high school students were driven to consider the school students as their "friends". After the practicum, however, three participants spoke of the importance of keeping "boundaries" in a student – PST relationship and changed their mind about the nature of this relationship. After practicum, they thought that this kind of relationship could jeopardise the authority of the teachers. This was strongly voiced by Maysil who encountered a student - teacher relationship issue during her teaching practicum. She narrated that some students misinterpreted her 'nice' approach to them and came to this conclusion when she found that some students went beyond boundaries by considering her as their true peer and by not showing sufficient respect to her as their teacher.

> We should not being too close with the students, because the students need to know that there are still some boundaries necessary between students and teachers, so they can respect us as their teachers - they don't step on our heads.
>
> (Maysil, post-practicum interview)

With regard to this issue, research has indeed confirmed that students who enjoy a close and supportive relationship with a teacher are more likely to be engaged in that they work harder in the classroom, are tougher in the face of learning problems, listen more closely to a teacher's direction and criticism, cope better with stress, and attend more to the teacher (Skinner & Belmont, 1993). The findings in this study do not necessarily contradict Skinner and Belmont's (1993) suggestion. It is more about how the relationship is developed and how the care is reached. Over time, while still being firm and fair and setting the boundaries, students would respect consistency and fairness which often ends up in a caring and productive relationship.

According to the story told by Maysil, the *friendship* mode seemed to mislead some of her students to act disrespectfully towards her as their teacher. Maysil's shifting beliefs about the importance of a close relationship with school students indicates that her sense of professional identity is shaped through the process of interpretation and reinterpretation of experiences (Kerby, 1991 as cited in Beijaard et al., 2004). The way the PSTs enacted their professional identity and interpreted their experience during the practicum was closely affected by their personal biographies and cultural histories as well as by broader social and

political contexts. In the case of Maysil, her personal traumatic experience with the student – teacher relationship prompted her to change her mind in defining a good teacher's attributes.

From the perspective of teachers' stages of development as proposed by Fuller and Brown (1975), what Maysil experienced could be considered common among PSTs. This is due to the fact that Maysil was still in her very early stage of becoming a teacher. Using the words of Fuller and Brown (1975), Maysil seemed to be in the *survival stage* in her journey to becoming a novice teacher, and those who are at this stage typically would be concerned with herself as a teacher, rather than focusing on the students or the impact of her teaching (see section 8.1.2 for further discussion of this survival stage of PSTs' development). In this case, Maysil preferred to choose to feel 'personally safe' by setting up clear boundaries with her students, rather than thinking beyond her safety zone about how she could find more effective strategies to win her students' hearts.

These findings indicated that participants' views of what constitutes the PET were not fixed. They were constantly evolving, reconstructed, and redefined through their interaction in various contexts, including the context of the teaching practicum. Participants' shifting views on important features of PETs, as previously discussed, indicates that the teaching practicum experience did function as an important context which shaped and reshaped the PSTs' understanding of what a PET means for them. Their conceptualisation of the PET was also coloured by their cultural and religious beliefs. The importance of context in nurturing the professional identity of teachers has been mentioned by various studies in this field (see, for instance, Day & Flores, 2006; Sachs, 2001; Walshaw & Savell, 2001). In the case of this study, the school culture in which they work; their students' learning challenges and responses to their teaching; and the nature of their interaction with members of the school community have emerged as stronger mediating influences in altering the PSTs' conceptualisation of the notion of PET.

7.1.2. Teachers as Multiple Role Agents

Drawing on the work of Crookes (2003), the process of becoming a teacher during the teaching practicum could be understood as the process of learning to perform a particular social role. Therefore, this study deems as important the investigation of how pre-service

teachers develop an understanding of what specific roles a professional teacher should hold. The construction of this conceptualisation was investigated in the context of PSTs' interactions with members of the school community during the teaching practicum. It is argued in this study that in performing the social role of a teacher, a PST "necessarily engages with a script partly constructed by the expectations of our audience of students, fellow teachers, administrators, and possibly parents and community members" (Crookes, 2003, p. 5).

Having crossed analyses of the data, it was found that nearly all participants perceived a PET as someone enacting multiple roles and possessing complex responsibilities – being a knowledge transmitter, an educator, a learning facilitator, a classroom manager, the students' second set of parents, and a 'hero' for the students, as Table 5 summarises. These roles have been repeatedly mentioned by most of the study participants either in the pre-practicum or post-practicum interviews as well as throughout their reflective journals and focus group discussion. The comparison of the specific roles identified during two periods of data collection could be seen from the table below:

Table 7. Teachers' roles – identified from pre- and post-practicum interviews

Pre-Practicum Interviews	**Post-Practicum Interviews**
knowledge transmitter	knowledge transmitter
educator – agent of values	educator – agent of values
role models – personality and English learning	role models – personality and English learning
learning facilitator	learning facilitator
being the student's friends	being the students' friends - partner
classroom manager	classroom manager
supervisor	supervisor – a guide
motivator	motivator
	learning accelerator
	'writer of students' blank paper'
	students' second parents
	students' hero

As shown in the table, most participants shared the same views of the roles that a PET should play in both pre-and post-practicum interviews. However, compared to data from pre-

practicum interviews, more roles were identified in the post-practicum interviews. If the roles mentioned before practicum could be interpreted as PSTs' understanding on the basis of their past life experience during schooling and teacher training courses, these new perceived roles are very likely generated from the students-teachers' participation and interactions with members of school community during the practicum.

The notion of *teachers as knowledge transmitters* was repeatedly mentioned by the majority of PSTs in both pre and post-practicum interviews. It indicated that most participants perceived that this notion was supposed to be the major role of a professional teacher, apart from other roles as aforementioned.

> …a professional teacher should be a multi-talented person. He or she is the one who is not only being *a knowledge transmitter*, but also being a motivator for the students to learn harder.
>
> (Selly, post-practicum interview)

Consideration of teachers as knowledge transmitters is likely rooted from a cultural tradition of learning in Indonesian society, where teachers are supposed to be the main and ultimate source of learning during the lesson. For this reason, traditionally Indonesian students would expect their teachers to transfer 'ready stock' knowledge to them as learners. This implies that commonly the teaching and learning atmosphere applied in many Indonesian classrooms was one where the students are passive and the teachers are the active players in the learning process.

Yet, participants also believed that the role of a PET should go beyond merely transferring skills and knowledge. Instead, the PSTs viewed PETs as supposed to play multiple roles as listed above. In addition to PETs' role as *knowledge transmitters*, another role frequently mentioned and highlighted by PSTs in this study (in their interviews as well in the FGD) was the role of *teachers as moral educators* (see Figure 10 – a Wordle image representing several key words and attributes mentioned by the PSTs across three methods of data collection in defining the roles of PETs).

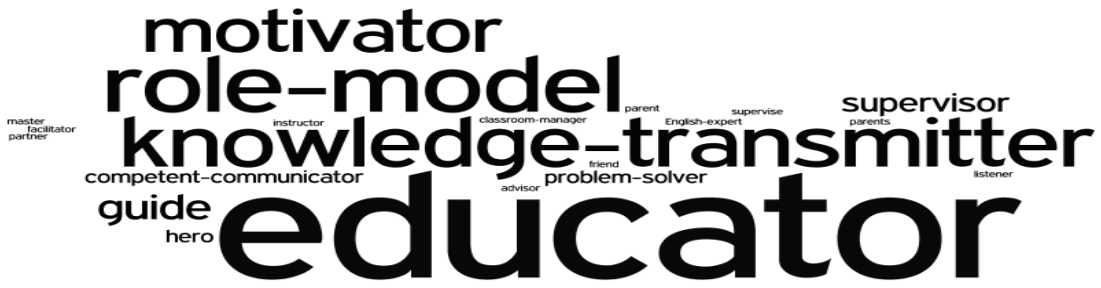


Figure 10. Important and desirable roles of PET as perceived by PSTs

This means that participants perceived that being a good English teacher in Indonesia should go beyond teaching the four English skills; he or she should also have roles and responsibilities for transferring values to his or her students (the notion of *teachers as knowledge transmitters* and *moral educators* are further discussed in section 7.1.2.1 and 7.1.2.2) as described by one participant in the focus group discussion.

> I would like to emphasise that a professional teacher should focus more on the educating process, not only transferring the knowledge. Building characters of the students are more important than merely teaching language skills, so that the students can behave properly to their teachers, their parents. So, teacher is an educator.
>
> (Dewinta, FGD)

Considering their roles as a role model after conducting their teaching practicum, some participants reported that they became aware of improving personal attitudes, including the way they spoke, the way they acted and even the way they dressed. One participant recalled that she decided to wear only ‘proper dresses’ in front of their students as she realised that she was already a teacher from whom her students learned , including about the issue of ‘proper’ dress.

Looking at these personality changes, we could say that the teaching practicum had in some ways been effective in nurturing the foundations of the construction of teachers’ professional identity. The title of ‘guru’ had been used to address these PSTs during their practicum, either inside or outside of the classroom. They had been standing in front of the class, interacting with the school community, wearing teachers’ uniforms, and acting like real teachers. As a result, these student teachers would take into account what society expected from PETs and

intuitively adjust some of their identities with this new set of identities attributed to them as new teachers.

In addition to these roles, participants also mentioned that a good English teacher should also be a "classroom manager", a "students' supervisor", and a "student's friend" at school. Although some participants reinterpreted their beliefs in relation to the role of being 'a friend of students', as previously discussed, others such as Dewinta still believed that good teachers could maintain some degree of friendship to encourage the school students to "freely tell us their problems, so we could advise them about some solutions" (post-practicum interview).

As Table 5 suggests, in the post practicum interviews some participants articulated stronger notions in defining the roles of PETs, such as *the teacher is a hero* and *the teacher is like a writer of the student's 'blank paper'*. The term *the teacher is a hero* is widely known in Indonesia where national culture refers to teachers as *'pahlawan tanpa tanda jasa'* (unsung heroes). This description is very likely related to the nature of highly demanding work the PSTs had to do during the practicum. As described in section 2.4.2, during the practicum PSTs were not only expected to work with their mentor teachers (designing lesson plans, preparing teaching materials, and delivering the lessons), but they also had to actively participate in 'whole school community' activities, such as being students' supervisors in extracurricular activities, being test invigilators, or even helping school administrators in the office. Having practiced 'like other senior teachers' (Elvina, post-practicum interview), they could see and feel that being a teacher is a timeless profession whose jobs and responsibilities move beyond the schools walls and classrooms.

The complexities of teachers' roles they experienced during the teaching practicum seemed to contradict with their initial perception on the nature of teachers' roles and responsibility. As discussed in section 6.2.2, some female teachers stated that they chose to be a teacher because teaching was considered appropriate for Indonesian women as teaching hours were quite flexible – not as demanding as other professions. Yet, realising the timeless nature of teachers' roles and responsibility did not seem to change their intention to be teachers. All female participants still kept saying that they wanted to be teachers after the teaching practicum. Their intentions were indeed expressed in an even more emphatic manner.

> I am a female, so I feel that teaching is my life. I love being with the kids, I am happy seeing the kids grow and do what we are teaching. I believe that this would be fun for me. I would have a lot of people to share, have a lot of experience.
>
> (Elvina, post practicum interview)

The idea of being the writer of the students' *blank paper* mentioned above could be interpreted as the PSTs' understanding of teaching philosophy which regards students as *tabula rasa* ("blank slate" in Latin). It refers to the epistemological theory that individuals are born without built-in mental content and that all of their knowledge comes from experience and perception. In the context of pedagogy, it is an understanding which views a student as like an empty box, going to school without any background knowledge until she or he interacts and participates in their schooling experience where teachers are the main players in coloring the 'blank slate'.

However, from another point of view the term 'blank paper' also seems to be a metaphor used to showcase the status of teachers in Indonesia as strategic, important and powerful in determining someone's' future life. Teaching is the profession that teaches other professions. By not intending to undermine students' own efforts and their unique sense of self-power, generally speaking it could be said that the teacher is the one who significantly determines the path of a student's future life. Students' skills, knowledge, values, and characters cannot be separated from 'the color of teaching' their teachers have crafted on them during their schooling period. In short, PSTs have developed their 'virtual schoolbag' (Thomson, 2002 as cited in Cornu & Ewing, 2008 p. 1802) as well as their institutional biographies for later use in their teaching practice.

The following section discusses what is happening beyond the issue of teachers as knowledge transmitters to understanding the interpretation of teachers' roles as writers of students' 'blank papers' in relation to a critical theory of pedagogy – the banking concept of education (Freire, 1970).

7.1.2.1. Teachers as Knowledge Transmitters

The notion of *teachers as knowledge transmitters* refers to an idea that a teacher is the one who is supposed to be the ultimate source of knowledge, as previously mentioned. A teacher

is regarded as the one with a 'ready stock of knowledge' who systematically 'transmit' that knowledge to students through teaching activities. This understanding is, in some ways, relevant to the metaphor used by Freire (1970) in his critical theory of pedagogy called *the banking concept of education.* Freire (1970, p. 21) theorised that students in this system of education are considered " 'receptacles' to be 'filled' with the "content of the teachers narration". These students as "repositories" are expected to reiterate information transmitted by teachers in various occasions during the learning process through their tests, quizzes, and anything that requires an answer that is exactly the same as what the teacher instructed.

Freire's educational philosophy originated from his deep concerns about the oppressed people of the country where he lived (Brazil). He could not accept the realities of injustice that he witnessed through many forms of oppression around him. He was concerned with the life of labourers and farmers who kept living in poverty, no matter how hard they worked, and was passionate about 'waking up' these oppressed people to understand the world they inhabited. Freire believed that they could transform their situation in life by starting to think critically about realities and then taking action. He believed that the alleviation of oppression and human suffering was only possible through systematic education.

In Freire's proposition, the banking concept of education is the most significant factor that has made this oppression remain unaltered. This is because in a banking classroom, the teacher is the epistemological authority or the subject of learning, and the students are 'oppressed' in a sense as passive objects of the learning process. Reflecting the words of some of the participants of this study, in essence what the teachers did in the banking concept of education was that a teacher mainly played a role as *knowledge transmitters.* Freire (1970, p. 55) further writes that "the more students work at storing deposits entrusted to them, the less they develop the critical consciousness which would result from their intervention in the world as transformers of that world". The absence of critical thinking skills in the educational process, according to Freire, leads to worsening the injustice in society.

In educational practice, this banking concept of education has led to some teachers and students using the rote learning phenomenon, instead of empowering them to have

ownership of knowledge and critical thinking skills (Yadava, 2012). That is when the learning atmosphere is dominantly dictated by teachers (teacher-centred teaching approach) and happens when students regard their position as a passive 'receiver' of any kind of knowledge 'transmitted' by their teachers as the most authoritative and legitimate source of learning.

Reflecting to what is happening in Indonesian learning culture, the notion of teachers as knowledge transmitters as mentioned by participants in this study indicate that some kinds of 'banking' of education does exist in Indonesian classrooms, including in ELT. It has been widely acknowledged that Indonesian students tend to have 'passive', 'shy', and 'quiet' learning styles (Bjork, 2004; Exley, 2005; Lengkanawati, 2003; Marcellino, 2008). A study by Marcellino (2008) for instance investigated the challenges of ELT in Indonesia by surveying and observing 258 students at five senior high schools, and revealed that some unconstructive students' characteristics (such as being passive, uncritical, and demonstrating full obedience to teachers) contributed to the ineffectiveness of communicative language teaching implementation in Indonesian schools, in addition to problems related to teacher quality and non-conducive language environments like big class sizes and limited time allotments for certain subjects.

With regard to this culturally specific learning style, Ballard and Clanchy (1991) researched throughout the 1980s and 1990s the differences between Asian and Australian students in terms of their learning styles. Although critiqued as being essentialist and using generalisations (Exley, 2005), their work is worthwhile in understanding how students from these two different cultural backgrounds learn. The key notion of their research is that 'Asian' students (including Indonesians) are passively compliant and unreflective rote learners.

Furthermore, an ethnographic study by Bjork (2004) investigating the challenges of the implementation of new policies in Indonesian educational reform suggested that the reforms did not work well in the field due to cultural issues, including a culture of obedience and top-down authority structures. His case refers to teachers' responses to the Local Content Curriculum introduced in 1994 and identified that the civil servant *culture* that emphasises *obedience* and loyalty was a hindering factor which discouraged teachers to take active and

creative responsibility. I would argue that this culture of obedience very likely originated from the practice of 'banking' knowledge in education. Therefore, activating students' critical thinking skills during the learning process is one of the hardest challenges for English teachers in Indonesia.

This kind of absolute obedience to teachers is also probably attributed to the cultural status of teachers as *guru.* As described in Chapter 2 (section 2.3), culturally and morally Indonesian people rank the teaching profession highly in society with the teachers expected to be role models in many ways. Although this cultural expectation has not been as strong as it was many years ago, it still exists in recent times when teachers are understood as *the one to be listened to and modelled upon* (Gandana & Parr, 2013, my italics). One of the traditional practices associated with this respect is that it would be culturally inappropriate to argue with teachers. Whatever the teachers say is presumably believed as something good for the students. Therefore, 'good students' used to be defined as those who always listened to what the teachers say. As a result, it has brought about a lack of a dialogic learning atmosphere when teachers dominate the learning process.

I argue that this lack of dialogic educational discourse has made Indonesians politically silent and powerless for many years. The majority of Indonesians appeared to be less critical about injustices they faced. They lived under an oppressive and authoritarian regime (Suharto's New Order) for more than 32 years before Suharto stepped down due to 'people power' in 1998. During the New Order regime, everything was under tight government control and people could not really speak out politically. The majority of people were either silent because of fear, or because they had no motivation to speak out, or because they did not really think critically about what they saw in their daily lives. They just accepted the reality as it was even if some enjoyed a harmonious life under Suharto's regime, that kind of harmony was built upon hard pressure on the critical groups within society.

7.1.2.2. Teachers as Moral Educators

In addition to the notion of *teachers as knowledge transmitters,* another role frequently mentioned by the PSTs in both pre- and post- teaching practicum interviews was the idea of *teachers as agents of values* or as *moral educators.* This understanding was also rooted from

the same cultural expectation that teachers are *guru*. Teachers were not only expected to develop students' cognitive domains with knowledge and skills, but also to teach and even exemplify for the students the practice of moral values.

> A teacher should not only play roles as a teacher but also as an educator. Apart from teaching routines, they are also required to think of anther important element, like to make the students behave in a well manner.
>
> (Arel, pre-practicum interview)

> I would like to emphasis that a profesional teacher should focus more on the educatin process, not only transfering the knowledge. Building characters of the students are more important so that the students can behave properly to their teachers, their parents. So, teacher is an educator.
>
> (Maysil, FGD)

Therefore, in recent Indonesian educational discourse, the term 'educator' is more commonly used than 'teacher' to address those who work in the area of teaching. Calling them an *educator* implies that teachers' roles and responsibilities are beyond mere classroom responsibilities *per se*. Therefore, it is no wonder that having a set of good personal attributes is included as one of the professional teachers' ideal competencies in Indonesia, in addition to three other competencies, as discussed in section 7.1.1.

Society's expectation of teachers as value agents was also generated from a special emphasis of holding moral and religious values for Indonesian students. Given the fact that Indonesia is non-secular nation, religious values are considered central to people in society. In fact, the aim of national education in Indonesia is to educate students to be a "whole person" covering both intellectual and spiritual capacity. To achieve this, it certainly relies on teachers as the frontline players in the area of pedagogy and curriculum implementation.

Because of these high expectations, the teachers' performance is always under public scrutiny in Indonesia. Not only do people see teaching performance, but they are also concerned with 'moral performance'. Therefore, the public might be reacting strongly to teachers who were found guilty of commiting crime. All kinds of media are now constantly

probing into teacher performances. People expect that teachers would exemplify good characters for their students as well for society in general. Once a teacher makes a mistake, people might fall into angry outbursts, which can be seen from the harsh comments from many people in reacting to news of the few teachers caught red-handed commiting crimes, such as engaging in adultery (DWA, 2014). Teachers who are having inappropriate love affairs, for instance, will suffer strong social punishment from the people. It is because people in Indonesia generally still view teachers with a high level of respect and a noble social status – they are supposed to be role models and values transmitters.

Furthermore, this analysis could be rooted in the influence of Islamic values in the current Indonesian education curriculum, following an era of political reform after the fall of Suharto. Since then, Islamist groups have tried to impose Islamic or religious values into the national curriculum. This phenomenon could be observed from the various terms of Islamic jargon used throughout the curriculum, such as *iman* and *taqwa* (being pious), *akhlak* (Islamic manners), or *ikhlas* (sincere). In describing the goal of national education, for instance, Article 3 of Law number 20/2003 about national education states that the national education aims to develop "student potentials to be a whole person who is believing in God (having *Iman and Taqwa*), having a noble attitude (*akhlak*), being healthy, knowledgeable, competent, creative, and independence as well as to be a democratic and responsible citizen" ("Law on National Education System," 2003, my translation).

The three terms – *iman, taqwa, and akhlak* – are Islamic terms which refer to basic and essential qualities a Muslim should hold in this life to be successful both in this world and the hereafter. The three terms clearly indicate that Indonesian education upholds certain Islamic values in their content. This is not a big surprise given Indonesia is the most populous Muslim country in the world and it is understandable if such religious values are adopted in the philosophy of the national education system.

7.2. Views on the Improvement of ELT in the Indonesian Context

After exploring participants' stories of their decisions to study at an EED and why they chose to be an English teacher (as discussed in Chapter 6), and their conceptualisations on PET, as just explored, subsequent questions were asked to explore their views about the realities of

current ELT in Indonesia. Was it successful? What were the problems? What were some possible solutions? I argue that understanding the complex realities of ELT in Indonesia would contribute to the participants' understanding of the English teaching profession in an Indonesian context. This understanding indirectly plays a role in affecting their professional identity as teachers in a sense that their self-image as a new teacher is formed amid their understanding of these ELT complexities.

This section begins by presenting the scenario of ELT in Indonesia as mentioned by participants of this study, and is followed by their ideas and concerns for the improvement of ELT in Indonesia. Data from pre-practicum interviews show that nearly all participants viewed ELT in Indonesia as still far from successful; and that the outcomes of ELT in Indonesian schools did not really achieve the expected results as outlined in Indonesian schools' ELT curriculum. In their opinions, the 'disappointment' with ELT in Indonesia can be clearly seen, for example, from the large amount of Indonesian students still unable to communicate in English effectively, or from the tendency of the majority of Indonesian students to still regard English as a difficult subject to understand.

> "We know that many students are feeling afraid to use English, while they actually know what to say. They just feel worried, feeling afraid of making mistake."
>
> (Nisa, pre-practicum interview)

Some studies have investigated why Indonesian students experience this kind of foreign language anxiety. One of the reasons was the massive use of negative evaluation by English teachers in dealing with students' communication errors (See, for instance, Hasan, 2013; Marwan, 2008). The teacher's negative evaluation has made them feel embarrassed or caused them to feel like they had lost face in front of their classmates. Another reason for the high levels of anxiety about learning English is the strong emphasis on grammatical rules, so that school students feel anxious about not making grammatical mistakes when they are speaking (Prastiwi, 2012). These are some factors behind the view of English as a serious burden for many school students in Indonesia. Borrowing words from one participant – Arel - some students even consider English as a 'disease', which potentially becomes a serious constraint in the school students' English learning process as also discussed in section 7.1.1.

The low level of achievement of ELT in Indonesia has been reported in many studies (Kirkpatrick, 2007; Lengkanawati, 2005; Lie, 2007; Marcellino, 2008), as mentioned in the introductory chapter of this thesis. In the case of this study, one participant – Dewinta – reflected on her own schooling experience during junior and senior high school and claimed that she did not really get much from her English class. She even quantitatively generalised saying she got "only about 20% out of 100%" of her English learning process at school. She also reported that she was not satisfied with her learning experience during her teacher education courses at university. Although she did not explain how she came up with these figures, what Dewinta mentioned could partially showcase the quality of English teaching in both Indonesian schools and universities as not yet satisfactory.

Having experienced being a practicing teacher during the teaching practicum, the PSTs could see that what they used to experience in the past remained the same until the present time when many students are having serious problems with learning English at schools (see Musthafa, 2001; Yuwono, 2005). They personally observed, for instance, that most of their students had a very low level of English proficiency. Therefore, it was hard for PSTs like them to teach English to school students in accordance with the ideal content suggested by the official curriculum. Two participants – Elvina and Dodi – who did practicum in high schools even mentioned that their students' English ability was just like primary school students; therefore the placement high schools should have provided some basic skills courses.

> ... I am teaching grade seven, sir. It is just like teaching primary school students … very basic … so, we have to teach them again some very basic skills or basic knowledge of English, and doing this is not easy, because it takes a long time for the students to understand what we are teaching.
>
> (Elvina, post-practicum interview)

This phenomenon has been addressed by many researchers in the field of teaching English as a foreign language (for example, Lamb, 2011) where it is enunciated that English is commonly perceived as a hard subject to learn. Knowing this unhappy circumstance, in some ways, has discouraged some PSTs from teaching these school students, because they were not really pleased to see the students' responses during their class. The practicing teachers were

feeling unsatisfied about accepting the reality that the students in their class did not understand what they taught. In other words, the nature of students' responses as well as their performances during the lesson influence the student-teachers' sense of efficacy and their self-confidence. If the students responded positively and showed positive progress during the learning process, it would make the practicing teachers become more motivated and more confident to teach, otherwise it could demotivate them.

To deal with the 'failure' of ELT in Indonesia, participants were then asked for their suggestions for the improvement of ELT in the Indonesian context. Their answers to this question included issues to do with preparing skillful teachers, transforming 'traditional' teaching methods, dealing with limited time allocation and facilities, and the negative effects of the current national standardised test. However, discussion of this issue in the section will not only concern the list of ideas from the PSTs, it will also discuss how the PSTs' knowledge of the development of ELT was constructed and reconstructed.

The following table summarises the PSTs' views on components of ELT that they felt needed to be taken into consideration, in order to improve the effectiveness of ELT in Indonesia. These components were identified from both pre- and post- practicum interviews.

Table 8. Identified components for the improvement of ELT in Indonesia as perceived by pre-service English teachers

	Components	**Details**
1	skilful teachers	communicative teaching methods, fun, motivating, more games, various teaching media, integrated teaching, group discussion, good classroom management skills, well-prepared (teaching materials and lesson plans), good English proficiency
2	practice	more opportunities for practice, focus on language use, English day program, compulsory practice
3	exposure	as early as possible, from home
4	communicative test	an urgent need for test reform - communicative testing
5	others	collaboration with parents and community, more teaching hours, better teaching facilities

These five components identified by the participants are discussed in the following sections in more detail.

7.2.1. Skilful and Competent Teachers

Half of the participants were concerned with the provision of *skillful English teachers* as an important component for the development of ELT in Indonesia. They understood that a skillful teacher would be able to deliver an English lesson by using an effective teaching method. They also believed that the teaching method is the most influential factor, which might have affected the success of ELT. The in-depth interviews conducted before the students had embarked on their teaching practicum indicated the PSTs' belief that the least qualified English teachers had significantly caused low achievement of ELT in Indonesia. This is because the low qualified teachers, for instance, are very likely to keep applying 'traditional methods', like focusing on grammar translation, when they conduct English teaching in the class.

> Up to now, I can say that ELT in Indonesia is still far from successful; we still can't achieve what we are expecting. This might be related to the quality of English teachers. Most of them are not competent enough yet to teach English … from their methods of teaching, still not satisfactory.
>
> (Dodi, pre-practicum interview)

With regard to this method of teaching, one participant, Demire also mentioned that many English teachers were "still captivated with the concept of understanding the grammatical aspect". This perception has led many teachers to emphasise the importance of understanding grammatical knowledge in their teaching more than communicative skills. It could be understood that they tended to ignore one of the basic tenets of ELT under the communicative approach paradigm; that English is a language by which communicative skills development should be placed at the forefront, while grammar is now introduced only as much as needed to support the development of these skills (Richards, 2006). What Demire views as the objectives of ELT is compatible with the aims of teaching English in Indonesia as mandated by the current curriculum. According to the *'standar isi'* (content standard) as written in *Permendiknas* (Educational Ministry Regulation) number 22/2006 about the *2004 Competency Based Curriculum*, the subject of English in Indonesia is directed towards developing communicative and discourse competence at certain literacy levels (Mendiknas, 2006). Specifically, two participants highlighted that ELT in Indonesia should employ communicative teaching strategies that are fun and motivating with, for instance, the use of

games and by using various teaching media. As Dewinta suggested in her pre-practicum interview, “In my mind, good English teaching should be fun … with many games embedded during the teaching.”

The emphasis on fun teaching activities is likely related to the participants’ schooling experience in which many students usually perceive English as one of the difficult subjects to understand, as previously discussed in section 7.1.1. In other words, their schooling biography contributes to the study participants’ *virtual schoolbag* (Thomson, 2002 as cited in Cornu & Ewing, 2008) before they enrolled in their English teacher training. None of the PSTs who came to this English teacher training program were in a state of *tabula rasa*. Considering the perceived difficult nature of English learning, they considered that fun teaching activities were a good point of departure from where teaching could be more productive if the students are being motivated and feeling happy with no pressure during the lesson.

With regard to the perceived difficult nature of learning English itself, reflecting back to my personal experience as previously narrated, it seems that a fun classroom activity is indeed a good entry point to maintain students’ engagement in the classroom. Therefore, most participants believe that this kind of enjoyable learning would enable teachers to motivate the students during the process of learning. I myself have also experienced the ‘magic’ of ‘fun’ teaching activities to keep students remain seated in the classroom and participating in my English class. In the long term, by enjoying the learning atmosphere the school students are expected to be able to change their perceptions and realise that English is not as difficult as they had thought.

Hearing about these problems from the study participants clearly indicates that ELT in Indonesia is in urgent need of the provision of *competent English teachers* to improve the quality of ELT. This is because endeavours for the improvement of ELT cannot be separated from the existence of skillful English teachers. By not intending to make a simplification, it could be generally understood in this study that the students’ learning achievement is, in some ways, a reflection of their teachers’ own teaching quality. The more competent the teachers are; the better the students’ performance should be. Because of this reason, the

Indonesian government currently puts in great effort to improve the quality of incumbent teachers through various professional training and development programs, as outlined in section 2.3.

As prospective teachers, the participants' awareness of the urgent need for the provision of qualified and skilful teachers in improving the quality of ELT in Indonesia is a good sign. This implies that as PSTs they already understood their central role as the front line to facilitate a successful learning process. As mentioned in Chapter 1, PSTs' beliefs about teaching and learning, and how they make sense of themselves and practices (including how they perceive their roles or relevant features of their professions) contribute to the construction of their professional teaching identities (Beijaard et al., 2004). It is also argued that this understanding could have a direct or indirect contribution to the formation of highly qualified teachers. This is possible because it provides a framework for teachers to construct their own ideas of " 'how to be', 'how to act', and 'how to understand' their work and their place in society" (Sachs, 2005, as cited in Aypay & Aypay, 2011, p. 15). In short, teachers' professional identity plays a crucial part in endeavours to improve the quality of ELT in Indonesia.

Furthermore, in describing the notion of *competent English teachers*, two important issues were raised by participants of this study. *Firstly* the importance of using English as a language of instruction and *secondly* the importance of detailed and meticulous teaching preparation, for example in designing lesson plans or producing teaching materials. Although their view of the need for using English as the language of instruction has slightly changed after they finish their teaching practicum due to reasons of practicality, as discussed in section 7.1.1, this finding indicates that participants of this study viewed that it is essential for qualified English teachers to be able to communicate well in English, either in the written or spoken forms of the language. At the same time, it signposts that participants of this study were aware of the importance of well-prepared lessons and anticipated the complexity of the teaching life before they embarked on their teaching practicum.

> The teachers should be well prepared. Not only in terms of the lessons, but also their physical or psychological aspects, because they will face the real life which might be more difficult from what they think.
>
> (Dodi, pre-practicum interviews)

Dodi's special emphasis on aspects of preparation to be a good teacher is another important finding. His schooling experience in a remote area (see his profile in section 5.3) contributed a lot to his conceptualisation of this notion. He thinks a competent teacher should not only focus on the ability to prepare effective teaching materials, but also to prepare their physical and psychological approach to teaching. Dodi's emphasis on physical preparation might be based on his own schooling biography, given some of his teachers had to ride a bike for several kilometres to reach their schools demonstrating physical sacrifice and strength in their preparation for teaching. In addition, often a teacher has to work overtime (taking their work home, for instance), and therefore they needed to be physically fit all the time according to Dodi's observations.

Dodi also emphasised that psychological strength is more important than physical strength. Not only was this understanding based on his own experience in dealing with complex challenges during his practicum, but it was also drawn from his *apprenticeship of observation* (Lortie, 1975) during his own schooling when he admired one of his English teachers. He was impressed with the patience and sincerity his teacher had. This understanding is vital, since a teacher will indeed face teaching experiences with complex challenges where she or he does not only deal with technical demands (such as how to design lesson plans and how to deliver a lesson), but also non-technical ones, such as how to deal with students with disciplinary issues; coping with psychological pressure before, during, and after teaching, as well as other non-technical demands.

7.2.2. Conducive Environment for Students' Practice

The second issue raised by participants as a necessary factor for the improvement of ELT in the Indonesian context was the provision of sufficient practice for students in the classroom. They suggested that an English class should take longer than usual, so that it enables students to have more time for classroom practice. This is articulated in the belief of the participants of the study that practice *makes perfect*. Most of them understood that sufficient practice for EFL students would enable them to acquire language skills more quickly. Therefore, argued some of the participants, English teachers should focus on how to provide sufficient activities

for their students to use the language with the rationale that the more exposure the students have to English input, the more likely their English output will improve.

> The time allocated for the English subject is not enough, while the materials to teach are abundant. Then, it also relates to the regulation by each institution where they don't require the students to use English. So, there is no motivation from the students to practice English. They don't have a partner to practice their English with.
>
> (Dewinta, pre-practicum interview)

This suggestion by some of the PSTs implies a relationship to government policy for language education in Indonesian schools. The challenge, as some of the participants saw it, is that English teachers cannot only rely on the time allocated by the curriculum to provide their students with sufficient practice. Excluding so called 'international standardised schools (RSBI)' where English is usually used as the medium of instruction, most of the schools in Indonesia allocated an average of only two to four hours of English lessons every week. In junior high school, for instance, the current structure of the 2013 curriculum allocates only four hours per week (which equates in classroom time to four sessions of 40 minutes) for English lessons every week (Kemdikbud, 2013). This new set of teaching hours is actually a revised version of the previous curriculum which used to allocate only two teaching hours to English lessons in a week.

To deal with this limited time allocation, some of the participants suggested that school authorities or English teachers conduct extra class activities, such as an 'English day' at the school where students have to use their English through various activities on a particular day at the school.

> We should have time at the same time to practice the lesson. For example, in non-standardised international schools where English is not compulsory, we can practice English on a particular day, like in an English day program, the day when students must speak English. Alternatively, we can have a commitment with the kids that on that particular day, we must speak English. So, like it or not, the kids will be forced to use the language.
>
> (Demire, pre-practicum interview).

With regard to this extra activity, one participant – Dewinta – realised that enforcing students' use of English presents a dilemma for teachers. On one hand, Dewinta understood that teachers are supposed to avoid forcing students to learn a subject, as she stated in her pre-practicum interview, "it is not good if someone is doing something because of external pressures". On the other hand, she argued that the students cannot be expected to practice English voluntarily by themselves. Therefore, she proposed a policy by which each institution has to oblige their students to speak English within their institution. She added, "There should be like reward and punishment criteria to implement this policy." Dewinta believed that this compulsory English policy could force students to improve their English proficiency. Although it might be hard at the beginning, she also believed that by that time, the students would get used to this policy.

The practice of using other languages in the Islamic boarding schools (*pesantrens*) in Indonesia could be used as a model of a good practice related to any moves to teach English as part of a compulsory policy. It has been widely known in Indonesia that *pesantrens* have applied similar policies for a long time. Nearly all students in *pesantrens* are obliged to use both English and Arabic in their daily communication (Hidayat, 2007) to the total exclusion of Bahasa Indonesia. Otherwise, the students will get fined or face some other punishment from the teachers. The punishment ranges from memorising certain English phrases or vocabulary to corporal punishment. I would argue that this compulsory policy is one of the reasons that has made the majority of *pesantren* graduates proficient in English.

7.2.3. Early English Exposure

It stands out from the data that nearly half of the participants mentioned the importance of early exposure to English for students in Indonesia. The participants believed that this early exposure would enable the students to grasp the new language more quickly and effectively as their brains are perceived to be in a good condition to acquire more than one language at the same time. Dr. Susan Curtiss, a professor of linguistics at University of California (UCLA) who studies the way children learn languages (in "Research Notes: Language Learning and the Developing Brain," 1996) states that the power to learn language in a young child is evident; they can learn as many spoken languages as we allow them to hear systematically and regularly at the same time.

In the case of Indonesia, a commonly perceived challenge is the lack of exposure of the language to young leaners (Marcellino, 2008), so that they can not hear the language systematically and regularly at the same time. Therefore, for the sake of sufficient exposure, three participants of this study argued that the school system needed to intensify English teaching for younger students in the early phases of their education.

> I think that English should be taught as early as possible. I know that some schools have taught it since kindergarden … I think that the kids' brain is in a good condition to acquire two or more languages at the same time. If I am not mistaken, the kids can quickly learn new languages at that age. When they have are able to speak in Bahasa Indonesia, it would be better if they also learn other languages, such as English.
>
> (Dewinta, pre-practicum interviews)

As mentioned by Dewinta, the need for this early exposure usually stems from a similar belief to Curtis (1996); that a child could grasp a new language more quickly than adults. Nunan (2011) however states that this belief is possibly rooted from common myths in the theory of language learning and second language acquisition, saying that young children are perceived to have a greater capacity to learn a second or foreign language than adults; and language teachers should therefore use methods that have worked with children. For this reason, English is now treated as one of the key subjects in many pre-schools, kindergartens and primary schools in Indonesia. Although this myth has been challenged by some studies (See Fillmore, 1991; McLaughlin, 1992), the assumption is still strongly held by the participants of this study. They believe that as long as young students are taught in a natural, fun and motivating way, they can start English learning early enough.

> Because I think that kids' brain is in a good condition to acquire two or more languages at the same time. If I am not mistaken, the kids can quickly learn new language at that age as far as they learn in a fun way. When they have been able to speak in Bahasa Indonesia, it would be better if they also learn other languages, such as English.
>
> (Selly, pre-practicum interview)

Participants' existing knowledge of the importance of early English teaching for younger kids is very likely the result of the accumulation of their courses during teacher education program

in which they were taught about the need for teaching English for young learners. The current curriculum for English teacher education in Riau University, for instance, offers an elective subject called "Teaching English for Young Learners" (see *Appendix 3*). This subject was not only developed on the basis of a growing demand for teaching English in many pre-schools and private primary schools, but also inspired by the understanding that young learners can naturally acquire a new language quickly.

Additionally, in all of these endeavours, some participants spoke about the importance of collaboration between schoolteachers and students' parents at home. In other words, the participants suggested parents help their children develop their English proficiency by using or practicing the language at home as well as in school. As Arel stated,

> "It is also important to start from home, from [practicing with] their parents at home. When a kid has loved English at home, they will love studying English at school."

What Arel proposed is understandable as communities cannot rely merely on schools for the high achievement of children's learning, including for the development of English teaching. The view of the PSTs in this study was that other parties such as society in general and students' parents should actively get involved during the process. Such parental involvement is crucial in the case of ELT in Indonesia where students have very limited access to significant English exposure – either inside or outside their schools. However, what Arel suggested might be hard to do in practice, considering the large number of Indonesian adults who cannot speak English well (EPI, 2011), as discussed in this thesis' introductory chapter.

Some participants also voiced the need for better teaching facilities, especially for schools located in rural areas with limited access to information technology. They also expressed concern about the need for more teaching hours. In their minds, these two are factors which might have contributed to the low achievement of ELT in Indonesia. In other words, the sufficient provision of teaching facilities - like a language laboratory, English teaching materials, and audio visual media – and longer teaching hours at schools could support the enhancement of the quality of English teaching.

7.2.4. Communicative Test

In addition to the issue of limited teaching facilities, some participants were also concerned with the circumstances of the teaching and learning process in some schools that are now being conducted as *teaching to the test activities*. This is an activity through which teachers conduct their teaching by mainly focusing the students on familiarising themselves with information about the format and structure of standardised tests (Volante, 2004). This is especially the case for the teachers who teach in Grade 9 of junior high school or Grade 12 of senior high school, where the students have to take part in a high stakes national standardised test at the end of the Indonesian academic year.

The national standardised test is considered a high stakes test because it is a test which is used as a basis to determine if a student can graduate and go to further levels of education in Indonesia (Afrianto, 2007b). Considering the high stakes nature of the test, it is not a surprise to see many teachers (including English teachers) practice what is called 'teaching to the test'. As Nisa reported in her post practicum interview, "what is taught at school is mainly how to help students pass the final standardised national examination, not how they can communicate with each other in English". This phenomenon has been described in research literature as "washback" (see McNamara, 2000; Messick, 1996)

This activity implies that teaching activities in the classroom are likely not happening according to what the curriculum mandates. Rather, the activities would be more limited to testing or drill activities, focusing on familiarising the students with the test format, and advising on test wise strategies, as previously mentioned. In other words, the teachers will put less focus on activities that could enhance students' communications skills, such as speaking and writing activities. They might have neglected these two skills, as the standardised test does not assess these two skills in the current national examinations.

After the practicum, the participants were again interviewed to explore their views about how they defined 'professional English teacher' and 'good ELT' in the context of teaching English as foreign language in Indonesia. As mentioned before, this question was aimed at investigating how the practicum has shaped and reshaped their knowledge of 'professional English teachers' and good ELT in Indonesia. Like in the pre-practicum interviews, most

participants repeated similar issues as important components for ELT in Indonesia, such as the need for effective teaching methods, the provision of professional teachers, and sufficient opportunities to practice English. Dewinta and Maysil, for example, recalled the importance of a fun teaching approach with many games embedded in it to deal with the fact that many students have negatively perceived English as a hard subject to learn.

Despite these similar views, it seems that their answers were more technical, realistic and specific in this second round of interviews. Ayi, for example, in her pre-teaching practicum interview she refered to few general points in answering question regarding how she defines a ‘professional english teacher’ as can be seen from the first colomn of the following table 8 , but then it developes to be more descriptive as seen on the right column.

Table 9. Identified Development of Ayi's View on 'Professional English Teacher'

Pre-practicum interview	**Post Practicum Interview**
A professional English teacher should, first master the language, proficient in English and should be able to transfer the knowledge well to the students. That’s what a professional teacher, I think.	I think it deals with the class management. It should have a good class management where the teacher can manage and control the students in the class. To do that, a teacher should *prepare* his or her lesson and teaching materials well at home. Then, the teaching materials should be *sufficient*. And the teachers should understand and *master* the lesson well. Even, the teachers should be able to *anticipate* any kinds of questions and problems that might arise later in the classroom. So, everything should be well-prepared.

In her first interview, Ayi did not specify how an English teacher should transfer the knowledge well, for instance. In her second interview (right colomn) after being a practicing teacher for few months she pointed out more detailed information on how a professional English teacher should play his or her role in transferring the knowledge. She stressed the

importance of good classroom management as a part of the improvement of ELT in Indonesia. She particularly emphasized the importance of preparation for teachers before they go to a classroom. She believes that a well-prepared lesson would enable the teachers to anticipate any possible problems they might have in the class.

As also previously discussed in section 7.1.1, the development of PSTs' understanding on what constitutes a professional English teacher and or their conceptualisation on good ELT in Indonesian can also be seen from their views on the importance of using English as the language of classroom instruction. Arel, for instance, initially believed that a good English teacher should speak English in the classroom with their students. However, he changed his mind in his post-practicum interview as he realised that his students completely did not understand his lesson if he taught them in English. He preferred to be more realistic with his teaching idealism (see table 9).

Table 10. Identified Development of Arel's View on 'good ELT'

Pre-practicum interview	**Post Practicum Interview**
Regardless the students' ability, I think that a good English teacher should use English all the time during teaching process in the classroom. By this, we hope that students more or less will understand and get some ideas from the process, may be by looking at the dictionary or by asking the teacher about the meaning of certain words.	When I teach them by using English [as the language of instruction], they complained, "Sorry sir. I do not understand what you said. Please do not use English, just Indonesian please". So, after that and until this moment when [sic] am teaching them, *I used Indonesian most of the time.* … in the class, I do the codeswitching, that I mixed the languages, or translating the English into Bahasa Indonesia. Because they have a very limited English. Even some simple common words are dificult for them. Even, they don't really understand the meaning of 'DO'. They keep asking with the meaning of words during the lesson. That's why, I use translation.

What Ayi and Arel explain above reflects on their real classroom experience during the teaching practicum program where they found that teaching English was more complex than

people might think or they initially thought. The limited English proficiency their students had was only one of the complexities they realised. They also understood that the daily routine for a teaching job is demanding and a teacher needs to pay attention to many details to make sure the teaching and learning process runs well. The challenges do not only deal with preparing paperwork (such as writing the teaching syllabus, designing lesson plans, and preparing teaching materials) but also how to deal with students' behaviours before, during, and after class. Ayi's emphasis on the importance of classroom management skills were very likely rooted from her own personal experiences in controlling her class. Because of the dynamic of power relations (which will be discussed in section 8.1.2), many participants of this study found it hard to deal with school students during their practicum interaction. The teaching experience seemed to be able to make the PSTs aware of these complexities.

Data from post practicum interviews also revealed that the success of the teaching plan is subject to many factors, including some unusual practices which might never have been used by the PSTs. Dewinta, for instance, articulated that she could not conduct the lesson as well as she had previously planned because the school culture did not allow other teachers to have a noisy class, even if the noise was due to cheerful voices from a happy and active class.

> It is not easy to apply this [fun activities with a lot of games] in high schools, because it will make the class noisy and potentially distract other classes. In our school, we are not allowed to have such a noisy class. The students are expected not to speak loudly. Because, if they speak loud, it will disturb other students in other classes. So, what we did most of the time is trying to keep the class silent.
>
> (Dewinta, post-practicum interview).

What Ayi, Arel and Dewinta experienced during the teaching practicum was a common phenomenon in many practicum programs usually functioning as a 'baptism of fire' where the PSTs could feel and experience the complexities of the teaching profession first time. The process could be marked by the PSTs' "struggle for voice" (Britzman, 2003, p.3), that is, when those PSTs are struggling to find meaning or make sense of their journey to becoming new teachers during the time they are learning to teach within the practicum program. Indeed, studies have shown that many PSTs experience *transition shock* (Korthagen, 2001), *culture shock* (Britzman, 2003), and *practice shock* (Achinstein, 2006) during this period when they

feel not adequately prepared for dealing with the complexities of problems they face during thr teaching practicum, or when these novice teachers find a conflict between their ideal views of what it means to be a teacher and the reality they experience when starting their first job (detailed findings about these kinds of shock are elaborated on the next chapter).

7.3. Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed participants' existing knowledge, perceptions, and their understanding of the notion of the *PET* as well as their views about 'good' ELT for the improvement of ELT quality in the Indonesian context. This chapter reveals that PSTs already held initial understandings on what constitutes PET and good ELT practice before they started the teaching practicum. Such pre-conceptions often originated from their prior experiences or personal biographies during their childhood, their *apprenticeship of observation* during their schooling experiences, or their pre-service teacher education. These initial conceptions are however markedly contested, strengthened and developed during the teaching practicum. The dynamic interaction made with members of school community, such as the school students, mentor teachers, or school principal, has often led them to reinterpret their understanding of the notion of PET. Some of their initial beliefs and conceptions about 'PETs' have changed after the teaching practicum; while some entirely new ideas have emerged.

The findings indicate that the way the PSTs enact their professional identity (in conceptualising the notion of PET and interpreting their experience) is the result of their personal cognitive reflections on their experience and the influences of external factors. The construction of the notion of PET as well as a good ELT in Indonesia is affected by their personal biographies and cultural histories as well as by broader social cultural and political contexts. The influence of the socio-cultural context is especially seen from the way they conceptualise the roles of the teachers. It is also reflected in the fact that the PSTs have been "adjusting" parts of their behaviour with the code of conduct expected by Indonesian society at large. The findings imply that the teaching practicum does matter as an important context influencing the dynamics of the student teachers' perceptions of defining and redefining the notion of PET which they continuously struggle to fit into.

VIII. BUILDING IDENTITIES THROUGH LEARNING TO TEACH

… and at night [before another class], I was wishing the night and the world could rotate faster; the morning could come earlier, so I could immediately meet them [the students]. I want to cheer them up, like the rain removing the dust on the road. For me, their laughter, joy, and even their 'naughtiness' could magically erase the pain, the fatigue I feel...

(Maysil, Reflective Journal)

This chapter presents data related to how the teaching practicum functions as an important site for PSTs' professional learning and construction of professional identity. It shows the interrelationship between school cultures, interaction with members of school community, societal expectations, negotiation of power relations, and the impact of educational policy. It explores how these interrelationships affect the shaping and reshaping of the construction of PSTs' professional learning and identities. In other words, the chapter describes how professional identity is a "production which is never complete" (J. Hall, 1990, p. 222); that identity is not a fixed thing, stable and coherent but rather exists as "a site of struggle, and subject to change" (Peirce, 1995, p. 14). This chapter is therefore also aimed at capturing the fluidity, complexities and constant evolution of professional identity when the PSTs interact with their environment during the practicum.

Whenever relevant, this chapter adopts Wenger's (1998) ideas on the interconnection of learning to teach and construction of identity in analysing data. Wenger (1998) views that the process of learning to teach during a practicum as a process of construction of teachers' identity. These processes take place within *the community of practice* in each participant's placement schools where they struggle for meaning-making through their experiences and daily practices and struggle to build a sense of belonging to the existing teachers' community. It is argued in this study that the PSTs are considered to have been successfully going through the metamorphosis of being novice teachers during the teaching practicum once they built a sense of belonging to the teachers' community (see Figure 4).

Theoretically speaking, the teaching practicum is a program where PSTs fully engage with the teachers' community in complex ways, so that they can build their collective teachers' identity. As Danielwicz (2001, p. 113) maintains, the teaching practicum is supposed "to help the students cross over the border forever, to live inside and join the collectivity of teachers". This chapter, therefore, also discusses how the PSTs experience their metamorphosis from being university students to becoming novice teachers and captures dynamics of this journey of socialisation (Farrell, 2001).

Specifically this section begins by discussing findings related to how the PSTs form and transform themselves to becoming novice teachers during the practicum. This issue is discussed in terms of their 'stages of metamorphosis' to integrate to teachers community and in terms of the complex factors behind their emerging sense of being a new teacher. How the PSTs developed their sense of belonging to the teachers' community during the practicum is also described within the first section. It is followed by describing one participant's story of metamorphosis to show the journey of becoming a teacher during the teaching practicum is unique and idiosyncratic. The next section looks at the skills and knowledge claimed to have been acquired by the PSTs as part of their professional learning and practice during the teaching practicum. This section is finalised by some reflective words summarising the discussion.

8.1. Pre-service Teachers' Metamorphosis during the Teaching Practicum

This section discusses how the PSTs experience their metamorphosis from being university students before embarking on the teaching practicum, to becoming novice teachers by the end of the practicum. In other words, this section documents the major milestones in the PSTs' learning trajectory which significantly contributes to the construction of their teachers' identity as new teachers. This includes discussion of how they struggled to construct and negotiate their *subjective* and *projected identities* (Lemke, 2008) during the teaching practicum. As reviewed in section 3.1, Lemke defines the subjective identity as the notion of who 'we are to ourselves'; and the projected identity entails 'who we wish to seem to the others'.

To be more specific, the section explores how the participants of the study developed their sense of belonging to the teachers' community during the practicum. It also explores what factors have contributed to this development. Exploring the PSTs' transformative identities during this specific time in their teacher education program is considered important, as it is understood from the literature on teacher education that the teaching practicum is a key site where PSTs experience an identity in transition – from being a university student to becoming a novice teacher, as previously reviewed in section 4.1.3.

Data emerged from the findings can be linked to the the work of Lave and Wenger (1991) and Wenger (1998) on apprenticeships and learning through communities of practice. This approach draws on the dialectical tradition of social thought to assert that knowledge of oneself is to be understood in relation to evolving relationships between people and the settings in which people's activities are conducted. Based on this dialectical tradition, Wenger (1998) introduced the *social theory of learning* with the central idea that the learning process should be viewed in the context of our live experience of participation in our world. I also consider Wenger's (1998) description of *three modes of belonging* (see section 4.1.1) in the formation of identity – engagement, imagination and alignment – as useful theories for analysing and interpreting the findings of this project.

As previously mentioned, this chapter aims to discuss the answer of the second research question - *how do the PSTs experience the transition in identity from being student-teachers to novice-teachers during the teaching practicum?* To answer the research question, data from participants' reflective journals as well as from their post-practicum interviews were analysed deductively (see section 5.5 for detailed procedures). NVivo 10 software helped create and manage nodes and subnodes during data analysis. Yet I named and managed the nodes into themes based on trends I found from the data. Theories about teachers' stages of development within teacher education literature also inspired particular themes. The final data analysis revealed that the preservice teachers experienced the following three 'stages of development' in their journey to becoming a new teacher during the practicum, as displayed in Figure 11 below.

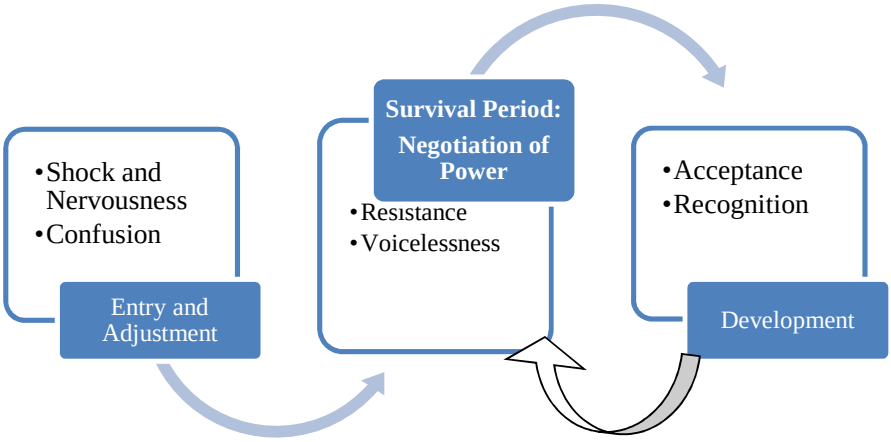


Figure 11. Stages of development of PSTs during the teaching practicum at Riau University

The process as shown by the figure above was mainly generated from the dynamic interaction between practicing teachers (the PSTs who participated in this study) and their school students as well as between the PSTs and their mentor teachers. The following sub-sections discuss in detail the study participants' stories of navigating their journey to becoming novice teachers during the teaching practicum. The stories capture three important 'stages of development' with specific prominent affective dimensions that characterise each of these three stages. Yet it is important to note that although the 'stages' in the following figure look linear, the actual process in the practicum is far from being so, depending on each school's context and each individual's unique experience.

8.1.1. Entry and Adjustment

Once the PSTs were taken by their university supervising lecturers to their placement schools, they were officially considered *mahasiswa PPL* (practicing teachers) who were learning how to be teachers during the 16-week teaching practicum under supervision of one mentor teacher and one supervising lecturer. Nine participants reported that they experienced some degree of shock, nervousness and confusion in the early weeks of their teaching practicum. They articulated that they felt some levels of anxiety in facing the students; or that they did not have enough confidence that they could play their roles and responsibilities as

new arriving PSTs; or that they simply did not have clear ideas about what they should do after their arrival at their placement schools.

> Indeed, I was initially nervous when my mentor teacher asked me to teach grade 8 and handle the class by myself. I was nervous because I was worried about making mistakes in saying and doing something in front of the class.
>
> (Ayi, reflective journal 1)

Feelings of nervousness and anxiety were also reported by other PSTs, such as Rike, Elvina, and Nisa during these early weeks. They were generally concerned about their lack of confidence in how to handle a lesson and manage a class. Ini addition, they were emotionally shocked of knowing that they had to stand up in front of the class on their first or second weeks of practicum, delivering lessons and facing the students. They did not expect to do this teaching responsibility that early.

> On the first week, I observed my mentor teacher's class, looking at the way she handles the class. I think that my mentor teacher performed really well in her teaching, because she can explain the lesson bilingually effectively. Then, on the second week, I started teaching on Grade VII. When I was about to teach, I felt really nervous and difficult to express my ideas.
>
> (Rike, reflective Journal 1)

In Elvina's case, her nervousness was trigerred by the presence of her mentor teacher watching her handling the class. As a practicing teacher, she was indeed in an urgent need to get sufficient guidance from her mentor teachers. Yet, she was not comfortable if the mentor watched her teaching in the classroom.

> I hope that I can teach in the class without being monitored by my mentor teacher, because I sometimes feel nervous when my mentor teacher was in my class.
>
> (Elvina, reflective journal 1)

Due to lack of confidence, another participant – Nisa – was worried worried about making mistakes in front of the students; she did not want to 'loss of face' in front of her students. This may because she understood that teachers are culturally expected to "know everything" and "do everything" properly.

> I was feeling really nervous when I was about to handle the class at the first time. Then I did teaching based on the lesson plan that I have written. After the class over, from the comments made by mentor teacher, I realised that I made some mistakes during my teaching. That I did'nt do quite well yet in terms of my lesson mastery, class management, and flexibility during the lesson. I hope that I won't repeat the same mistake again in the next class. I don't want to loose my face in front of my students.
>
> (Nisa, reflective journal 1)

This kind of shock during their first weeks of the adjustment process was 'normal', because nine participants of this study were truly new to a teaching life. It is the first time in their lives that they were standing up in front of the real class as a 'teacher'; preparing the lesson, delivering it to a number of students, managing the class, and anticipating disruptive behaviours. The experience enabled them get the feel of being a real teacher and understand the complexities of being a teacher in the field. In the case of Arel, the challenge he faced during the first week of his teaching enabled him to be a reflective pre-service teacher. The challenged made him to constantly think and rethink of his teaching strategies (see also section 8.3.3).

> I understand now that becoming a good teacher is not that easy. Therefore, I kept thinking how I could deliver a lesson effectively. I mean, how can we make the students happy, and they can learn at the same time. Can I deal with many students who think that English is a difficult subject and lack of motivation?
>
> (Arel, Reflective Journal 1)

Literature on pre-service teacher education indicates that these anxious feelings are a common phenomenon in many new teachers classrooms where PSTs experience *transition shock* (Achinstein, 2006) during this period. They frequently experience feelings of having not adequately prepared; or being overwhelmed with the reality of the teachers' role and the problems they face during the teaching practicum (see Britzman, 2003; Kelchtermans & Ballet, 2002; Korthagen, 2001). Entering the teachers' life is definitely a new challenging journey for these university students with no prior teaching experience. The most common initial culture shock may well occur with "the realization of the overwhelming complexity of

teachers' works and myriad ways the complexity is masked and understood" (Britzman, 2003, p.27). This complexity has led these new teachers to have a sense of lacking efficacy; they feel vulnerable because of their perceived limits of competence, as previously mentioned.

This set of feelings was exacerbated by the perceived insufficient support they received from both university supervisors and school mentor teachers. As reported by the participants, four mentor teachers, for example, immediately asked the PSTs to teach and handle the class independently just after they were placed in their host schools. In other words, the PSTs were promptly instructed to write lesson plans or design teaching materials without having proper assistance and supervision from the mentor teachers.

> Suprisingly our mentor teacher immediately asked us to teach the class. In fact, by the rules of the game, we should do like observation activities for the first week. She asked us to teach the next lesson, about reporting texts, gerund, and showing hesitation. And the mentor teacher also suddenly asked us to write the lesson plan, and syllabus. We certainly felt shocked and panicked.
>
> (Selly, Reflective Journal 1)

As pointed out by Selly, the guidance book of the practicum requires PSTs to first observe their mentor teachers teaching in the classroom for some time before they could handle a class by themselves

> *Mahasiswa PPL, sebelum praktek pembelajaran harus terlebih dahulu mengamati guru pamong yang sedang melaksanakan pembelajaran di depan kelas sebagai guru model* (before handling a class, student teachers must first observe their mentor teachers teaching in a classroom as their model teachers).

(translated from *Panduan Pelaksanaan PPL Mahasiswa FKIP Universitas Riau* 2013, p. 6).

This means what mentor teachers should do for the first two weeks was to guide the PSTs to become familiar with the school: the environment, the teachers and staff, and the srules and regulation. As a part of this observation period, a mentor teacher could take the PSTs to his or her class, so the PSTs could observe him or her handling the class.

During this observation and induction period, mentor teachers also guide and keep accompanying the PSTs to do 'guided teaching practice' for at least two weeks after the

observation stage. When a mentor teacher prefers to let his or her student teacher conduct a lesson after the observation, it is possible to happen as far as it is in still the form of guided teacheing where the mentor teacher must sit around the class and see how the teaching process goes on. Only from the week of nine out of 16 can a PST be assigned to do independent teaching without the presence of his or her mentor teacher (*Panduan Pelaksanaan PPL Mahasiswa FKIP Universitas Riau* 2013). So what happened to Selly and some other PSTs in this study basically contradicts the agreed standard procedures mentioned in the PSTs' university's guidance book.

In the case of Selly, she was not only panicked because she did not expect to handle the class immediately after her arrival at the placement school, but also because she thought she did not really have the right person with whom she could consult and get professional guidance when she needed help on how to write a lesson plan and design syllabi. She did ask her own mentor teacher about this, but her mentor teacher did not want to lend her the sample of lesson plans and syllabus she had. Instead of guiding and supervising the PST on dealing with this issue, her mentor teacher simply said, "Just do it by your-self first. You don't need a sample. You have learned about it in campus, haven't you?" (Selly, Reflective Journal 1).

The mentor teachers' poor guidance was not exclusive to Selly's story. Some study participants who did the practicum in other schools, like Dodi and Ayi, said that they also found themselves shocked during the early weeks of this practicum as their mentor teachers just left them with the school students soon after the mentor teachers introduced them to the class. Some other participants articulated that their mentor teachers seemed to have limited understanding of how to supervise a PST properly. This was probably because some appointed mentor teachers were junior teachers with limited mentoring experience.

> It seems that she doesn't understand yet how to supervise a student teacher like me. So, just like other friends have told us, most of the time my mentor just let me handle the class with very limited supervision.
>
> (Ayi, Focus Group Discussion)

What was narrated by Selly, Dodi, and Ayi in this study is similar to the finding of a qualitative case study by Bonavidi (2013) investigating the relationship between the Bachelor

of English Education (BEEd) coursework and teaching practicum in an Indonesian teacher education program. His in-depth interviews with 29 PSTs, 12 teacher educators, the Practicum Unit manager from an Indonesian private university, and six mentors from six different secondary schools reveals that there are some central issues related to PSTs' learning during a practicum. Some of them are that there seemed to have no effective pre-practicum sessions; the PSTs experienced difficult situations during the practicum, with inadequate support and PSTs being unprepared to act independently as agentic learners; and there were no after-practicum activities to encourage reflection about the practicum experience and long term learning of the PSTs.

Such a lack of support during the practicum seemed to have been the main problem found not only in the geographic context of this study (Indonesia), but also in many practicum programs in other parts of the world, such as in Singapore (Farrell, 2001); in Vietnam (Hudson, Nguyen, & Hudson, 2008); Kenya (Ong'ondo, 2009); and Iran (Humaidi, Al-Shara, Arouri, & Awwad, 2014). Insufficient support has in turn led many PSTs to undergo considerable emotional and psychological stress during a practicum, which is what happened with some participants in this study. It has also made PSTs experience conceptual struggles, and feel uncertain about teaching and learning (Wang, Strong, & Odell, 2004). In the case of this study, participants' feelings of anxiety and their uncomfortable attitudes before and after class were clear indicators of this emotional and psychological stress. Their constant worries about how they could prepare good lesson plans and how to deliver lessons effectively in class also indicate their feelings of uncertainty during this stage of development. All of these unwanted situations became common source for PSTs' vulnerability during the teaching practicum.

This vulnerable state is understandable as they were just about to start their journey to becoming a new teacher in a real school context. They were not familiar with many things in their placement schools. To deal with this potential vulnerability, a competent mentor is highly necessary to help the PSTs socialise with a new school environment. A fully dedicated mentor teacher is expected to be able to play their roles and fulfil their responsibilities to provide high quality mentorship to PSTs. In support of this aim, mentor teachers should be given adequate preparation and should have a critical position towards their own teaching and that of their PSTs (Zeichner, 1996 as cited in Beck & Kosnik, 2002). Only with sufficient

skills and knowledge of being competent mentors can they be able to support the PSTs and give a considerable amount of feedback and collaborate with the student teacher effectively.

With regard to the nature of supervision from their mentor teachers during the practicum, employing a minor metalinguistic analysis in analysing data from the PST's interviews and reflective journals found that each mentor teacher had their own preference concerning mentoring styles. This could be inferred from the kinds of *verbs* the PSTs chose in describing the nature of supervision they received, such as *ask, let, tell, show, advise, lead, give, guide, supervise, advice, support, accompany,* and *take.* The most common verbs used by the PSTs to express the supervision activities were *ask, tell, show, advise, and guide.*

> She *asked* me to write syllabus for her, and do other things; I just did what she instructed, because she is my mentor teacher. I got no choice. (Ayi, FGD)

Data such as this implies that many mentor teachers conducted one-way communication during their supervision through the lack of intense dialogue and conversation with their mentees. The instructive verbs used by the participants also indicate a strong position of mentor teachers in relation to the PSTs. In many occasions, the PSTs played as the followers of their mentor teachers' instruction. Due to this power-relation issue, the PSTs just observed their mentors, listened to their advice, and followed their instructions without sufficient criticism (see also section 8.1.2).

Referring to Cornu and Ewing's (2008) theoretical framework on supervision during the practicum, mentor teachers in this study preferred to employ a *traditional* approach rather than a *reflective* approach. Through this traditional mindset, the emphasis of the practicum was on the need for supervision to enable PSTs to develop specific observable skills in teaching and to help the PSTs improve instruction (Nolan & Francis, 1992 as cited in Cornu & Ewing, 2008). The process was mainly conducted through "direct, overt surveillance" (Smyth, 1993 as cited in Cornu & Ewing, 2008 p. 1801) where clinical supervision models were implemented with the supervisors taking on the role of 'critic', as reflected in Dewinta's narrative below.

> In my first days, I did a lot of mistakes in my teaching. I couldn't control the class well, my lesson didn't run as planned, and I didn't have a good time management. So, my mentor teacher showed me how to deal with these problems - how could we manage the time well, how to deliver the lessons effectively, how to deal with noisy students, how could we make the students listen to us, and so on.
>
> (Dewinta, post-practicum interview)

While some mentors did not appear to provide sufficient guidance and support in the early weeks of the practicum, as previously discussed, stories from other participants indicated that some mentor teachers did support the PSTs quite well during this adjustment process. Five participants reported that they received "sufficient" supervision from their mentor teachers during the first and the second weeks of their practicum experience. What the mentor teachers did was take the PSTs to their classes and asking the PSTs to observe their class as well as guiding them in writing lesson plans, designing syllabus, and preparing teaching materials. As one participant, Rike, wrote in her second reflective journal, she was invited by her mentor teacher to observe her mentor's class, to see the way her mentor teacher delivered lessons and managed the class. As a PST, she learned while observing and engaged in a kind of reflection after the observation. Additionally her mentor teacher supported her through regular supervision in understanding the school curriculum, designing lesson plans, and preparing the teaching materials. In other words, Rike thought that she had a constructive and positive mentor – mentee relationship during her practicum.

> On the first week, I observed my mentor teacher's class, looking at the way she handled the class. I think that my mentor teacher performed really well in her teaching, because she can explain the lesson bilingually effectively. My mentor teacher had also trained me how to write lesson plans based on the existing curriculum in this school, showing me the teaching materials used for her class, asking me to write and prepare the lesson plans and teaching materials under her mentor's supervision. After that, my mentor checked my own lesson plans and also asked me to handle the class by myself with the mentor teacher observing the class.
>
> (Rike, Reflective Journal 2)

As also mentioned by Rike, she received constructive feedback from her mentor teacher after her teaching performance in the class. It seemed that this kind of induction and supervision activities conducted by some mentor teachers worked quite well to help the PSTs undergo the

adjustment process. From this professional guidance and support, the PSTs started to feel more informed, feel more confident, and got clearer ideas on what to do in the placement school and how to do it properly. In other words, such supervision helped them undergo the adjustment process into the school community quite well. The constructive support made them feel more efficacious in dealing with their anxieties.

> I was feeling really nervous when I was about to handle the class at the first time. But after receiving some suggestions from my mentor teacher, I felt a bit better and able to neutralise my nervousness.
>
> (Nisa, Reflective Journal 1)

However, this does not necessarily mean that these PSTs were already settled and ready to perform well in their class. Data from their post-practicum interviews indicates this kind of unsettlement happened even when they were about to finish their four month teaching experience. Although eight participants reported that they were quite happy with their teaching skills development, they also understood that the four months of the practicum were not adequate for their professional learning and development.

> I am not really satisfied yet with my development. Because I think that the teaching practicum program is too short. So, I feel that I am not completely finishing the learning process, due to this limited time.
>
> (Ayi, post-praticum interview)

Learning to teach is indeed a long and complex journey (Tsui, 2007). It revolves around a long story and encompasses complex endeavours. All the participants in this study reported that they experienced a kind of *survival period* (Hascher et al., 2004) when they had to deal with various challenges and hindrances (which are discussed below). The challenges emanated from their interactions with school students, incumbent teachers, their own mentor teachers, or the school authorities. Tension also appeared in dealing with intangible challenges, such as societal and cultural expectations about the teaching profession as well as standardised requirements to be PETs currently being implemented by the Indonesian government. The detailed narratives about this survival phase are presented in the following section.

8.1.2. Survival Period: Negotiation of Power

The next important phase experienced by six of the PSTs in this study during their identity in transition is the *survival* stage. This is when they struggle to *cross the border* from being university students to becoming novice teachers holding a sense of belonging to the teachers' community (Danielewicz, 2001). Looking at the nature of each phase, I argue that this is the most intricate of the three stages. This stage was marked by challenges, conflicts and tension during their transition. I prefer to refer to this milestone of the PSTs' learning trajectory as the *survival period* to indicate that those kinds of challenges, conflicts and tensions could lead the PSTs to a state where they sometimes lost their motivation to be professional teachers; or when they thought that the teaching profession was probably not for them; or indeed when they felt shocked to find the teaching world quite beyond their imagination or the notions of what the teachers' world is like.

The findings indicated that the driving sources of this survival stage were complex. They related to intra-personal tensions within the PSTs' construction of identity, and were triggered by interrelated factors, such as the resistance shown by school students and existing teachers to their presence and authority as PSTs; the feeling of incompetence in organising and managing the class; and the lack of supervision they received from their mentor teachers and supervising lecturers during their practicum. Because of these factors, many PSTs experienced conflict, tensions and dilemma in constructing their subjective and projected identities. As also described in section 8.1.2.1, this refers to a situation when the PSTs had to negotiate their willingness to develop their teachers' professional identity during the practicum (subjective identity) with the fact that other members of school community, such as their mentor teachers and their students still regard them as 'only' student teachers.

However, I would argue that most conflicts and tensions experienced by these PSTs during the survival state originated from a dynamic and intangible power imbalance between the PSTs as practicing teachers and their students as well as between the PSTs and their mentor teachers and some school administrators. It was apparent from the data that in many cases, the PSTs had to negotiate their power firstly with their students who frequently resisted their authority and secondly with their mentor teachers who considered them university students

learning to teach *per se*; rather than fellow teachers and colleagues with relatively similar levels of power and authority (see section 8.1.2.1 for examples and further elaboration)

Conflict in this study is generally understood as any kind of undesirable incident happening during the teaching practicum. This could appear in the form of personal conflicts between PSTs and their students, between PSTs and their mentor teachers, or between PSTs and their school administrators. Conflict could also appear in the form of disagreements between the PSTs and their mentor teachers in relation to certain practices and beliefs about teaching and learning during the practicum. In many cases, these conflicts often led the PSTs to experience dilemmas when they had to do something basically against their personal beliefs or values in regard to teaching practice.

Indeed, the fact that they were practicing teachers who were in a state of identity in transition made many of them experience a fragmented identity; they were 'in the middle of nowhere' and fragile in terms of emotional, cognitive, and psychological development. The fragility of the PSTs could be further seen from the following stories of resistance, conflict, and dilemma experienced by the participants of this study during the practicum.

8.1.2.1. Students' Resistance: "You are only a practicing teacher, aren't you?"

In regard to power-relations, one of the most visible factors contributing to this survival condition was the tendency from several students as well as some incumbent teachers in their placement school to not really accept the presence of PSTs as 'real teachers' and/or 'real colleagues'. In other words, they regarded these PSTs as 'only' student teachers with limited power and authority. The PSTs are indeed still university students, learning how to become teachers during this practicum. They were not as 'powerful' as the incumbent teachers. As a result, during the early weeks of the practicum, the majority of students in their practicing schools showed forms of resistance to and ignorance about these PSTs and treated them like a 'pseudo teacher' or 'half teacher' with only limited authority.

> Maybe because I am not a professional teacher yet, I am just a student teacher. So, in the students' mind, I am not yet being a real teacher. They seem to be bit hard for them to follow my words.

(Maysil, post-practicum interview)

> It seems that they are not realy happy to have teachers like us. For them, we are only practicing teachers. That's it. And that's why there is not such kind of emotional bound between I and the students.
>
> (Demire, post practicum interview)

The resistance shown by the school students frequently created problems and even conflicts between PSTs and their students. It did not only create mental conflicts and dilemma within the PSTs' inner selves, but also appeared in the form of physical and personal disputes between the PSTs and their school students. On one hand, their subjective identities might say that they realised they were still pre-service teachers who were learning how to be teachers during the practicum. On the other hand, their projected identities were how they could be seen and accepted as real teachers by their students and other members of the school community. Negotiating these two identities during the teaching practicum was often marked by tensions and conflicts (see section 8.1.2. for further discussion).

Selly, for instance, recalled a story in her post-practicum interview that she reminded one of her students to behave during her class. The incident happened when she was delivering her lesson, with one female student insisting on walking around in the class. Selly tried to manage the class by reminding the student to keep silent and keep sitting in her seat. However, she could not believe the student's unexpected rude reaction and harsh statement.

> You are only a practicing teacher, aren't you? Why are you acting like a real teacher, advising me, blabla." Then, my other fellow pre-service teachers also experienced the same thing. "You are only a student teacher, practicing here to get a good score. Please no need to talk much".
>
> (Selly, post-practicum interview)

Selly was just suddenly shocked to know her student's unexpected response. She had never imagined that she would hear such harsh words from her student. As a result, Selly felt annoyed, uncontrolled, and she got really angry at the student. She could not accept the fact that this particular student did not show enough respect for her. She understood that she was a practicing teacher (which is a subjective identity). Yet, she never thought that the student's resistance would be that strong and was personally hurt by the incident.

However, in spite of being shocked to listen to her student's answer in responding to her advice, Selly did not let the *professional rejection* make her feel upset or frustrated. Instead, the rejection triggered her projected teacher identity to become more explicit and she wanted it to be heard and acknowledged. This could be seen from the way she further responded to the situation.

> "Hey, mind your mouth. Look at your manner. You are just unethical of saying that, you know?" I added, "I know that I am a student teacher here. But, it doesn't mean that I am not doing my role as a teacher well. I never ignore you. You must know that as long as my teaching practicum here, I AM YOUR TEACHER.
>
> (Selly, post-practicum interview).

From the perspective of identity formation, what Selly experienced and mentioned above is an example of how the study participants' self and identity are constructed by *everyday technologies* during the practicum - both discursive practice and discourses-in-practice - through which the self gets articulated, constructed, embodied, and mediated (Holstein & Gubrium, 2000). The discourse in-practice stresses the importance of language and communication in shaping one's identity. In the case of Selly, her statement, *"I know that I am a student teacher here"* indicated that she realised that her part of identity was as a university student doing a teaching practicum. However, when she mentioned, *"You must know that as long as my teaching practicum here, I AM YOUR TEACHER"*, this also clearly indicated that her sense of being a teacher was strongly articulated as a means through which she attempts to establish authority and control. This conflict mediated part of her construction of her teacher's identity.

The story of ignorance from and resistance by some school students to the presence of PSTs was not only narrated by Selly, but also by other practicing teachers, like Maysil and Demire. Demire, for instance, recalled that he was frequently ignored by his students in his early weeks of the teaching practicum. The students did not show sufficient respect and attention to him. They had no respect concerning his presence in their class. This ignorance often led some PSTs to get annoyed with the students or feel reluctance to teach them. In the case of Selly, she admitted that the incident had developed into a personal problem when both she and the student did not want to greet each other after the incident. A similar experience

happened to Maysil who reported that she even had a serious personal conflict with a class of students after she was harshly reprimanded by her principal due to classroom management issues.

The story started when she was teaching in a classroom, asking the students to perform a task, which had been agreed on before, but they did not want to listen to her. They made very loud noises, instead. She had tried to control the class, telling them to pay attention to the class, and listen to her. But this did not work at all. This 'perfect ignorance' finally made her lose her self-control. Feeling really upset and anonoyed, angrily, she took a broom near her and slapped it onto the table in the class. Unfortunately, when she was slapping the table and making a loud voice, the school principal was walking near her classroom. Having listened to the noise, the principal immediately interrupted the class and called her to the principal's office. She tried to explain what was happening, however the principal did not listen to her reasons. The principal even blamed her for not being able to manage the class. She was really sad because of this incident and reported that her enthusiasm for teaching dropped significantly at that time as she was having an uncomfortable relationship with her students after the incident. She did not want to greet her students for quite some time after this incident.

These students' resistance and ignorance often negatively affected the classroom atmosphere where many PSTs felt that the class was no longer conducive for teaching. Not only had this resistance frequently led to the learning atmosphere becoming uncontrolled and disorganised, this state of rejection also made some PSTs have a vulnerable state of mind, especially in defining their projected identities and defending themselves as new teachers. The classrooms changed into uncomfortable sites for these PSTs where they were anxious and worried about their existence. They were feeling like they were at the point of 'no-where' where they were unable to fully define themselves as real teachers yet. They understood that they were in the process of becoming a teacher yet knew that they were *rejected* by some students, which led them to a sense of identity in crisis. On the one hand, they did teaching activities just like other 'established' and accepted professional teachers; on the other hand, they also felt that they did not have a sense of *collective identity* as real teachers yet (Danielewicz, 2001).

Drawing on Britzman (2003), what the PSTs felt and experienced during their teaching practicum in responding to a state of resistance could be considered part of their 'struggle for voice' which established in their everyday interaction during the practicum. They were shaping their new teachers identity through interactions with school community members (in this case with the school students), especially by thinking about and interpreting how their students reacted to their presence in the classroom. Some felt that their teachers' selves were emerging when their students and mentor teachers positively responded to them. Yet others did not get that sense yet as they felt their identities as teachers being resisted. They faced a dilemma and felt vulnerable with a fragmented identity, instead.

Furthermore, this dilemma was exacerbated by the fact that symptoms of the denial were not only rooted in the school students' resistance, but also from the attitudes of some incumbent senior teachers. Three participants – Ayi, Selly, and Nisa - reported that they were not happy interacting with some senior teachers at their placement schools as the senior teachers seemed to *exclude* them from the teachers' community in the school. In other words, they seemed to be reluctant to accept those PSTs as their colleagues. Ayi, for instance, reported that she sensed that she had been underestimated in some ways by senior teachers in her placement school. She thought that these senior teachers did not really acknowledge her as a teacher and their colleague.

> I feel bit unhappy with some of my experiences interacting with some teachers at school lately. I feel that some of the teachers have underestimated us as student teachers. They frequently acted as if we were not really important for the school.
>
> (Ayi, Reflective Journal 4)

The feeling of their teaching identities being resisted was also triggered by discrimination in their placement schools. Some PSTs, for instance, were physically separated from other incumbent teachers in the school where they usually had separate shared offices. In Selly's and Rike's placement school, for instance, the PSTs were posted in the language laboratory room, which was relatively far from the teachers' common room. As a result, the PSTs seldom interacted with other senior teachers in the school. Consequently, they felt *socially excluded* in the school community. The state of this 'social exclusion' from the incumbent senior teachers seemed to build a strong psychological barrier between PSTs and the

incumbent teachers in their daily communication. In other word, they could not socialise effectively with other incumbent teachers in the placement school.

> During the practicum, we were located in a laboratorium, separated from teacher's office. I think I couldn't make a sufficient interaction with other teachers in the school during our practicum. I am feeling not that close with them.
>
> (Rike, post-practicum interview)

This could have further led the situation to becoming unconducive for PSTs to develop their sense of belonging to the teachers' community as they might have felt a strong and visible 'block' between them and the incumbent teachers. This isolation could also limit the opportunity to allow the identity of a larger group - incumbent teachers - to become part of the identity of the individual participants (the student teachers) as expressed by Wenger (1998).

Additionally, this feeling was worsened by the way senior teachers treated them as PSTs in the school. As mentioned by Ayi, she was unhappy with the way some senior teachers treated her as a practicing teacher. Some of the incumbent teachers, for instance, easily instructed her as a PST to do non-teaching chores and run errands. She was sometimes assigned by her school principal, for instance, to pick up something outside school or to do some photocopying at a copy centre located outside her placement school. Others sometimes even asked her to prepare tea or coffee for the senior teachers in their office. The PSTs knew that these were not supposed to be part of their roles as practicing teachers, yet they followed the instructions because they wanted to "respect" the seniors. What these incumbent teachers did to some PSTS can be considered a form of "abuse of power" and is very likely to happen as there is a clear issue of unequal power-relations here where PSTs are usually positioned as someone who is powerless in dealing with their mentor teachers (and other incumbent teachers) who might be seen as being more powerful. A more detailed discussion on this issue of power relations is described in the following section.

8.1.2.2. Voicelessness: "I just accept that"

In relation to students' resistance and ignorance about PSTs' authority (as previously discussed), the power relations between PSTs, their mentor teachers and other incumbent teachers also created conflicts and tensions. The story of these power relations is even more apparent here. These dynamics sometimes occurred when the PSTs thought that they had been 'abused' in certain ways by senior teachers or mentor teachers, as partly discussed in section 8.1.2.1. The claims of abuse were often driven by unequal power relations between mentors and practicing teachers as mentees.

The mentor teachers were indeed powerful in the eyes of the PSTs for at least two reasons. *First*, mentor teachers were those who would assess the PSTs' practice during the practicum. In other words, they had the authority to decide if a PST 'passes or fails' the teaching practicum. *Second,* the way the mentor teachers were viewed is a product of cultural and social customs in Indonesia where 'seniors' (in whatever context) usually expect to be respected by a newcomer. It is not 'allowable' for the 'juniors' to speak against seniors, including in the case of different views about particular issues during the teaching practicum. This expectation of respect, however, sometimes leads to bullying as well as abuse of power.

This powerful status of the mentor teacher during the practicum in Indonesian education is indeed reflected in the official term used in Bahasa Indonesia to refer to the mentor teachers: *guru pamong* (*pamong* teacher). The word *pamong* is derived from the Javanese language – and is rooted in the words *omong or momong* which basically mean *to look after, to nurture, or to raise a child* (Nurdin, 2010). Therefore, what is implied from the word '*pamong'* is the nature of parent-child relationship in which parents are culturally perceived as being more experienced and powerful than their growing offspring. In other words, as the ones being nurtured, the 'children' or PSTs are positioned in a non-equal relationship during their dynamic interaction in the practicum. This perception also exists in the context of most mentor and mentee relationships in Indonesia.

Data from participants indicate that most PSTs experienced *a state of voiclessness.* This refers to the situation when they did not feel that they had enough courage to speak out against their mentor teachers. They chose to be silent, even when they did not agree with their

mentors' ideas. One of examples of the voicelessnesses was raised by Ayi who reported that few senior teachers easily instructed the PSTs to do some non-teaching related jobs, such as making coffee or tea for teachers. Although she did not mind to do some courtesy for the senior teachers at her school placement by making coffee for them, she understood that this was not part of her role as a practicing teacher. Because of the issue of power imbalance, however, many PSTs just followed what the incumbent teachers said, regardless of their disagreement.

> Maybe because we are still juniors, some of them overuse us, assigning us to do some activities which are not really related to our teaching responsibilities. I just accept that, no other choice. Just go with the flow.
>
> (Ayi, post-practicum interview)

What Ayi did was a type of *conflict avoidance* behaviour. She deliberately chose not to challenge what her mentor teachers asked her to do. It did not mean that she just accepted the realities as it was. As recorded in her reflective journals, she kept reflecting on the practicum, thinking and contemplating personally. She effortlessly tried to listen to her inner voice on how to deal with the situation. She faced a dilemma in that she had to negotiate between her pride as part of her independent self, holding certain values and beliefs, and the fact that she was in the state of being a practicing or junior teacher.

> Coming to my sixth week of my teaching practicum, I had an unhappy experience. This was not because of the students, but from my mentor teacher. So far, I think that I am not really happy with him, because many things he did make me uncomfortable. For example, he corrected my ways of teaching when I was standing in front up the class. He criticised my lesson plans, syllaby, and teaching steps in the classroom. I certainly appreciated his comments and tried to change my performance, not repeating the same mistakes. But, when I changed my performance accordingly, he still said that my performane was not right yet. This made me annoyed. What he says wrong today is what he said right yesterday. It made me confused. I initially just followed what he said, but as the times goes on, I decided only to do what he said depending on the situation, whether it fits my own belief or not. One clear thing for today is that I don't agree with everything he said.
>
> (Ayi, reflective journal 5)

Identities are the result of dynamic interplay between discursive processes that are internal (to the individual) and external (involving everyone else). Drawing on the theories of identity construction used in this study (such as Danielewicz, 2001; Lave & Wenger, 1991) which stresses the importance of discourse, practice, and community in identity formation, conflict avoidance can be regarded as a discourse of silence enacted by Ayi in the process of constructing her teacher's identity. As Sendbuehler (1994) argues, silence occupies a space even larger than intertextuality, because of the limitlessness and endlessness of silence and all that silence can suggest.

In the case of Ayi, she looked silent in responding to what her mentor said. Yet, she actually engaged in constant reflection to challenge what her mentor teacher instructed. She had to carefully make negotiations in employing her own teaching values, some of which contradicted the values that her mentor teacher tried to impose on her. In terms of building a relationship with students outside the class, for example, her mentor teacher suggested that she keep a clear distance between her and her school students. However, she thought that having a close friendship with students was necessary to enable teachers to communicate about learning problems with particular students more easily.

A similar story is reported by Dodi who was not happy with fact that many senior teachers did not come to the school on time. He could not accept that the principal required all practicing teachers to be punctual, yet he did nothing to those late teachers. Dodi understood that it was not a good example for the students. Some students indeed once complained to him – why those teachers were late. However, he did not have the courage to criticise the principal and the senior teachers due to his status as 'only' a practicing teacher.

> Regarding the obligatory to present at school, especially in the morning, our principal is really strict with this. You know it is him the first person who attends at school in the morning. However some teachers come later when the school gates already closed. The principal seemed to do nothing to them. I am not happy with this. Those late teachers are not good samples for students. But, I couldn't talk.
>
> (Dodi, post-practicum interview)

Another example of voicelessnesses appeared in the field of pedagogical issues; that was when mentor teachers advised the PSTs to do things that were actually conflicting with their beliefs about teaching and learning principles. On one occasion, Ayi's mentor teacher, for instance, suggested her to physically punish a particular student whenever she thought that she needed to do so. In daily practice, she often saw her mentor teacher pinching particular students who were considered 'problem students'. This might be a result of old practices of corporal punishment accepted by Indonesian society, including at homes and schools (Newel, 2012). I personally experienced this kind of punishment in my schooling when my teacher smacked my palms with a stick because I was accused of gambling. Indeed, research has shown that children are still subjected to corporal punishment in various Indonesian settings. In 2005, 813 Indonesian children reported a number of forms of physical punishment they experienced, including being hit, kicking, slapping, ear twisting, hair pulling and pinching in various settings, including educational ones (Newel, 2012).

Being a senior teacher who experienced education with corporal punishment in the past; Ayi's mentor seemed to maintain that older perspective thinking that some degrees of coporal punishment were acceptable. However, being from the younger generation Ayi personally believed that any kind of corporal punishment was not a good choice to approach the students with, as she believed it would never solve a problem. Unfortunately, she admitted that she did not have enough courage to express a different view to her mentor teacher directly, considering the issue of power relations between her and mentor teacher. For this reason, she sometimes experienced intrapersonal conflict and tension.

> I know that she is a senior, having more years of teaching experience than me. But, I sometimes feel uncomfortable, what she said sometimes is contradictory with I believe. For example, she simply suggested me to smack a particular student when I have a problem dealing with the student. I don't agree with this.
>
> (Ayi, post-practicum interview).

One PST even reported that her mentor teachers asked them to 'engineer' or manipulate the students' final score during the final semester examination, so that all students could pass the exams. This happened to Selly when her mentor teacher emphasised the importance of 'helping' the students to go pass to higher grades or levels. Her mentor teacher reminded her not to let any students sit in remedial classes and stressed that no student should be left

behind. Consequently, she had to ‘upgrade’ the students’ final scores, although it was actually against her personal views and beliefs.

Similarly (to what Ayi and Selly experienced above) another participant – Demire - reported that conflict emerged when PSTs had a different idea to their mentor teachers about certain concepts during the supervision process. In making a lesson plan, for example, Demire claimed to know the newest version of activities for the lesson plan. But his mentor teacher instructed him to make a different version which he actually does not agree with. He decided to follow his mentor teacher’s suggested form considering his status as a practicing teacher.

> … like writing a lesson plan. I know the newest one. I know the credit system. But, then when I make the one which is suittable with the standard one, with the credit system, my mentor teacher said what I do is wrong. My mentor teacher recommends another credit system of the lesson. And I know that the system is wrong. But since he is the person in charged [for my practicum], I should go with him, eventhough I think it’s absolutely wrong.
>
> (Demire, post-practicum interview)

Demire’s mentor teacher was a senior teacher with non-English teaching qualifications. Despite his mentor teacher’s good English proficiency and excellent teaching style, the mentor teacher did not really understand certain administrative teaching issues, such as how to write a lesson plan and design teaching syllabi in accordance with agreed standards at school. Therefore, Demire was quite sure that he understood better than his own mentor teacher, as he already learned about the curriculum development process through his university teacher education program. Although Demire was certain that what the school used was not the latest version, he accepted what his mentor teacher said (see section 8.2 for more stories about Demire).

As reflected from Ayi’s and Demire’s narratives above, in the case of the student-teachers’ relationship with their mentor teachers or their senior teachers, it was apparent that most of the time the PSTs preferred to remain silent although they might have experienced something against their personal beliefs. They did not want to make conflict with members of the school community, including the senior teachers. This behaviour was also seen when Ayi could not speak out of seeing the unfair situations she thought took place involving her fellow PST as

she narrated below. This is another example of the 'struggle for voice' experienced by Ayi in her journey to becoming a new teacher. Because of the unequal power relationship, she perceived that the school authority did not want to listen to her perspectives.

Ayi's narratives depict her struggles not only in dealing with her mentor teacher, but also with her placement school principal. As she narrated in her reflective journal, she once accompanied her friend – Maysil, another participant in this study – to the principal's office, after her friend was accused by the school principal of having insufficient competence in handling the class. She could not accept the reality that her friend was cornered by the school principal in front of her eyes, and stated that she was sad and cried at that time. She was really sorry to see her friend go through this and felt it did not benefit them as pre-service teachers.

> The principal shouldn't have made my friend embarrassed in front of many people. He could just call my friend in person to solve the problem. We realise that we are still in the process of learning on how to be a good teacher. We indeed need guidance, but it should have been done in a more gentle way.
>
> (Ayi, Reflective Journal 6)

It could be understood from Ayi's journal entry that she was not happy with the fact that her friend was treated in a way that she viewed as unfair by the school authorities. She was struggling to let her voice be heard and believed that something wrong had happened, so she wanted to fight against the perceived injustice. Yet, she could not really speak out loud and understood her fragile status as a practicing teacher. She chose to keep these conflicts internal as she did not want to make any conflicts with her placement school principal.

These findings are similar to other studies that show tensions due to the effect of reproducing prevailing relations of dominance and subordination. A study by Walshaw and Savell (Walshaw & Savell, 2001) investigated how the teaching practicum had played a decisive role creating the professional identity of 67 student teachers, in the New Zealand context. It found that there were also issues related to power relations and that it was difficult for the student teachers to work through conflicting understandings with their mentors. As a result, compromise was commonly practiced by the student teachers.

Further interpretation of this phenomenon of voicelesness and *conflict escaping behaviour* might relate to certain aspects of the cultural philosophy of the Javanese – as the dominant culture in Indonesia – which puts social harmony above everything else. Social harmony becomes the first priority for many people to consider, so any kind of social and personal conflict can be minimised (Geerts, 1989 in Kuswandono, Gandana, Rohani, & Zulfikar, 2011). Although only one student (Maysil) was originally from Java, the Javanese culture has been dominantly practiced in many parts of Indonesia since the Soeharto regime. The prevalent meaning of the social harmony philosophy is evident in certain educational practices and discourses in Indonesia, such as in collectivist oriented learning, the charismatic bond between teachers and students (obedience), and conflict avoidance (Bjork, 2004). Specific to conflict avoidance behaviours, Dardjowidjojo (2001) argues that this might have been influenced by a trait of Javanese culture, which is called "*manut lan miturut* - a cultural value which states that the yardstick for judging whether a child is good or bad is the degree of obedience shown to their parents. The more obedient they are, the better they are considered.

However, the challenges the PSTs experienced during the teaching practicum do not necessarily mean that these were 'negative' factors to be avoided or factors that endangered the development of the PSTs' construction of professional learning and identity. In fact, Britzman (2003) views such challenges as a positive side of the PSTs' experiences. He believes that all of these seemingly 'unwanted' parts of the PSTs' transition into new teachers are important for the process of knowledge construction. He argues, "mistakes, misrepresentations, confusions, conflicts, and little gifts of errors are all crucial to the stuff of understanding and constructing of knowledge (2003, p. 2)". This means that these shocks, confusion and event conflicts, to some extent, functioned as necessary conditions in the process of the development of PSTs' identity. A state of confusion, for instance, indicates that PSTs keep engaging in reflection and the rechallenging of their beliefs about particular aspects of their teaching practice.

Furthermore, stories from Ayi, Demire, and Selly above which reflected their personal tensions in dealing with issues of power-relations during the teaching practicum could be understood as various ways of engaging with such community dynamics as a part of their on-

going construction of their teachers' identity. All of these interactions made them think and rethink about their own and others' ideas of being an English teacher, including their conceptualisation of what it mean to be a 'professional English teacher' – their necessary skills, roles and responsibilities (see again sections 7.1 and 7.1). As discussed in the previous chapter, for instance, Maysil's view on the nature of teacher-student relationship continuously changed after her interaction with the students and mentor teachers during her practicum. Starting with the initial belief that she needed to maintain a close relationship with students at the beginning of her practicum, she changed her mind after the practicum and raised the importance of setting up the clear boundary with the students. The boundary was aimed to make sure that her authority as a teacher was well protected.

These conflicts and tension also contributed to their understanding of 'who they are' by negotiating what they personally thought about particular practices during the practicum and contrasting this with what their mentor teachers imposed them as well as considering the cultural norms practiced in Indonesia. Their stories assert that identity formation is indeed subject to experiences and sociocultural encounters (Beijaard et al., 2004; Britzman, 2003; Holland et al., 1998; Olsen, 2008).

Furthermore, findings of this study are similar to findings from other studies conducted in different contexts of the teaching practicum. In terms mentor teachers' influences, for instance, this study supports what Farell (2001) found that unsuccessful stories of the teaching practicum might result from several factors such as unqualified mentors and supervisors, a lack of support from school authorities, or 'negative' school cultures. In the case of this study, the lack of support the teacher trainee complained about, for example, included being posted in an isolated place – the resource room – where they felt like strangers and could not communicate well with the senior teachers at school. As previously narrated in this study, Farrell (2001) also found that PSTs were not really happy during the practicum whereby the teachers at school did not work as a team and there were a lot of politics and power play. Consequently, teachers did not adequately share resources or experiences with colleagues or with the PSTs.

In terms of the transition to becoming teachers during a practicum, the findings of this study are also in line with other studies, such as the studies conducted by Johnson (1992 as cited in Varghese et al., 2005) or a study by White and Moss (2003, as cited in Wilson et al., 2006) which respectively showed the possibility of conflicting identities as student-teachers and as novice-teachers during this process of the teaching practicum. Just like Marc's teaching practicum experience in Johnson's (1992) study, nine participants of this study reported that their multiple identities as both a practicing teacher and a student of university seemed troublesome for their mentor teachers as well as their students, who appeared not willing to accept them easily.

8.1.3. Acceptance and Recognition: Belonging to the Teachers' Community

Although there were some differences in the duration, in four weeks or so after their interaction in the practicum, most PSTs were observed to undergo the adjustment and the survival phase quite well. They were getting more familiar with how the school system worked, and they understood better how to handle the class. In the context of belonging to the teachers community, the most important thing according to the participants was that they could feel and see that they had been *fully accepted* by the students in their class as a 'real teacher', like existing teachers. Some degrees of acceptance were also evident in relation to PSTs' engagement with existing senior teachers. In other words, the professional resistance phenomenon previously discussed had already significantly diminished.

> ... from the side of the students, I can see that they have accepted me as their teacher, and they really appreciate me. You know one day they came to see me and requested me to come to their class, because one of teachers who were supposed to teach them didn't come. It was really unforgettable for me.
>
> (Rike, post-practicum interview)

This kind of professional acceptance could also be seen from the way the students treated the PSTs at the schools. As narrated by Rike above, she finally felt socially accepted and acknowledged when the students deliberately requested her to teach them again in their class. This was significantly different compared to the first weeks of Rike's placement when she was worried and uncomfortable with her students' resistance. Rike was a participant who

initially claimed to have no clear intention to be an English teacher before joining the EED. Yet, her positive engagement with students by the end of the practicum meant a lot for her. This experience helped her find her own voice in terms of career choice; that she felt that she was on the right track to choose teaching as her future profession.

Another instance of this acceptance was expressed by Elvina reporting that her students loved studying with her as a practicing teacher more than having classes with their own 'regular teacher'. Elvina was certainly happy to know this and considered this as the way the students welcome her as their teacher in the school community. This positive response also made her self-confident as her self-efficacy grew. In other words, this led a PST to feel secure and hold a sense of being a 'new teacher'.

> There is one student in class saying that he wants me to keep teaching his class. When I asked him, 'why', he just said that he liked the way I teach. Hehehe.. I was feeling happy when I heard that. They welcome me well, and that really made me motivated.
>
> (Elvina, journal 2)

This acceptance could also be seen from the way the students respected the PSTs, such as by calling them *'pak'* or *'buk'* respectfully, as narrated by Arel in his post-practicum interview. These are terms used as a part of Indonesian culture to respectfully address teachers. Shaking and kissing the hand are also the way Indonesian children respect elders, including their teachers. For the PSTs, this two-way show of respect strengthened their emerging sense of being a teacher. They felt honored, recognised, valued, and accepted. The participants of this study reported that they were really impressed with the way the students addressed them and they thought that this was a symbol of students' recognition of their presence and authority. For Elvina's case, after few weeks this acceptance made her feel that she was already inseparable part of school community. Similar feelings were also reported by other participants, such as Dewinta and Selly.

> During the holiday, I missed the situation in the school, like missing the noise of the class, and the hospitality of the students. I feel that that everyone in the school is just like my family members. I just don't want to leave the school now, because I have found many new families who have given me a lot of supports and valuable lessons. The students who have been emotional close to me don't want me to leave the school. This fact has made me really touched, because I am feeling that I am really valued and honoured.

(Elivna, reflective journal 6)

On another occasion, two participants were also impressed when students presented them with a bunch of flowers for the teachers' day annual celebration, or when the students kissed their hands before they entered the classroom, as described by Ayi and Dodi. All of these instances contributed to strengthening their self-confidence as PSTs and at the same time nurtured their sense of a being a teacher.

> I was really happy when some students presented me with a bunch of flowers on teachers' day. I was really excited and felt proud at that time. By that kind of special gift, I feel that am now already a teacher, the same as other teachers who also received some flowers from the students.
>
> (Ayi, Reflective Journal 4)

The flowers played an important role for the practicing teachers symbolising the school students' recognition and acceptance of their existence at the schools. For these PSTs, these little informal acts acted like an 'official inauguration' for them to be officially welcomed as a member of the school community – a recognised teacher. Ayi and Dodi clearly stated that they both had dreamed of being teachers since before they joined Riau University, as described in section 6.2. However, they also had to struggle for meaning making during the practicum. They experience the difficulties of the practicum survival period until they got the feeling of recognition and acceptance from both students and incumbent teachers after that 'magic flower'.

These warm acts of acceptance by the students subsequently led some of the PSTs to have a stronger motivation to be a teacher. This could be drawn from their reflective journals by the end of the practicum program; most of them wrote that they could feel the beautiful life of being a teacher. As Dewinta wrote in her journal, after four weeks of the practicum program she could feel that her interest to be a teacher was starting to grow stronger. She started to enjoy her days in the teaching practicum and interacting with cheerful students. She claimed to have gotten 'the feel' of being a teacher while at the same time she could see that her students' interest in study was growing as well.

A similar story was narrated by Ayi in her post-practicum interview. To express the feeling of being accepted in the school community, she used a metaphor relating to 'medicine' and 'sick people' in describing her relationship with her students by the end of the practicum program. She said, "Meeting and getting along with the students at school is just like a 'medicine' for my sickness. I really enjoy that moment." Other positive expressions were also articulated by other PSTs, as beautifully expressed by Maysil in the epigraph of this chapter. All of these experiences clearly indicated how well the PSTs transformed themselves from 'newcomers' to 'old timers' with a new found sense of belonging to the school community.

Furthermore, Maysil's statement in the epigraph -*"their cheerful faces have acted like the rain deleting the ash in the roads"*- could be understood as the process of *imagination* experienced by Maysil in her journey to having a sense of belonging to the teachers' community. Imagination "refers to the process of expanding our selves by transcending our time and space and creating new images of the world and ourselves" (Wenger, 1998, p. 176). Wenger associates imagination with "looking at an apple seed and seeing a tree" (p. 176). Imagination is thus a creative process through which we create images of others and ourselves beyond the immediate time and context; hence it is a source of identity formation. In this study, analysing the PSTs' identities meant paying attention to their imaginations of themselves and others, beyond the immediate activities of the professional learning community. What is implied from Maysil's account was her ability to interpret an experience beyond the immediate context where she already understood the students' smiling faces as an essential source of happiness for her as a new teacher.

The positive atmosphere resulting from the warm welcome of the students led most of the PSTs to feel 'at home' in their schools. As a result, some of them even said that they did not want to leave the school when the practicum finished. Most PSTs mentioned that they felt sad to know that the practicum was nearly finished. Some of them wished that they could stay for longer at the schools. Elvina, for instance, felt it hard to leave the placement school. She claimed that she already found many new families who provided her with a lot of support and valuable lessons during the practicum. She already had an emotional attachment with both students and teachers at school. "I think that I am now already comfortable interacting with the teachers in the school," Elvina wrote in her second last reflective journal entry.

What Elvina mentioned indicated that her community membership started to be well nurtured after realising that she was already professionally accepted by her students. This is why, like other PSTs, she had mixed feelings when she had to leave the school after the teaching practicum program finished. On one hand, she was happy to have received the insightful experience of the practicum; on the other hand she was feeling sad to leave the school. The majority of the PSTs in this study mentioned the same feeling in their post-practicum interviews when they answered the question *how do you feel after the teaching practicum finished.* Nine of ten participants reported that they felt both happy and sad at the same time after they had finished the 16 week teaching practicum. There was only one participant who claimed to be disappointed (Demire), because he did not really get what he imagined he would from the practicum (Demire's quite different story is elaborated in section 8.2). Those reporting that they felt happy by the end of the teaching practicum mentioned that it was because they had just finished a wonderful program from which they could enrich and strengthen their knowledge and skills as 'novice teachers'. The experience made them understand the real life of being a teacher and they obtained skills and knowledge from the practicum experience (details of the skills learnt is presented in section 8.3). Yet, they were sad to leave the school and the community where they already built relatively close emotional ties with both other teachers and students.

> … because I have been part of the school during this 16 weeks. So, I have got like chemistry or bounding with the students. It's bit hard to leave them. We have been quite close; interacting every day, chatting with them, getting angry with them as well …, so feeling blue when I have to leave them now.
>
> (Selly, post-practicum interview)

Referring to the *social theory of learning* by Wenger (1998) and Tajfel's (1978) social identity theory which stresses the notion of identity as a learning trajectory and a community membership, what was experienced by these participating teachers were instances of this trajectory and community membership in their journey to becoming a teacher. As Tajfel (1978, p.61) argued, "part of *who you are* is probably defined and shaped by the nature of the groups you belong to. At the same time, the nature of your group memberships will partly define who you are - your identity". In the case of this study, the PSTs' *subjective and*

projected identities were significantly influenced, among other factors, by the nature of social acceptance from students and mentor teachers, and other members of the school community.

In addition, participants have been going through various stages in their struggles for *finding their voices* (Britzman, 2003, my italics) as new teachers, until they were feeling emotionally secure after this social acceptance. At the same time they were also passing through situations when they used to be *outsiders* to the teachers community and became the *insiders* (community membership). At this stage, their new teachers' identities were well nurtured and constructed. In other words, it could also be claimed that they had already passed the boundaries and had embraced some degrees of *collective identities* as new teachers (Danielewicz, 2001). However as it was a continuum identity would keep being constructed and reconstructed in the future. Identity is not a fixed object, but a concept that we need to revisit and redefine along the journey of our lives (Wenger, 1998).

Based on participants' stories, what brought the PSTs to finally feeling professionally acknowledged stemmed from various and unique tangible and intangible sources. Students' positive responses to their presence and performance as practicing teachers appeared to be the most important factor which fostered this feeling of acceptance. This finding asserts the idea of symbolic interactionism coined by Blumer (1969) about how individuals respond to the meaning they construct as they interact with one another. It is through their interactions in various settings (in the case of this study, the teaching practicum setting) that they are actively constructing meaning. Although they are basically active agents in their social world, they are also influenced by culture, social organisation and social interaction. In this case, the way their students treated them during their teaching practicum, among other interactions, appeared to be an important factor in shaping their early teaching selves and teaching identities.

Furthermore, the feeling of being accepted as a part of the school community also originates from PSTs' *engagement* and involvement in extracurricular activities and other non-teaching roles in their placement schools. The extracurricular activities are optional activities conducted by schools as part of their school curriculum in which students are encouraged to

join the program they love most depending on their interests. The programs could focus on music, sport, scouting, journalism, or religious activities.

> We participated in some extracurricular activities, supervising the students, taking roles in teachers shifts, controlling and watching the students during teaching hours, socialising with other fellow pre-service teachers, and training the students for English day activities.
>
> (Selly, post-practicum interview)

When participating in the extracurricular activities, some of them acted as the supervisor of the students' English club; others supervised the students in running their students' union; while others led them in arts and music club activities. In a proposition about learning and identity as two interconnected elements in a community of practice, Wenger (1998) emphasised that the learning process should be viewed in the context of live experiences or participation in our world. Participation here refers not just to local events or engagement in certain activities with certain people, but to the encompassing process of "being active participants in the practices of social communities and constructing identities in relation to these communities" (Wenger, 1998, p.4). Therefore, participating actively in those extracurricular activities was an instance of engagement, which reflected both the level of active participants in the practice and the construction of identity.

Some participants reported that they were feeling proud to be trusted by school authorities to organise a drama performance for the English day program. They could see that their work was appreciated by many, including by the incumbent teachers. Slowly, this appreciation nurtured their sense of belonging to the school community. In turn, this has made a significant change in ways the PSTs defined and perceived themselves. By the end of the practicum program, the acceptance and recognition helped most of the PSTs feel secure and having passed through the survival stage 'safely' – entering the developmental stage of the formation of their beginning teachers' identity. From the perspective of community membership, the students' recognition and acceptance of the PSTs could be understood as an important precondition leading the PSTs to having a sense of belonging to the teachers' community in their placement schools.

In terms of identity in transition, these instances clearly indicate that these PSTs already 'crossed the border' from being a university student *per se* to becoming a novice teacher. Leave and Wenger's (1991) concept of a community of practice argues that learning involves the whole person – which implies becoming a full participant or a member of the community. In the case of this study, these PSTs transformed themselves through participation in being the newcomer at first in a role that was legitimately peripheral but over time was centripetally drawn inwards and became more engaged and more complex reflecting full participation. The newcomers' participation took place from the time they entered their practicum until when they were in the survival period; and full participation happened only after they found themselves to have been professionally accepted and acknowledged.

Despite most PSTs reporting that they had a positive experience during the practicum program; two participants – Arel and Demire – clearly stated that they did not want to be a PET when they graduated as they mentioned in the first round of interviews. The former kept saying that he wanted to be a policeman, and the latter said that he would prefer to be a businessman. This finding indicates that the emerging sense of being a novice teacher nurtured during the practicum was not always powerful enough to drive participants to change their initial career plans. In the case of these two participants, what drove them more in their career choice were non-educational factors, such as financial need and family influences.

Having analysed all data from the interviews, reflective journals and focus group discussion, it could be observed that there are some interrelated factors which were nourished in the practicum and sped up the emergence of a sense of belonging and the development of the PSTs' participation in the teachers' community. These factors ranged from the school students' responses to the PSTs; their interaction with their mentor teachers; experiences with their fellow student teachers; the mentor teachers' acceptance, intense care and support; to non-teaching activities that the PST did during the teaching practicum. These factors worked simultaneously in boosting the emergence of the PSTs' new teacher identities.

What stood out from the data was that ample engagement and participation with members of the school community during the teaching practicum program effectively played a significant

part behind this identity transition. Engagement in this study is defined as any kind of participation with others in the activities of the professional learning community during a practicum. Through such active participation the PSTs developed identities from a sense of belonging in the professional learning community.

Findings of this study also highlighted the complex relationships between membership, competence, and legitimacy of access to practice which contribute to the formation of participants' teachers identitiy (Tsui, 2007). Their views on *who they are* have been developing based on their growing sense of belonging to school teachers community (membership), their emerging self efficacy as new teachers, as well as their feeling of being *insiders* who have crossed the boundaries from being university students to becoming new teachers. Stories from Selly, Ayi, Dewinta, and Elvina, for instance, as narrated above clearly indicated this interrelationship. From their narratives, these four participants' stories of belonging to teachers' community were more explicitly expressed than other participants. For the other participants - such as Dodi and Icha - their senses of belonging were silently indicated through their expression of having mixed feelings to leave the host school after the practicum. They were happy to finish their program and return to campus. Yet, they were also sad to leave the school and the students to whom they might have been emotionally attached.

> I am feeling sad leaving the students sir. I am impressed with their interest to study English with me, although I know that learning English is not easy for them. But, they kept listening to me, and did whatever I said. Even, they said that they felt more comfortable studying English with me than studying with their existing teacher or my mentor teacher.
>
> (Dodi, post practicum interview)

The interrelated factors under the notion of participation and engagement could be visualised in the following figure:

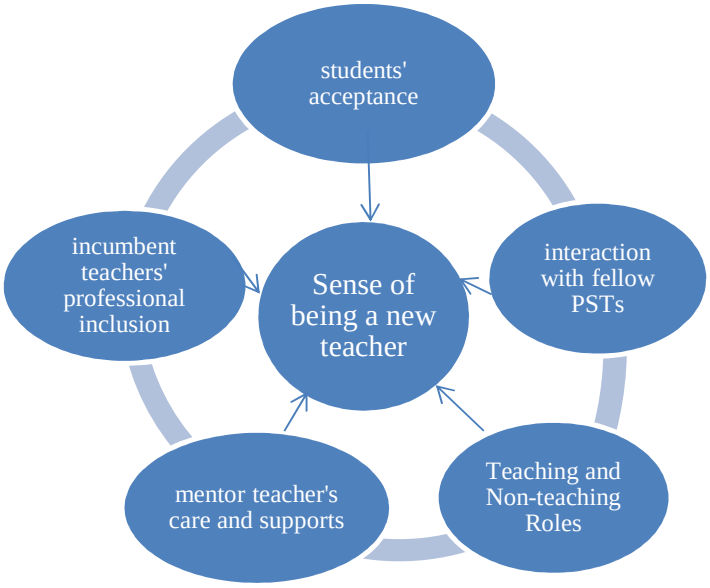


Figure 12. Interrelated factors in the formation of initial teachers' identity during teaching practicum

During engagement and participation, the school students' mode of reactions to activities conducted by PSTs during the teaching practicum was found to be the most significant factor cited in the interviews and journals which had strengthened the emergence of a teachers' identity for these PSTs. This could be inferred from the previous stories narrated by Rike, Selly, Ayi, Dewinta, and Dodi articulating how they emotionally and professionally moved from perceiving themselveds as *outsiders* of school community to be *insiders* of the community as a result of symptoms of professional acceptance from their students.

The significant influence of the student-teacher dynamic (including the nature of students' responses to the PSTs' performance) on the emerging sense of professional identity of teachers has been discussed in several studies of identity construction of teachers (see, for instance, Eteläpelto & Saarinen, 2006; A. B. Grudnoff, 2007; Pizarro, 2008). Central in these studies is the idea that students play an important role in affecting the construction of teachers identity or how they see themselves as teachers. The study by Grunoff (2007), for example, reveals that the major source of satisfaction and self-esteem of participants in becoming a teacher was derived from seeing children who they taught achieving socially and academically. The study by Pizarro (2008) suggests that school students did not present as

powerless and passive individuals; they displayed significant agency in (re)creating their own 'self' or ‘selves’ as school students as well as participating in constructing their teachers’ sense of selves.

Similarly, Etelapelto and Saarinen (2006) investigated how nine PSTs in Finland made sense of an authentic working context and used it as a resource for defining themselves as professional subjects. Their study indicated that the main resources for the construction of the students-teachers' professional identities arose from interaction between their classroom experiences and their ideals about their professional futures. Learning to teach experiences were perceived as extremely meaningful and critical because of their emotional and affective influences. Strong negative emotions were related to situations in which student teachers received negative feedback from the pupils. A positive sense of belonging to the school as a legitimate participant greatly strengthened the PST’s sense of his or her professional subjectivity. The findings by Etelapelto and Sarinen (2006) are similar to this present study in the sense that PSTs’ complex experiences in learning to teach during the practicum provided unique and meaningful opportunities for them to be a member of the teachers community.

8.2. Identity Construction as an Idiosyncratic Process: Demire’s case

As previously mentioned, unlike the majority of participants who started their practicum with anxiety and ended with ‘happy endings’; Demire’s narratives showed a different pattern. While he shared similar stories to other participants, especially in the case of negotiating power with his mentor teacher (as previously discussed); his progress, as outlined by his responses in the data, fluctuated and was mostly fragmented. Indeed, he showed significant discontinuity in his progress in becoming a member of the school community, which did not align with the three above-mentioned stages. This shows that the transformation of PSTs can be a highly idiosyncratic and amorphous non linear process.

Demire embarked on the practicum with a high confidence that he could play his role as an English teacher well. The confidence was likely rooted from a rich *virtual schoolbag* (Thomson, 2002 as cited in Cornu & Ewing, 2008, my italics) as a result of an *apprenticeship of observation* (Lortie, 1975), which he acquired during his schooling experience through

doing well in English. Although he seemed to narrow down the meaning of being a teacher to one particular aspect of a teacher's role (delivering lessons in class), this confidence led him to have a strong level of optimism that he would undergo the practicum effectively. In relation to his reasons for enroling in English teacher training, he frankly admitted that he had entered the institution because of a practical reason – he thought that it might be easier for him to teach the English subject considering his relatively good English proficiency (see section 6.1).

Yet, the high self-efficacy he had at the beginning of the practicum was challenged by the practices and dynamics of interaction with the school community he encountered during the practicum. It was true that he shared similar experiences to the other participants in the practicum where they had to deal with issues of ignorance and resistance from students and incumbent teachers at the placement school. However, unlike other PSTs who ended up with positive feelings, he clearly indicated that he was generally not satisfied with his practicum experience. This can be seen from the following excerpt when he says that finishing the practicum was just *like exiting from a very complicated life*. He also questioned the modes of interaction with the teachers' community during the teaching practicum.

> It's just like going out from a very complicated problem. .. The problem is not about doing the job, but the problem is how you interact with the people there. I mean, specifically with the school administration. The complicated things make us not free to do some, what we call it, some innovations. They already had the system, and even though we know that the system is not really suitable with what we know. They keep forcing us to do their system.
>
> (Demire, post-practicum interview)

This post-practicum interview excerpt shows us what mattered for Demire in the process of constructing his identity as a new teacher during the practicum: it was not about doing the job (*learning as doing*) as he seemed to have a strong self-efficacy for his teaching skills, but rather he put special emphasis on the nature of interaction among members of the practicum community ('how you interact with people'). He questioned the mode of interaction within the teachers' community during the teaching practicum. In Demire's case, he thought that a lack of freedom and less flexibility regarding particular practicum regulations had blocked his creativity. This situation in turn led him to feel that he did not do what he was really meant

to. Instead, he kept doing some of the expected PST roles and responsibilities, such as writing up lesson plans and delivering lessons in class just for the perfunctory sake of fulfilling the practicum's administrative requirements.

Demire's choice of terms - 'forcing us to do their system' - is a strong emotive word reflecting the tension he experienced dealing with the school culture. The word clearly indicates that he basically does not accept the reality that he had to do the prescribed administrative tasks. As a participant with several years teaching experience, he could have established certain values in relation to teachers' roles and responsibilities. Yet, he had to put aside his own voice considering his status as a student teacher. This also implies how strong the school culture is in shaping a PST's identity.

What Demire experienced was similar to the findings of a qualitative study by Trent (2010) investigating the teaching practicum experience of eight pre-service English teachers in Hong Kong. The study revealed an important tension for PSTs, which happened when the PSTs tried hard to be a 'creative teacher' as their university course suggested, but faced the reality they found in their placement school leading them to be 'robot teachers', instead. "We are in a struggle because during teaching practice we have to be robot teachers because schools tell us that we have to do all the textbook exercises, exams, grammar structure," Keith – one participant in this qualitative study, stated (Trent, 2010, p. 5). In the case of Demire, although he did not utter the same metaphor, his recounting of the experience in the interview clearly indicates that he experienced a similar situation when he felt he had no choice to do things based on his own preferences, just like a robot, to use the phrase in Trent's study.

Demire was also not happy to know that there was not enough appreciation given by the school to particular students who did lots of work for the school's good name through English debating competitions that he supervised. He could not accept the indifference and apathy of the school authorities about his hard work and sacrifices with his English debate team. However, like other typical PSTs, he did not speak clearly about what he felt, as he realised his status was 'only' that of a student teacher with perceived unequal power and authority.

> I hate this school. There is no any appreciation for those kids who had skipped many exams for practicing the debate. There was not even lunch provided for them. In fact, they have successfully opened the eyes of all schools in Riau that SMA Muhammadiyah 1 is a strong team, but no appreciation at all. If I wasn't personally in need from this school, I would have complained to the principal.
>
> (Demire, Reflective Journal 3)

Demire's story of identity in making was a clear instance of construction of identity as a personal journey, which was highly idiosyncratic in nature. One's life experience within the same group cannot be generalised to what has happened to all the members of the group. Demire's story also demonstrates that our understanding of *who we are* will not be exlusively based on our personal *self's* unique dimension, as the definition could not be separated from how the external worlds define who we are (Gee, 1999 as cited in Smith, 2009) – or as Holland states, "identity is a concept that figuratively combines the intimate or the personal world with the collective space of cultural forms and social relations" (1998, p. 5). This definition stresses the combination of both personal and social influences in conceptualising identity.

In the case of Demire, personally he had a rich virtual schoolbag to do with the notion of the 'good teacher', as previously mentioned. In his pre-practicum interview, he recalled several stories about good practices exemplified by his English teacher during his childhood and schooling period. Again, this *apprenticeship of observation* (Lortie, 1975) enabled him to establish firm beliefs about English teaching. It was these existing beliefs that might have contributed to his strong resistance to the lack of freedom and creativity in his placement school.

Furthermore, his conseptualisation of what it means to be a 'PET' indicates he had a quite comprehensive understanding of this notion. For instance Demire criticised the tendency of some ELT teachers to be trapped in grammar teaching; or he would emphasise the importance of motivation from teachers for successful learning (see section 8.3.3). It can be understood that Demire's cognitive ability was actually well developed as a result of his experiences during his schooling, prior teaching experience, teacher education and the practicum itself. The fact that he had experienced teaching English in several English courses

should have also enriched his personal and professional biographies in relation to the teaching profession. All of these social influences seemed to have significantly influenced Demire's teaching identity in ways often markedly different from others.

However in terms of his personal career choice, by the end of the practicum, unlike the other participants, Demire consistently reported that he did not want to become an English teacher as his career after graduation. This is not to forget the fact that he was the only participant who chose to do his interviews and reflective journal in English, clearly indicating that one's decision to choose English teaching as a career goes beyond English proficiency but relates to many factors, including one's personal calling as well as the external world's influences, including socio and cultural demands.

In Demire's case, his family's economic background, which badly needed financial support, played the most important factor in driving his career plan. As the eldest son in his family, he had a responsibility to be the breadwinner supporting his single mother (see his profile in section 5.3). He had to negotiate between his passions for English teaching with the immediate need to support his family income. He decided to run a business instead of being a teacher to earn money. Thus, Demire's complex stories about becoming a teacher implied that one's personal rich teaching experience does not necessarily translate to automatically leading them to choose teaching as a profession. As can be seen, socio-economic factors can be a more significant factor to drive peoples' decisions to embark on the English teaching profession.

Overall, Demire's stories do not only show the uniqueness of the construction of teachers' identity, but they also demonstrate the complexity of this construction and the constant and abrupt changes that result from interaction with a complex environment. It shows the interrelationship between personal biographies, school cultures, interaction with members of school community, and the negotiation of power relations in shaping and reshaping PSTs' professional learning and construction of identity. The construction of Demire's teacher's identity also corresponds to the model of construction of teaching identity proposed by Olsen (2008) who argues that teacher identity is developed through dynamic and holistic interaction of multiple parts (see again Figure 1). This may include the teacher's prior personal

experience (including familial and schooling experience), his or her reasons to enter the teaching profession, and the impact of their teacher training, as important factors that affect this formation.

8.3. Professional Learning: Skills and Knowledge Learnt from Practicum

As discussed in Chapter 4, several authors have argued that one's professional identity is constructed through a complex interplay of elements (Kagan 1992; Beijaard, Verloop et al. 2000; Beijaard, Meijer et al. 2004; Swennen, Volman et al. 2008). Some factors that have been acknowledged as contributing to its formation include aspects of the self, and multiple aspects of teaching including pedagogical and subject knowledge; and the social, political and cultural contexts and practices of education. This section specifically discusses one element of the formation of teachers' professional identity during the teaching practicum, which relates to aspects of teaching. It comprises their perceived professional learning during the teaching practicum as well as the pedagogical and subject knowledge they claimed to have gained after the practicum as a *real* site for learning to teach.

This division specifically answers this research question - *what skills and knowledge have the participants learned from the teaching practicum* (see section 1.3). Exploring answers for this question is considered to be important as part of the investigation of the construction of PSTs' professional identity during the teaching practicum. This is in line with West's (in Norton, 1997) proposition, which argues that the question 'who am I?' cannot be separated from the question 'what can I do?'. This implies that a teacher's identity is subject to his or her understanding on skills or competencies she or he has achieved.

This understanding is also drawn from Wenger's (1998) proposition of a *community of practice* in which PSTs are expected to arrive at *'regimes of competence'* – that is, when

> …they hold signs of competent membership of a community of practice which include the ability to: engage and establish mutual relationships with other members of the community; take some responsibility and accountability for the 'enterprise' and its functions; and use a 'repertoire of practice' through participation in the historical practices of the community (p.137).

It could be understood that a 'regime of competence' refers to a set of criteria and expectations by which members of a community recognise membership. In this sense, communities are viewed as social formations in which members experience competence and are recognised as competent (Wenger, 1998). Therefore, it is reasonable to say that discussion of competence is closely connected with particular practices. Normally, what is seen as competence is constructed and defined within and by the community (by the professional teachers association, for instance). By this criteria, the community define what it is to be a competent participant, an outsider, or somewhere in between. The criteria however could also be imposed by outsiders, such as the government.

In this study, I argue that the professional knowledge claimed to have been learned by the PSTs during the teaching practicum plays a part in indicating signs of a 'regime of competence'. Data from participants' post-practicum interviews, reflective journals, and the focus group discussion were inductively analysed to see findings related to the research question (see section 5.5 for detailed data analysis procedures). The following points were found to be the five most important knowledge and skills the PSTs claimed to have gained during their professional learning in the practicum experience. Yet it is important to bear in mind that these are only signs of a regime of competence claimed by participants based on their narratives. Investigating this issue with other 'live' methods of data collection, such as classroom observation or ethnographic research, would improve our understanding of what is actually happening with PSTs' learning in the field.

8.3.1. Understanding How a School System Works

Participants reported that the 16-week teaching practicum enabled them to understand the complexities of how a school system worked. The experience in the workplace already made them, for example, understand the schools' 'rules of the game' which must be followed by school community members, including students and teachers. They understood more, for instance, about the importance of being punctual as teachers, the function of wearing a specific teacher's uniform, and the obligation to attend the Monday school flag ceremony. Some of them found several unique and interesting rules enacted in their placement schools.

> I learned quite a lot about school regulations and discipline. I think this is the first time in my life I found the students must stop and turn off their motorbike before they enter the school gate, and then they must do the flag ceremony every day, morning and afternoon. They also do unique gyms for the students just like a military gym. Both males and females are treated the same. Even the female students are also instructed to do push ups.
>
> (Arel, post-practicum interview)

In the case of Arel, his understanding seemed to be more complex than other participants as he did his practicum in a private, semi-military high school with unique rules. Unlike other high schools which conducted a flag ceremony once a week only, this school required the students to do it three times in a day, as Arel mentioned above. The school also treated both males and females students equally. Doing push ups for females as part of corporal punishment was one example mentioned by Arel to show this equality. This kind of physically demanding activity is not practiced in regular Indonesian high schools where females are sometimes treated differently in terms of physical discipline, from male students.

The participants realised that all of these experiences would be valuable for them as prospective teachers; for instance in providing them with the understanding that they were expected to be disciplined teachers later in the future. In terms of being disciplined, the PSTs also started to realise the importance of exemplifying good behaviour for the students. Otherwise, they risked being reprimanded by the school principal, or being critiqued by the students for not being a good role model for their students.

> Some teachers come later after the school gates close. This is one thing that I am not happy with. Those late teachers are not good examples for students. One day, some students complained when they were punished due to their late arrivals. One of them said, “what about the teachers, sir? Why don’t they be punished when they come late?
>
> (Arel, post-practicum interview)

Arel’s stories indicate that he could identify himself as a new teacher holding certain roles and responsibilities. The experience during the practicum led him to realise that his students as well as society expected him to be a good role model for his students. Therefore, he had to *align* his behaviour with the expectation. He felt guilty and uncomfortable if he was late. He promised to himself that he was going to be punctual in the future. At the same time, he

questioned the ‘improper behaviours’ made by his fellow teachers during the practicum, as mentioned above.

With regard to this discipline implementation, some participants were really impressed with how their school principals became the one who showed a good example, so that other teachers could follow him. Arel for example explained that it was his principal who arrived at school first, early in the morning. This was the way the principal tried to be a role model for his staff (teachers). In the context of learning how a school system works, by his behaviour the principal taught the PSTs an important lesson about the importance of good and strong leadership from the school principal to make sure the school system functioned effectively.

8.3.2. Understanding the “Real World” of a Teacher

Yet another theme emerged from the data in relation to the question *what is the most important lesson you learnt from the teaching practicum?*. This theme was related to how some participants confirmed that the practicum enabled them to have a better understanding of the idea of being a teacher in a real life situation. Most of them mentioned that teaching was not as easy as some people thought, and that it is a challenging profession with complex roles and responsibilities starting from preparing and planning lessons to evaluating and assessing students. Teaching, explained some of the study participants, is indeed a demanding and tiring profession.

> I just feel bit overwhelmed with the demands of checking hundreds of students’ works at school. This kind of feeling was also happening when I was writing the questions for quiz or for exams. Not to mention to analyse the students’ performance. It is certainly not an easy job. So, I am thinking that being a teacher is indeed a tiring profession.
>
> (Ayi, post-practicum interview)

Considering the complexities of the teaching profession, some PSTs understood that they were required to have some exceptional skills, and extra care or patience to effectively engage in the profession. The emphasis on care and patience from the participants was probably inspired by the difficult challenges they faced in dealing with many students with complex behaviours in the classroom. As narrated by some participants in section 8.1.2.,

these practicing teachers had to deal with students with complicated behaviours which often caused serious problems with the learning process. Not only did some of the students have a very low level of learning motivation and limited English proficiency; others were also found to be ‘problem students’ and disruptive.

Furthermore, some participants stated that the practicum experience made them understand the daily routines of being a teacher; from preparing lessons, to delivering them in the classroom, and finally to assessing the students’ performance. They understood that teachers sometimes also needed to bring work home, such as checking students’ homework, marking students’ projects, or preparing materials for the next lesson. The participants discovered that the teacher’s work goes beyond school walls and classrooms. Their job in a sense is timeless as a teacher is also expected to work and behave ‘like a teacher’ when she or he is out of school building.

In terms of skills for assessing students’ progress and achievement, one participant – Rike – reported that she realised through the practicum that there were many aspects of student work and behaviour that needed to be assessed across the cognitive, affective, and psychometric domains. What she initially understood was that the assessment was limited to marking students’ examinations sheets and putting numbers on the students’ reports. This clearly indicated that the practicum enabled her to understand that a teacher should be able to assess the whole progress of the students’ learning development; that all of the domains needed to be equally taken into account.

> This is the eight week of my teaching practicum in this school. I got a new interesting experience lately, which is related to students’ book report management, especially students in grade VII of my host school. This is a new knowledge for me. I have just realised that there are many aspects from the students that a teacher should assess; cognitive, affective, and psychometric aspects of the students. I had never known this before.
>
> (Rike, reflective journal 5)

Rike’s unfamiliarity with aspects of students’ learning assessment is not only because she might have never learnt this during his teacher training course in her university, but also because the current assessment model and components of current students’ report book were

different from the one she used to have in the past when she was still in her secondary school. Unlike many years ago when teachers simply put grading 1 – 10 for each subjects, starting from 2006 when the Indonesian government employed School Based Curriculum or KTSP (see also section 2.2.2), the students' learning achievement are now reported in more detailed way by specifying their achievement in each component of Bloom's (1956) taxonomy – cognitive, affective, and psychomotor. The current 2013 Curriculum even requires teachers to descriptively report each of component qualitatively (Anbarini, 2014).

Apart from the challenges, most of the participants could also see the rewarding side of being a teacher and that being a teacher would bring them to immaterial happiness. They expressed how good they felt seeing their students understand what they taught; or feeling valued and honored when the students showed their sincere respect of, or appreciation for, the work of the PST. Other participants also reported that they enjoyed having a close relationship with their students (as discussed in section 8.1.3); for instance they felt proud of being able to supervise their students in extracurricular activities. This kind of psychological satisfaction were, as the study participants expressed, among the positive incentives of being a teacher which money could not buy.

It could be generally concluded that the practicum had opened the PSTs' eyes and had given them a wider perspective for seeing what it means to be teachers: their roles and responsibilities, their routines at schools, their challenges, their social status, and what government and society expected from the profession. This understanding needed to be continuously developed and upgraded; at least, the practicum enabled them to connect the abstract theories learned during their teacher education course with the real world of the life of a teacher in the school context. This real experience is expected to have built their more comprehensive understanding of *what it means to be a teacher*.

8.3.3. Nurturing Novice Teachers' Competencies

The practicum is commonly understood as an important site for PSTs' professional learning during their teacher education program, especially in developing their subject and pedagogical knowledge. This is because the practicum provides ample opportunities for them to experience how to be a real teacher in a school life setting. These experiences help PSTs

develop a *contextualised* understanding of the intricacies of teaching, and provide an opportunity to develop competencies across a range of areas including classroom management skills, the fundamentals of lesson planning, awareness of personal teaching styles, and the ability to interact with students (Farrell, 2001; Richards & Crookes, 1988).

In the context of this study, data from post practicum interviews and reflective journals indicate that the practicum contributed to the development of part of the PSTs' range of competencies. Details of skills claimed to have been learned by the PSTs (in terms of nurturing their regimes of competence) are listed in the following table (Table 8). They were categorised into four main categories; procedural skills, reflective skills, classroom management skills, personal and interpersonal skills. Unlike section 7.1.1, which discussed competencies from the perspectives of PSTs on PET before and after their practicum, the emphasis of this section is on how the practicum as a mechanism has nurtured the PSTs' skills and competencies.

Descriptions of each category listed in the table were generated by doing cross case analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994) during the axial coding phase of analysis, to look for common patterns as well as differences among participants' narratives in regard to the skills they claimed from their practicum placements. Overall, the *regimes of competence* built by the PSTs was mainly related to pedagogical competency in which most of them said that the practicum significantly contributed as a place where they learned and obtained knowledge and skills related to pedagogy, including skills for being a reflective practitioner. Other skills related to their growing awareness of the importance of certain personal qualities as well as social abilities, in playing their roles as prospective professional teachers.

Table 11. Skills identified from the teaching practicum as reported by participants

No	PSTs' Regime of Competence	*Teaching practicum has enabled the PSTs to …*
1	Procedural Skills	improve their teaching skills
		understand the importance of lesson preparation
		teach with a more *contextualised* approach
		realise the importance of teachers' mobility in the class during the lesson
		have better communication skills
2	Reflective Skills	conduct post-teaching reflection
		understand that corporal punishment should not be a choice in disciplining students
		be aware of the importance of motivating students
3	Classroom Management Skills	improve classroom management skills
		make them aware of students' needs and concerns
		employ a humanistic approach in dealing with student discipline
		understand students' diverse characteristics
4	Personal and Interpersonal Skills	develop positive personal attributes, such as being patient, supportive, caring, and cheerful; having self-control management; being decisive, showing discipline; engaging in positive thinking; and being wise
		be able to establish a strong emotional attachment with students
		be able to show love and care to the students
		realise the worth of being 'young' in approaching young students

The four 'regime of competence' and or skills identified above are discussed in more detailed description as follows:

Nunan (1999) maintains that *procedural skills* refer to the ability to do things or knowing how to do things. As the table shows, some participants reported that the practicum had enabled them to develop part of their procedural skills. For instance, it empowered their understanding of some basic tenets of effective teaching, of the importance of well prepared class, including skills on how to effectively deliver a lesson. Ayi, for example, explained that she understood the importance of a strong and clear voice in explaining lessons and managing the class. She got this understanding when she was finally successful in making her noisy students silent and listen to her by using a loud voice several times. Another example was cited by Nisa who said she understood that she should use more familiar words to explain unknown concepts to her students. Being consistent with her communicative approach, she

kept trying to avoid merely translating the words into the students' native language (*Bahasa Indonesia)* and found that this worked quite well in her class.

Some PSTs further described how the teaching practicum led them to understand the importance of teaching preparation prior to the class and the provision of constant motivation for student learning, for effective teaching. Dodi, for instance, stressed the importance of teachers' ability to set aside their personal life or feelings into the classroom.

> Before you enter the class, prepare all of the things. Prepare the materials, prepare yourself for teaching, you may not bring your problems to the class. Even though you are sad, not happy, in front of the class, you should be a teacher who looks ready.
>
> (Dodi, post-practicum interview)

Dodi built this understanding from his personal experience struggling to teach English for low achieving and unmotivated students in his practicum placement. As explained in section 5.3, Dodi was doing his practicum in a rural school where the majority of students were from lower middle class families. Like other PSTs who found teaching English to these students a challenging job (see also section 8.1), Dodi also dealt with the fact that most school students thought that English was a hard subject to learn. By constantly reflecting on this challenge, Dodi finally came to the conclusion that good preparation is critical for being effective teachers. It is apparent that good preparation is one of the keys for successful teaching in a classroom. Disorganised and unmanaged classes often originate from insufficient preparation by teachers. Therefore, when a PST understands this and articulates a plea for making a well-planned lesson, it subsequently affects the quality of his or her teaching.

With regard to the issue that the majority of students in Indonesia consider English as a hard subject, another participant – Demire - pointed out that one of the most important responsibilities of English teachers was how to motivate the students to learn English. "Motivation is the first thing that the teacher should do for students, so they would not have any anxieties to do anything", Demire wrote in his reflective journal. Similarly, Arel also wrote of the importance of a constant externally driven motivation for English learners in Indonesia. He understood that English was a foreign language in Indonesia where the students did not have sufficient exposure to this language, either at schools or outside the

school environment. Therefore, it was no wonder that many of them thought English was a difficult subject. Putting this in Arel's words, many students believed that 'English is like a *disease* for them' (see also section 7.1.1).

Another apparent lesson the PSTs reported having learned during the practicum was the ability to engage in critical *reflection* on what they have done in the classroom after the class is over (*reflective skills*). Common sense understanding tends to describe reflection as the moment when an individual recalls his/her experience, contemplating upon it, and in the course of this contemplative process proceeds to evaluate it in some form, and to make plans for the future on the basis of this process. Reflection, as it is particularly conceptualised for professional teachers in schools and PSTs in pre-service education courses, begins with this common sense idea. Yet, Danielwicz (2001) prefers to call this activity *reflexitivity* rather than reflection. She argues that reflection is the experience of contemplation, involving moments of quiet thinking that have no inherent critical function; and reflexitivity is instrumental, an intentional means to an end. Danielwicz (2001, p. 156) maintains, "It involves a person's active analysis of past situations, events, or products, with inherent goals of critique and revision for the explicit purpose of achieving an understanding that can lead to change in thought or behaviour". Identities are produced by this reflexive process, as prior assumptions about self and others are identified, shaped, challenged and evaluated in light of social conditions.

Regardless of different emphases on the use of these terms, some instances of reflection in this study can be tracked from entries in the reflective journals that the participants wrote fortnightly as a part of the data collection. One example of this critical reflection can be seen from the following journal entry:

> When I was about to start the lesson, standing in front of the classroom, it seemed to me that the whole class is not ready to start the lesson yet. They were still busy with their own business; chatting, eating, and even some of them screaming for no reason. I have to say that this is the class with the worst behaviour compared to the other three classes. Because of feeling tired after constantly getting angry in the class, this time I just kept silent, not saying any words until they realised that I was not happy with the messiness. After that, again I had to lecture them on how to behave properly as good students. It has been two months. I was wondering why this particular class was hard to manage. Was it because of my wrong class management or because of the students?

(Selly, Reflective Journal 3)

The fact that Selly began to question what was actually happening with her students; why her students were hard to manage, clearly demonstrates a kind self-reflection that a teacher should constantly do when he or she finishes teaching. Drawing on Schon's (1983) model of *reflection in action,* Selly seemed to develop her critical thought by *questioning* what she experienced in the class when she was wondering why her class was hard to manage. She then *reappraised* this situation by engaging in a kind of self-assessment first as a teacher; wondering if she has done something wrong in managing her class. In other words, she did not directly blame her students by labelling them as 'naughty', 'disobedient', or lacking in discipline; she looked towards her own actions, instead. In short, what Selly did was indeed an activity that an effective teacher would do. As Ramsden (2003, p. 209) argue, "Good teachers are always evaluating themselves… for the benefit of their professional competence and their students' understanding".

Reflective practice has been widely recognised as an effective tool for teachers' professional learning and development in many parts of the world (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2006; Joseph & Heading, 2010; Kuswandono, 2013; Schön, 1983). The basic principle of this reflective practice was drawn from educational philosopher Dewey's (1933) notion regarding how we begin to reflect on a complex situation when we face that situation, and ask ourselves what needs to be done. Dewey's ideas and the idea of professional reflective practice were developed in the 1980s with the emergence of Schon's (1983) concept of 'reflection-in-action'. According to Schon (1983, p. 69), reflection-in-action is a rigorous professional process involving acknowledgement of and reflection about uncertainty and complexity in one's practice leading to "a legitimate form of professional knowing". Currently, reflective practice is seen by many teacher educators to be at the very heart of effective teacher preparation programs and the development of professional competence. Loughran (2002, p. 9) writes, "It is through the development of knowledge and understanding of the practice setting and the ability to recognise and respond to such knowledge that the reflective practitioner becomes truly responsive to the needs, issues, and concerns that are so important in shaping practice".

In the case of this study, although it was not as effective as it should be, this self-reflection enabled the novice teachers to find out the problems of their classroom teaching as well as seeking a solution to the problems. Some participants stated that they had established various effective teaching strategies to handle a lesson in the class. As previously discussed, one participant, for instance, reported that she found using a clear voice was very important to control a noisy class. Another participant recalled that instead of merely translating an unfamiliar word, the use of similar and more familiar words enabled the students to understand the meaning. And another recited the importance of teachers' physical mobility in the classroom during the lessons. These reflections are all related to teachers' pedagogical competence, which was gained by the participants during the practicum program.

With regard to *classroom management skills*, having constantly reflected on their teaching some participants believed that corporal punishment was not the right choice in dealing with student discipline. Instead, they believed that a more humanistic and personal approach could work well in the field. Demire, for example, criticised the way some incumbent teachers in his school dealt with so-called 'problem students'. It seemed to him that that most of the teachers tended to easily stigmatise the students when the students committed particular misbehaviours. According to Demire, this tendency could be seen from a phenomenon in his school when teachers blamed and punished a student who was considered to have discipline problems in their office, in front of the other teachers. They also called the students' friends to the office, investigating them, and pre-judging them to have done something wrong. As a PST, Demire could not accept this reality and he believed that this kind of corporal punishment was unacceptable:

> I just can't believe that a parent blames his own children. They should have been positively approaching these kinds of students. It's a big mistake to judge and blame the students in front of other teachers in the office. I think a corporal punishment is not an effective way to change the students. I chose to use learning approaches which are more enjoyable from conventional ways of teaching with a lot games for reading subject.
>
> (Demire, Focus Group Discussion)

It is interesting to know why Demire came up with this important point in dealing with these students. This was probably related to the theory of pedagogy that he encountered during his

teacher education in the university, but it was also likely related to the fact that he was the only participant with prior teaching experience of more than two years before his teaching practicum. Evidently, his teaching experience had enriched his understanding of what is 'the best way' to deal with students' unwanted behaviours.

Another 'wise approach' as a result of reflection was reported by participants Selly and Maysil in dealing with students' unwanted behaviours. Selly, for example, reported that after one month of doing her practicum, she started to realise that it was not a good idea at all for a teacher to get angry or being temperamental in the class by shouting at the students. She tried to change her ways in approaching the 'problem students' by looking directly in their eyes, and standing up in front of the class. Although these methods did not always work, at least she could see that some students reacted positively by reminding their classmates to keep silent and pay attention to the class.

Furthermore, data from interviews and the focus group discussion demonstrated that some participants had raised their understanding of issues to do with *personal and inter-personal skills*. The dynamic interaction they encountered during the teaching practicum had led them to understand that it is very important to establish a strong emotional attachment between students and teachers. They noticed that many problems that emerged during the learning process were likely due to the absence of an emotional bond between teachers and students. In other words, according to the participants it is important to show genuine love and care to the students. They believed that this kind of personal approach was more effective in encouraging students to perform better in learning than the more conventional approach where teachers tended to be someone emotionally distant from the students.

> I think the emotional attachment between teachers and students are already missing sir. The students don't consider the students as their kids, and the students don't think that the teachers are their parents. The missing attachment has made this phenomenon becomes worst. There is a deep gap between teachers and students. There is no more mutual respect and appreciation. There are no more teachers who love the students. It doesn't happen to us as student teachers; it does more on their own existing teachers.
>
> (Dewinta, Focus Group Discussion).

What Dewinta spelled out was related to a specific phenomenon with regard to the student-teacher relationship. Unlike students in the past who emphasised a high level of respect for their teachers by regarding them as someone to '*diGugulanditiRu'* (the *one to follow and to imitate)* as previously discussed, todays' school students seemed to have a lack of respect for their teachers, according to the experiences related by some of the participants of the study. Some students, for example, ignore a teacher's instruction during the class without feeling guilty or worried. Others have even physically attacked teachers when the teachers did something they did not expect. In Dewinta's view, this phenomenon was likely due to a very formal and rigid relationship between teachers and students. Either party (among the teachers or students) might regard their relationship as being limited between two people around a school building and no more than that. Students might consider their teachers as 'a teacher' per se, the one merely transferring knowledge to them, with no need to respect them as their 'second parent' or their 'spiritual adviser', for example. At the same time, some teachers might lack love and sympathy for their students. This has led to the absence of emotional attachment between teachers and students, as previously discussed. Therefore, some of the study participants said it was urgent and necessary to maintain a good relationship between students and teachers, for example by showing sympathy for the psychological development of their students.

In terms of psychological development, high school students are very likely to be in a fragile and vulnerable period where most of them are still in the search of their own personal identities. It is possible that those who are at this stage are being stubborn teens, mischievous, or hard to manage. The views of the participants of this study suggested that their beliefs of what constituted a good teacher included the ability to understand this unique life stage of their younger students. This kind of sympathy and understanding enables the teachers to react to the students' unwanted behaviours properly.

These findings are similar to those from other studies in different contexts (such as Johnston, 1994; Kuswandono, 2013; Sevki, 2010). In terms of personal qualities competencies, for instance, a study by Kuswandono (2013) investigated how 13 PSTs at Guru University in Indonesia understood their own identity as prospective teachers and the ways they made meaning of their learning and experiences through reflections during the practicum. It reveals

that most PSTs' sense of personal qualities as 'novice teachers' - like being caring, being patient, and showing enthusiasm - were developed quite well during the practicum. Similarly, in the case of this study, some participants mentioned the same issue of teachers needing to hold these positive attributes, such as being patient, supportive, caring, and cheerful; having self-control management; being decisive; showing discipline; engaging in positive thinking, and being wise (see also section 7.1.1 for another description).

The study participants' highlighting of these personal qualities was likely rooted from their understanding of the hardship of having strong class management in dealing with a range of students with complex characteristics. Some participants, for example, mentioned that their experiences during the practicum made them realise the importance of teachers' awareness of students' diverse needs and characteristics. For this reason, they suggested, teachers need to have extra care and patience as they might face students with extreme differences in terms of their English proficiency, regardless of the fact that they are in the same class. The students were also diverse in terms of needs and characteristics. Therefore, teachers needed to deliberately show empathy to their students' needs.

8.4. Chapter Summary

This chapter discusses and explores answers for research questions related to the question of *what ways the teaching practicum contributes to the construction of PSTs' professional identity*. Although this study is not aimed at generalisation, it appears to be an essential finding of this project that the teaching practicum plays an important context which faciliatates the (trans)formation of PST's professional identity. The findings suggest that the teaching practicum has also quite effectively functioned as a site for PSTs' professional learning. PSTs' nature of participation and engagement with members of the school community during a practicum and how they dealt with their placement school culture seemed to be important factors which affected their transformation. Their social relationship with their mentor teachers and with their students stood out as the most influencing factors in building their identity as new in-service teachers.

In the case of these participants, it was apparent that insufficient professional support was a serious issue in the PSTs' metamorphosis to becoming a novice teacher. This lack of

guidance generally affected the quality of the teaching practicum itself. It is very likely that this lack of guidance and degrees of ignorance from their school mentor teachers could negatively affect the construction of PSTs' identity. This unhappy experience, for instance, could lead PSTs to leave the teaching profession. In the long term, it could also affect the quality of the teachers as the "journey of a thousand miles" in becoming a teacher officially starts from this practicum experience (Murtiana, 2012).

Identity in this study is seen as evolving from notions of self during the practicum, and this is greatly determined by the act of belonging to a teacher community. Therefore, central in this chapter is the idea that identity involves forms of participation, negotiation, and interaction within a community. As previously discussed, the PST's participation in both teaching and non-teaching activities during the practicum, for instance, greatly influenced their professional identity construction. Their constant interaction with members of school community also helps them develop their teachers' identity. It develops in a place that lies beyond classroom interactions. In other words, teachers' identity formation is apparently constructed through complex interactions and the strength of relationships with others during the practicum. The emotional experiences in the practicum setting and the nature of feedback given in response to teaching skills all play a part in the development of PSTs' self-efficacies and hence, also of their selves and their professional identities.

Apart from exploring PSTs' mutual engagement with members of the school community during their practicum, this study has also argued that participation started long before PSTs joined their teacher education program at university. Therefore, this chapter also addressed findings in regard to participants' complex stories about their journey to becoming a novice teacher during the teaching practicum. Their non-linear process of becoming a member of the English teachers' community during the teaching practicum has also been discussed. In terms of their journey to becoming a novice English teacher, data has shown that their identity in transition is not fluid; rather it involves challenges, resistance, and negotiation. Their sense of becoming a novice teacher, for example, has undergone a situation whereby their sense of identity fluctuated and became vulnerable to external factors, such as relationships with students and school teachers, mentor teachers, school principals, as well as socio-cultural, and political factors. This finding also asserts that PST's identity making process during the

teaching practicum is contextualised and relates to a variety of significant others: people from their past, their mentor teachers, the students they teach, and the school authorities.

The end of the section discusses some participants' stated skills as part of a 'regime of competence' that they developed during their professional learning in the practicum. These included building skills in and awareness of issues such as gaining practical classroom experience; applying theory and teaching ideas; expanding awareness of how to set goals; and questioning, articulating, and reflecting on their own teaching and learning philosophies (Richards & Crookes, 1988). In addition to these skills which some participants had learned from the practicum, this study also found that the teaching practicum enabled the PSTs to see both sides of the story of being a teacher – the hard challenges and the joy the profession promises in situ.

IX. CONCLUDING THE CONVERSATION

"The conclusion of things is the good. The good is, in other words, the conclusion at which all things arrive. Let's leave doubt for tomorrow,"

(Haruki Murakami, 2011)

This final chapter summarises the narratives of this study and finalises the conversation. The chapter starts by revisiting the aims of this project and followed by summarising some of the major findings from previous chapters to consolidate the results and enable readers to get the big picture of the findings. It is then followed by a section on the overall significance of the findings. The next section discusses the limitations of this study as well as implications of the findings for the improvement of existing teaching practicum program in Riau University and elsewhere. This section is charted by addressing some suggestions for further research with similar topics and different contexts. A final remark is articulated in the last section to wrap up the discussion along the chapters of this study.

9.1. Revisiting Research Aims

As mentioned in Chapter 1, this research was to investigate the intricacies of the PSTs' journey to becoming novice teachers. Although not limited to only these aspects, their journeys were being explored in terms of their *identity in transition* from being university students to becoming novice teachers as well as the *construction of their teachers'professional identity* during a teaching practicum as a part of their teacher education program at Riau University, Indonesia. In other words, this study considered school factors during the teaching practicum as the most important context affecting the dynamics of identity transition and professional identity formation, apart from influences by larger socio, cultural, and political contexts, which lie outside of the school context.

To be more specific, this study attempted to investigate the complex stories behind each participant's decision to become an English teacher; how their biographies (both social and school biographies) played out as micro contexts of this study and affect their decisions; as well as in what ways macro contexts (the socio-cultural and political context in Indonesia)

contributed to their journeys in becoming English teachers. In terms of identity in transition, this study sought to unravel how these PSTs undergo the transition; and in what ways school factors during teaching practicum contributed to their metamorphosis into new teachers. As a part of an investigation into the construction of their professional identity, this study also aimed at specifically looking at how the PSTs conceptualise the notion of the 'PET' before and after teaching practicum. As discussed in the previous chapters, the notion of community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998), teachers identity formation as a holistic interaction between multiple parts (Olsen, 2008), as well as teachers professional identity construction (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2006; Beijaard et al., 2000; Varghese et al., 2005) have been used as some of theoretical frameworks to understand and analyse data findings.

9.2. Summary of Research Findings

As mentioned in section 1.3, this study has been developed based on three main research questions. The three preceding chapters have discussed the findings of this study as answers to the three research questions. Chapter 6 particularly answered RQ-a which demonstrated how participating teachers embarked on the English teaching profession by narrating and describing their unique stories of early participation with teaching discourses and practices. This chapter was mainly framed by Olsen's (2008) model of teachers' identity formation. The chapter also explored participants' motivation to join English teacher education institutions and to be an English teacher. The reasons varied, ranging from altruistic motives, to religious and social motivations, and to financial rewards. Although stories from each individual participant are unique, with the exception of three participants it was apparent from the findings that their choices to enter the English teaching profession had already formed from some of their early interaction with this profession through particular episodes in their childhood and schooling experiences. The roles of significant others (such as family members, school teachers, and a few 'foreigners') during these periods was also found to be significant.

Additionally, the chapter also addressed how broader macro socio, economic, cultural, and political contexts have influenced their choices and motivated or demotivated them to embark

on English teaching as a profession. The high social status of the teacher as a *guru* in Indonesia, for instance, was still found to be relevant and an important source of motivation for many participants to be (English) teachers, in addition to other externally driven factors, such as teaching being a perceived female profession, the promising 'privilege' of being an English teacher, and the consideration of financial rewards. Most participants did not consider financial rewards as their main consideration for being teachers although a few others did. If the former category decided to continue as an English teacher after the practicum, the latter decided not to choose teaching as their immediate profession after graduation. The perceived low salary of a teacher demotivated some participants to be teachers; they decided to choose more financially promising non-teaching professions.

Chapter 7 discussed findings related to part of the professional teaching identity component employed in this study: how the participating PSTs conceptualised the notion of a 'PET' and good ELT in the context of teaching English as a foreign language in Indonesia. In other words, this chapter answered RQ-c. As mentioned in Chapter 4, it is argued in this study that professional identity is defined as how these prospective English teachers understand what it means to be an English teacher; how they understand what competencies, characteristics, values, and roles they are supposed to hold and play as teachers; and prospective English teachers' notions of 'good English teaching' and the 'PET' in Indonesia (Avalos, 2007; Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009; Cattley, 2007; Cheung, 2008). Findings and discussion in Chapter 7 revealed that all the participants had some initial conceptualisation of the notion of what it means to be a *professional English teacher* and *good English teaching* in the Indonesian context, before they embarked on their teaching practicum program. It was apparent from the findings that their conceptualisations of these notions were rooted in their personal and schooling histories as well as from the influence of their current teacher education. It was also found that some of the concepts were shaped and reshaped as a result of socialisation and participation during the teaching practicum program. This indicates that the school context within the practicum program plays an important role shaping this "new teacher" identity. Yet, results also demonstrated that conceptualisations were constantly challenged and subject to reconstruction depending on time and settings in the future.

Some cultural norms and practices of how Indonesian society expects from the teaching profession had also influenced the PSTs on conceptualising the notion of "professional English teacher". This influence, for instance, was reflected from the emphasis on having a strong faith in God as an important attribute of being a good English teacher in Indonesian context. Compared to many descriptions on what constitutes good teachers predominantly conducted in the West (such as Brown & Rodgers, 2002; Korthagen, 2004; Sutherland et al., 2006; Thompson, 2008), which mainly concerned with procedural knowledge of teaching and never pointed out religiosity in their descriptions on good or professional (English) teacher, this finding is indeed unique and very context specific. This is likely to relate to the quintessentially Indonesia *Pancasila* philosophy which puts the Belief in One Devine God as the first important pillar of the nation.

Chapter 8 related to how a teaching practicum functions as a community of practice – as a site for professional learning and identity construction. This particular chapter addressed RQ-b - how the PSTs experience the transition in identity from being student-teachers to novice-teachers during the teaching practicum. The findings of this study demonstrated similar findings with other studies (Humaidi et al., 2014; Merseth et al., 2008; Trent, 2010; Varghese et al., 2005) that PSTs' journey to become a member of teachers' community during practicum is not a linear journey; it encompasses conflicts, challenges, and tensions before they were accepted to be part of the school community. It was argued in this chapter that identity was constructed through the development of sense of belonging to a teachers' community. Social relationships and social practices were considered to be essential factors in the process of becoming a teacher during the practicum (Wenger, 1998). Their sense of belonging to the teachers' community was built through participation in the form of complex engagement with existing members and with practices during the practicum. School students' acceptance for the PSTs' existence, a sense of collegiality shown by incumbent teachers, support from mentor teachers, and their participation in extra curricular activities have significantly contributed to the development of their sense of belonging to teachers community as well as their professional identity construction. It was also apparent that PSTs sometimes had to negotiate and reconcile their multi-membership identity within their social relationship, in order to become an English teacher.

Claims by participants on lessons for their professional learning were also addressed in this chapter, considering an understanding that the question 'who am I?' cannot be separated from the question 'what can I do?' (Norton, 1997). Data shows that the teaching practicum has played an important site to nurture this professional learning in which most participants have learned a lot of skills and knowledge, ranging from teaching skills to social skills. This chapter was finalised by participating teachers' voices and concerns related to improving the quality of a teaching practicum in the future.

Findings in this Chapter 8 has also enriched other studies' findings in relation to the importance of practicum for PST's vocational development, professional and institutional socialisation, and learning and professional development (see Caires & Almeida, 2005; Grootenboer, 2005; Sutherland et al., 2006). However, this study addressed special emphasis on the phenomenon of power relations issue during the PSTs' social interaction and participation in school community during teaching practicum. It was apparent from the data that in many conditions, the PSTs had to negotiate their power as PSTs with their students who frequently resisted their authority and with their mentor teachers who considered them as university students learning to teach *per se*; rather than their colleagues with relatively similar power and authority. This issue of power imbalance led to conflicts and tensions between the PSTs, their school students, and their mentor teachers, as outlined above.

Overall, it could be concluded that one's journey to become a teacher is indeed unique and complex. The uniqueness of the journey is particularly reflected in the story of one participant – Demire – in section 8.2. One's trans(formation) to be a teacher was influenced by interrelated factors, such as one's personal experience during their childhood and school biographies, their particular interaction with some significant others along these experiences (with their parents or with their school teachers), and broader socio-cultural and political context. In terms of their identity construction, it was a process of perennial evolvement and was constructed and reconstructed through their social relationship with their mentor teachers, their students, senior teachers, and school administrators. It was through this social interaction they negotiated their meaning and reconciled their other parts of identity before they could finally identify themselves as part of the school community. The findings have

indicated that social relationship and practices during their socialisation in teaching practicum do contribute to the construction of their professional identity in very tangible ways.

Drawing on Feimen-Nemser's (2001, p. 1029) proposition concerning the professional identity of teachers, the findings reflect the notion that identity formation is a complex and ongoing process in which they are "combining parts of their past, including their own experiences in school and in teacher preparation, with pieces of the present in their current school context". In the case of this study, the significant role played by schooling experience in the student teachers' past affecting professional identity is evident in constructing notions of the *professional English teacher* and *good English teaching*. This finding confirms similar findings from other studies in this area of research (e.g. Borg, 2004; Britzman, 2003; Lortie, 1975; Tyminski & Mewborn, 2006).

9.3. Implications of Study

The results of this study could have implications for the content structure of the present curriculum for English teacher education in Indonesia, as well as for the reformation of the existing teaching practicum program at Riau University. In terms of curriculum structure, the findings indicate that there is a need for the inclusion of teaching selves into the PSTs education. Issues to do with the construction of teachers' identity have so far been excluded from the existing curriculum, as they tend to focus more on preparing PSTs in 'how to act' and not 'how to be'. In fact, this study argues that the process of becoming a teacher does not only deal with understanding technical and mechanical domains, such as *what and how to teach, but also why and who does teaching.* In other words, it should involve more than the development of competences in various teaching methodologies and practical strategies.

This is not to suggest that professional criteria or standards of competencies in teaching are not important. Rather, it is to argue that it would be more helpful for PSTs to understand and appreciate the value of understanding themselves in their professional learning if *tangible* aspects of teaching (such as the ability to design lesson plans, the preparing of teaching materials, teaching skills, and classroom management) are combined with *intangible* aspects of professional learning. The longer students talked about themselves as teachers, the more

intricate, interconnected, and even tangled their responses became. In other words, the process of teaching is at once so complicated and deep because it involves aspect of the self.

Identity is malleable and sensitive to social contexts; therefore it is subject to intervention, as it is created by individuals and others along the process. Therefore, a systematic intervention through curriculum and pedagogy is important. In the context of this study, intervention could come through the restructuring of curriculum content by which pre-service teachers' professional identity would be well supported and nurtured. In practice, this pedagogy of identity construction during the teacher education program can be assessed, for instance, by promoting a systematic reflective practice during the teachers' education program. Such reflective practice is expected to enable PSTs to change their initial beliefs that might involve naive and simplistic views of teaching, such as the belief that teaching is mainly for transmitting knowledge (Pajares, 1992 as cited in Fung, 2005).

The basic idea of this *reflective practice* is to encourage the PSTs to be able to theorise their own accounts of practices and experiences during teacher education and how they might use these reflections for their own professional learning (Schön, 1983; Smyth, 1993). It is more than thinking about the nuts and bolts of teaching; it encompasses evaluating the *processes* of teaching and learning, and questioning *why* we do something rather than *how*. To be more specific, in addition to reflecting in cognitive ways, I would recommend that the affective dimensions of teaching be taken into consideration more seriously than is currently the case. PSTs should be encouraged and supported in the identification of their motivations for teaching; of their feelings, moods and emotions during the teaching experience; and how to reflect on this experience with other members of the school community, such as their peers, university advisors, mentor teachers and even perhaps the students in the practicum classes they are teaching.

Additionally, more attention needs to be paid to how to develop the PSTs' sense of themselves as teachers in classrooms by creating a mode of interaction which is dialogic (as opposed to monologic) and where agency is valued. Agency refers to a sense of awareness by each individual PST that their actions or performances during their teacher education would have implications on others in particular social settings. This type of interaction could be obtained by making sure that there are no power-relation issues between mentor teachers and

practicing teachers, for instance; or by reminding the PSTs during their teachers' education program that every interaction they have is meaningful and that their behaviour has consequences for their teaching and learning process.

This study also implies the need for the empowering of mentoring and supervision quality in the existing teaching practicum program at Riau University. Although this study indicated that some participants learned a great deal during the teaching practicum and claimed to have obtained various skills and knowledge, it was also found that the majority of participants did not really receive sufficient support and guidance from their mentor teachers and their university advisors. In fact, the nature of supervision and interaction with their mentor teachers and university supervising lecturer played major factors which affected these PSTs identity transition and construction of professional identity. For the future time, I would suggest that it is important to have a formalisation of the process of being a mentor teacher whereby mentors get a Graduate Certificate in mentoring by undertaking pre-training and post-training either side of hosting a student teacher.

Several studies conducted in different contexts have indicated that the essence of a successful teaching practicum lies in effective mentor-student teacher relationships or the quality of supervision and mentoring during the teaching practicum (See Dinham, 2008; McDonald, 2004; Pungur, 2007). It could be said that this mentor teacher plays the most influential significant other in supporting or hindering the PSTs' journey of becoming an English teacher during the teaching practicum.

Considering the importance of having a professional mentor, it is now crucial to pay special attention to how a mentor teacher is selected. Pungur (2007) states that a mentor teacher is supposed to be carefully selected by a school coordinator by considering experience, skills, and qualifications. Yet, there are no standardised and specific requirements for being a mentor teacher or a university supervising lecturer in the teaching practicum program at Riau University, Indonesia. The guidance book of the teaching practicum at Riau University, for instance, only mentions general criteria for being a university supervising lecturer, such as having strong commitment and integrity or being physically able to do the duties required during a practicum.

Regarding the need for professional support from mentor teachers, the findings of this study also imply that mentor teachers and supervising lecturers need to be financially rewarded. It is apparent from the findings that a lack of support often originated from the voluntary nature of the mentoring system in which the mentoring was not well paid. The same story happened in the case of supervising lecturers. This finding was not really surprising; as a consequence, some supervising lecturers never attended schools to supervise the practicing students. A reasonable reward and appreciation system for mentoring and supervision during a practicum can improve professional commitment.

9.4. Limitations of the Study

It is important to acknowledge that this present study suffers from some limitations. *Firstly*, it was limited in terms of methodological choices. While the findings suggested important evidence about the nature of becoming an English teacher, I am aware that a more detailed understanding of the complex process of constructing professional identity could be gained through a longitudinal study. This is because teachers' identity entails understanding of the interconnection of a complex system of personal and social dimensions, which are not easy to unravel in a short period of time. Therefore, a longitudinal study with a longer time framework would work effectively in this kind of research.

From the methodological perspective, the data analysis focused more on themes emerging from the data rather than descriptions for each case of individual participants and this could be considered a limitation of this study. Despite the data analysis resulting in the general clear framework of this finding, it failed to provide a deep analysis of each individual. Consequently, participants' complete stories in their journey to become a teacher and their complex accounts of professional identity construction were not specifically addressed. This could be a basis for future research on similar topic to address this limitatation.

Secondly, with limited numbers of research participants this study discovered how PSTs' constructed their professional identities by exploring their unique narratives in entering the teacher education program and examining complex stories about their journeys to becoming

members of the school community during the practicum. However, it was unable to integrate the perceptions of significant others during the practicum, such as senior incumbent teachers, mentor teachers and university supervisors. Investigating this issue from multiple perspectives could have provided a more comprehensive view of the connection between personal and social identity, which is argued in this study to be central in understanding the meaning of becoming a teacher.

Furthermore, there are also shortcomings deriving from the way in which the data was collected. Although the study employed a multi-method approach to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the topic investigated, the data gathered was mostly based on participants' stories either through interviews, reflective journals, or the focus group discussion. The study did not collect data direct from day to day school practices with a real time atmosphere, such as spontaneous conversations with research participants, classroom observations, school meetings or feedback sessions with participants' mentor teachers and supervisors.

Finally, the study was also limited in terms of its potential scope. Although I am aware of the need to focus research interests within a specific and manageable scope, the professional identity of teachers is not restricted in construction and development to only classroom and school interactions. The findings in this study has indicated that PSTs' participation and interaction in a teaching community during the practicum, their beliefs about and perceptions of the professional English teacher went beyond the borders of the classroom. This implies that it is necessary for a thorough and well-structured study which addresses and discusses the philosophical, ideological or political dimensions of the teacher identity to enrich current literature. This is because various factors were considered essential parts of the PSTs' understanding of the meaning of the process of becoming a teacher. Yet, rather than weakening the true value of the findings of this study, these limitations suggest new research paths in the future. To put this limitation in Murakami's (2011, p. 172) words, "Let's leave doubt for tomorrow".

9.5. Suggestions for Further Research

Some limitations of this study as mentioned above could make a good case for conducting similar research with different contexts in future. Regarding the methodological limitations, I would suggest that future research on the construction of teachers' professional identity needs to be conducted, through a longitudinal approach. This is based on the understanding that identity is constantly evolving as a result of one's interactions with various people in different settings. A longer study would enable the capture of this constant evolution more comprehensively. A study starting before PSTs enter their teacher education program and lasting through to their first year of professional teaching at schools would be best to explore the intricacies of the construction of teachers' professional identity construction. In the context of PSTs' education, what really matters is not the short-term objective (whether the PSTs have learned anything by the end of the semester) but rather the long-term objective focusing on their professional identities – do they actually seek jobs as teachers after graduation? Are they sure enough of themselves as teachers to survive the initial challenges of real jobs (Danielewicz, 2001)? Additionally, having students submit more journal entries might also be strengthening the richness of data and provide further avenue for data exploration.

Further studies should also take into account the stories of other stakeholders during the practicum, such as mentor teachers and university supervisors as participants relevant to research investigating this issue. The involvement of mentor teachers and university advisors, for instance, would integrate the exploration from *'both sides of the teachers' journey'*. The perceptions of PSTs, for example, could be then compared and contrasted with the views of supervisors, senior teachers, school administrators or even students. This wider scope could contribute to consolidating a multivariate perspective in the hope of understanding the role of a teacher community in forming profesional identity. Additionally, employing a mixed methods approach combining qualitative and quantitative data would result in further powerful studies with the potential to fill a gap in the research. For example, the widely used Twenty Statement Test (TST) protocol which was developed to operationalise key concepts from the symbolic interactionist perspective of Kuhn and McPhatland (1954) can be

considered one of the relevant quantitative measurements employed in research on the construction of teachers' identity.

In addition to methodological suggestions, unlike this present study exploring the construction of the PSTs' professional identity, future research can turn attention to this issue from the perspectives of *in-service teachers*. This is because teachers' identity construction is a continuum; a production which evolves over time. Future studies can examine the in-service teachers' construction of identity in relation to current educational policies in Indonesia. One example of such a study might look at how teachers' identities are shaped and reshaped by current reforms as well as people's expectations of Indonesian teachers' status and well-being. Investigating how these identities are challenged and reconstructed amidst the employment of high stakes national testing is another example of a future study in this area. Comparing PSTs and in-service teachers and how their identities are constructed as responses to educational policies might also constitute a third example of a future study in this area.

9.6. Final Remarks

This project has been the most challenging academic journey I have ever taken during my professional career. The challenge does not only derive from the complex nature of a PhD journey, but also from my fresh encounter with this research topic. Starting this journey with a completely different research proposal created a serious challenge. Yet, I took the challenge as an opportunity to understand a new world of research in the field of education – an area which I have never thought to be that important before I embarked on my PhD study at Monash University. Having travelled on this journey for more than three years, I found that researching teachers' identity brought me to a completely different understanding about teaching and learning. What is important about teaching is that it is not merely a way of acting or behaving, but it is also *a state of being* (Danielewicz, 2001). Therefore any endeavour to improve the quality of education must go beyond tangible issues, such as curriculum reforms, teaching facilities, remuneration, and teachers' professional training and development. It must also take into account intangible issues, such as how someone becomes a teacher, as an important concern. My study is conducted under the spirit of this new paradigm.

Regardless of some limitations mentioned above, this study found some interrelated influential elements within the process of becoming a teacher. As a teacher educator, these findings have made me realise that a good teacher is not born naturally; she or he is the product of complex and interconnected factors along a journey to becoming a teacher. It is a result of constant dialogue, friction and negotiation between PSTs and their social relationships when interacting during their learning continuum. Therefore, this study reminds me that every related party - such as policy makers, curriculum developers, teachers' educators, school administrators, mentor teachers, and society in general – should collaborate in such a way as to ensure the process of educating and generating new, skillful, and committed teachers. What form this collaboration might take, and the process by which this collaboration takes place, are subjects to put into future research endeavours.

Last but not least, I hope that this study brings new insight into the optimatisation of our understanding of the construction of teacher identity in the Indonesian context. This understanding could later be used as a point of departure to provide support for PSTs to construct their identities during teacher education and during their practicum. This study also has the potential to fill the gap in the literature within ELT research in Indonesia, which so far has tended to focus on issues of methodology improvement, curriculum implementation and material development. This is considered important for the country's efforts to reform education, as Palmer (1998), with whom I opened this thesis, reminds that educators and policy makers in Indonesia can not forget a simple truth: that reform will never be achieved by renewing policies, restructuring schools, rewriting curricula, and revising texts if society continues to demean and ignore the vital human resource called the teacher on whom so much depends.

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Appendices

Appendix 1. Number of Teachers by Academic Qualification and Status in Indonesia (2006)

Level of School-ing	Academic Qualification							Total
	<= Senior Sec	D1	D2	D3	Bachelor	Master Degree	PhD	
Kindergarden	**110,742**	**9,440**	**32,382**	**3,097**	**18,652**	**115**	**1**	**174,429**
Civil servant	19,977	770	5,955	336	5,134	63	-	32,235
Non civil servant	90,765	8,670	26,427	2,761	13,518	52	1	142,194
Primary School	**417,389**	**11,529**	**589,034**	**23,841**	**207,074**	**1,161**	**4**	**1,250,032**
Civil servant	266,331	7,213	505,119	15,328	152,090	1,077	2	947,160
Non civil servant	151,058	4,316	83,915	8,513	54,984	84	2	302,872
Junior Second.	**39,133**	**36,202**	**37,446**	**72,822**	**299,319**	**3,277**	**7**	**488,206**
Civil servant	16,060	29,327	25,785	51,441	164,388	2,870	4	289,875
Non civil servant	23,073	6,875	11,661	21,381	134,931	407	3	198,331
Special Need	**1,666**	**238**	**2,883**	**803**	**4,514**	**50**	**-**	**10,154**
Civil servant	577	68	1,839	505	2,644	42	-	5,675
Non civil servant	1,089	170	1,044	298	1,870	8	-	4,479
Senior Second	**6,301**	**1,200**	**4,082**	**22,964**	**189,753**	**3,106**	**27**	**227,433**
Civil servant	2,056	345	2,071	13,853	101,752	2,436	5	122,518
Non civil servant	4,245	855	2,011	9,111	88,001	670	22	104,915
Voc. School	**5,172**	**1,341**	**2,842**	**23,942**	**120,764**	**1,691**	**9**	**155,761**
Civil servant	900	230	834	9,429	40,282	1,054	3	52,732
Non civil servant	4,272	1,111	2,008	14,513	80,482	637	6	103,029
Primary Islamic Islamic School	**94,755**	**23,580**	**45,933**	**9,086**	**31,312**	**108**	**-**	**204,774**
Civil servant	4,478	4,480	18,267	2,358	6,997	45	-	36,625
Non civil servant	90,277	19,100	27,666	6,728	24,315	63	-	168,149

Appendix 2. Grids for Portfolio Assessment

	ELEMENT	ONLY CERTIFIED COPIES TO BE ATTACHED AS EVIDENCE	MAXIMUM SCORE
1.	Academic qualifications	Diplomas and degrees	525
2.	Education courses and training	Certificates or letters	200
3.	Teaching experience	Appointment notices	160
4.	Lesson planning and presentation:		160
	a. Lesson planning	Five best lesson plans (40 max points)	
	b. Lesson presentation	A principal/supervisor's assessment on the form provided (in a sealed envelope) (max 120pts)	
5.	Appraisal by superior and supervisor	A principal/supervisor's assessment on the form provided (in a sealed envelope)	50
6.	Academic achievements:		160
	a. Competitions	Certificates awarded	
	b. Peer training	Letters of appointment as instructor/coach/ tutor	
	c. Coaching students	Certificates received by students and letters of appointment	
7.	Professional development works:		85
	a. Writing	Photocopy of front page of articles, books, modules, etc produced by teacher	
	b. Research	Physical proof of class action research	
	c. Book reviewer/national exam developer	Letter of appointment, thanks, commendation	
	d. Learning media and resources	Physical proof – copies, letter from principal	
	e. Scientific or art works relevant to teaching	Copies or letters from the principal	
8.	Participation in scientific forums	Certificates or papers	62
9.	Experience in education and social organizations:		48
	a. Organizational experience	Letters of appointment or proof from officials	
	b. Supplemental tasks	Letters of appointment or proof from officials	
10.	Relevant recognition and awards in education		50
	a. Awards	Certificates, letters of commendation	
	b. Assignment in special areas	Letters of assignment	
	PASS = 850 marks		1500

Source: Compiled from the Manual for Portfolio preparation for in-service Teacher Certification, Directorate General of Higher Education, 2007

Appendix 3: Curriculum Structure of English Education Department of Riau University.

No	Kode	Nama Mata Kuliah	SKS	Semester								
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Prasyarat
Mata Kuliah Umum (MKU)												
1	UXN4201	Pendidikan Agama Islam	2		√							-
	UXN4202	Pendidikan Agama Katolik										-
	UXN4203	Pendidikan Agama Protestan										-
	UXN4204	Pendidikan Agama Budha										-
	UXN4205	Pendidikan Agama Hindu										-
	UXN4206	Pendidikan Agama Khong Hu Cu										-
2	UXN4107	Pendidikan Pancasila	2	√								-
3	UXN4208	Pendidikan Kewarganegaraan	2		√							-
4	UXN4109	Bahasa Indonesia	2	√								-
5	UXN4011	KKN	4								√	
Mata Kuliah Umum Fakultas (MKUF)												
1	KPA4101	Pendidikan Budaya Melayu	2	√								
2	KPA4202	Pendidikan Lingkungan	2		√							
JUMLAH			**16**									
Mata Kuliah Dasar Kependidikan (MKDK)												

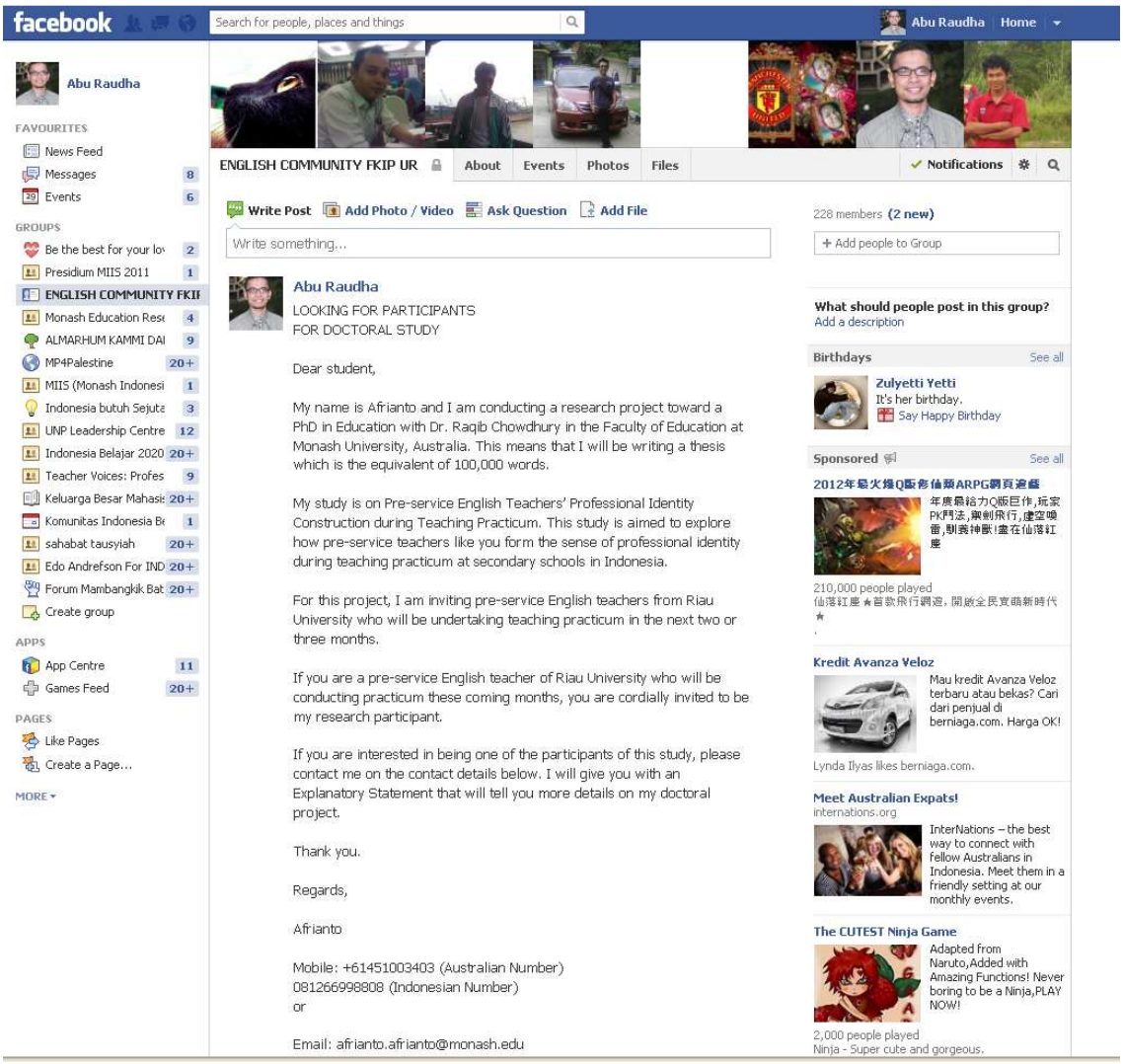
8	KPA4103	Landasan Pendidikan	2	√								-
9	KPA4202	Perkembangan Peserta didik	2		√							-
10	KPA4106	Bimbingan dan Konseling	2			√						-
11	KPA4205	Pengelolaan Pendidikan	2		√							-
12	KPA4207	Pengembangan Profesi Guru	2				√					-
JUMLAH			**10**									
Mata Kuliah Keterampilan Proses Pembelajaran (MKKPP)												
1	KPR4101	Telaah Kurikulum dan Perenc. Pemb. Bahasa Inggris	3					√				KPR4115, KPR4118, KPR4121, KPR4225
2	KPR4202	Strategi Pembelajaran Bahasa Inggris	2				√					KPR4115, KPR4118, KPR4121, KPR4225
3	KPR4103	Media Pembelajaran Bahasa Inggris	2			√						-
4	KPR4204	Penilaian Pembelajaran Bahasa Inggris	2				√					KPR4115, KPR4118, KPR4121, KPR4225
5	KPR4205	Praktik Pengajaran Bahasa Inggris	2						√			KPR4101
6	KPA4108	Magang (PLP)	4							√		KPA4108
JUMLAH			**15**									
Mata Kuliah Pengembangan Pendidikan (MKPP)												
1	KPR4209	Inovasi Pendidikan	2						√			KPR4101 &KPR4102
2	KPR4210	Penelitian Pendidian	2						√			KPR4111
3	KPR4111	Statistik Pendidikan	2					√				-

4	KPR4212	Skripsi	6								√	KPR4150
JUMLAH			**12**									
Mata Kuliah Bidang Keahlian (MKBK)												
	English Language Skills (43 SKS)											
13	KPR4113	Listening Comprehension I	2	√								-
14	KPR4214	Listening Comprihension II	2		√							KPR4113
15	KPR4115	Listening Comprihension III	2			√						KPR4214
16	KPR4116	Speaking I	2	√								-
17	KPR4217	Speaking II	2		√							KPR4116
18	KPR4118	Speaking III	3			√						KPR4217
19	KPR4119	Reading Comprehension I	2	√								-
20	KPR4220	Reading Comprehension II	2		√							KPR4119
21	KPR4121	Reading Comprehension III	3			√						KPR4220
22	KPR4222	Extensive Reading	2				√					KPR4121 &KPR4222
23	KPR4223	Writing I	2		√							-
24	KPR4124	Writing II	2			√						KPR4124
25	KPR4225	Writing III	3				√					KPR4225
26	KPR4126	Academic Reading and Writing	3					√				KPR4121 KPR4222
27	KPR4127	Structure I	3	√								-
28	KPR4127	Structure II	3		√							KPR4127
29	KPR4129	Structure III	3			√						KPR4127

30	KPR4130	Vocabulary	2	√								-
31	KPR4131	Pronunciation	2	√								-
	English Linguistics (20 SKS)											
32	KPR4132	Introduction to Linguistics	2			√						KPR4222
33	KPR4233	English Phonology	2				√					KPR4132
34	KPR4234	Morphology	2				√					KPR4132
35	KPR4135	English Syntax	2					√				KPR4132
36	KPR4136	Sociolinguistics	2					√				KPR4132
37	KPR4237	Psycholinguistics	2						√			KPR4132
38	KPR4238	Semantics	2				√					KPR4132
39	KPR4139	Grammar	2					√				KPR4129
40	KPR4140	Translation I	2					√				KPR4129
41	KPR4241	Translation II	2						√			KPR4140
	English Literature (14 SKS)											
42	KPR4142	Introduction to Literature	2			√						KPR4220
43	KPR4243	Cross Culture Understanding	2				√					KPR4121
44	KPR4244	Drama	2						√			KPR4142
45	KPR4245	Poetry	2				√					KPR4142
46	KPR4146	Prose	2					√				KPR4142
47	KPR4247	Error Analysis	2						√			KPR4139
48	KPR4148	Critical Essay	2						√			KPR4126
	English Language Teaching (2 SKS)											

49	KPR4249	TEFL	**2**						√			KPR4101
	Research Componetns (2 SKS)											
JUMLAH			**81**									
Mata Kuliah Bidang Keahlian (MKBK) Pilihan												
50	KPR4250	ELT Mangement	2						√			KPR4101
51	KPR4151	English for Tourism	2							√		KPR4118
52	KPR4152	Standardized English Test Preparation	2							√		KPR4129
53	KPR4153	English for Interpreting	2							√		KPR4241
54	KPR4154	English for Business and Communication	2					√				KPR4125
55	KPR4255	Public Speaking	2							√		KPR4118
56	KPR4156	English for Journalism	2							√		KPR4126
57	KPR4257	Teaching English for Young Learners	2							√		KPR4249
58	KPR4258	Issues in ELT	2								√	KPR4210
59	KPR4259	Creative writing	2								√	KPR4146
JUMLAH			20									

Appendix 4: Notice for Recruiting Participants



ENGLISH COMMUNITY FKIP UR

Abu Raudha

LOOKING FOR PARTICIPANTS
FOR DOCTORAL STUDY

Dear student,

My name is Afrianto and I am conducting a research project toward a PhD in Education with Dr. Raqib Chowdhury in the Faculty of Education at Monash University, Australia. This means that I will be writing a thesis which is the equivalent of 100,000 words.

My study is on Pre-service English Teachers' Professional Identity Construction during Teaching Practicum. This study is aimed to explore how pre-service teachers like you form the sense of professional identity during teaching practicum at secondary schools in Indonesia.

For this project, I am inviting pre-service English teachers from Riau University who will be undertaking teaching practicum in the next two or three months.

If you are a pre-service English teacher of Riau University who will be conducting practicum these coming months, you are cordially invited to be my research participant.

If you are interested in being one of the participants of this study, please contact me on the contact details below. I will give you with an Explanatory Statement that will tell you more details on my doctoral project.

Thank you.

Regards,

Afrianto

Mobile: +61451003403 (Australian Number)
081266998808 (Indonesian Number)
or

Email: afrianto.afrianto@monash.edu

Appendix 5: Explanatory Statement

MONASH University
Education

Explanatory Statement

August 6th, 2012

Constructing Professional Identities through Teaching Practicum: An Indonesian Case Study of Pre-service English Teachers

This information sheet is for you to keep.

My name is Afrianto and I am conducting a research project with Dr. Raqib Chowdhury in the Faculty of Education, towards a PhD in Education at Monash University. This means that I will be writing a thesis which is the equivalent of 100,000 words. In addition, I am now on study leave and will have no direct contact with you in the classroom whatsoever at any point in the future

You are invited to take part in this study. Please read this Explanatory Statement in full before making a decision.

Why were you chosen for this research?

For this project, I am inviting preservice English teachers from Riau University who will be undertaking teaching practicum.

The aim/purpose of the research

The aim of this study is to explore the complexities of professional identity construction of pre-service English teachers during teaching practicum at secondary schools in the Indonesian context.

I am conducting this research to find out:

a. How pre-service English teachers experience the transition from student teachers to novice teachers during teaching practicum.
b. In what way teaching practicum contributes to the construction of pre-service English teachers' professional identities.
c. How participants describe the notion of 'good English teaching' and 'professional English teacher' before and after teaching practicum. Are there any changes in their perception prior to and after the teaching practicum?

d. How participants describe themselves relational to the professional teachers' pedagogical competence description prescribed by the teachers' law in Indonesia before and after teaching practicum.

Possible benefits

There will be no direct benefits for the people who take part in this research project.

This research will investigate how pre-service English teachers experience the transition from student teachers towards novice teachers with professional identity. The findings may contribute to the future of preservice English teacher education in Indonesia, especially in terms of how one becomes a teacher.

What does the research involve?

The study will be using four methods of data collection: in-depth interviews, a small survey, a focus group discussion and guided reflective journals. The interviews and focus group discussion will be audiotaped.

How much time will the research take?

The survey is expected to be completed in about 10 minutes; in-depth interviews will be for about 30 minutes, focus group discussion will be around 30 minutes, and reflective journals will take about 15 minutes for each fortnightly entry. Therefore the total hours the participants may spend for the whole process of data collection is approximately three hours fifty minutes on thirteen separate sessions.

Inconvenience/discomfort

There is no potential discomfort beyond everyday life experience resulting from being participants of this study. Your willingness to participate or not participate in the research will in no way be related to any assessments or affect on the results of your study or your future career.

Payment

There is no payment made for being participants of this study.

You can withdraw from the research

Being in this study is voluntary and you are under no obligation to consent to participation. You do not need to attempt to please anyone by your engagement with this research. However, if you do consent to participate, you may withdraw from further participation at any stage but you will only be able to withdraw data prior to your approval of the interview and focus group discussion transcripts.

For the small survey, you do not need to answer all the questions, however once you have mailed the survey/submitted your response, you cannot withdraw your answers.

Confidentiality

The names of schools and all participants will be kept confidential and not mentioned in any publications. Anonymity will be used when data come for published.

Storage of data

Data collected will be stored in accordance with Monash University regulations, kept on University premises, in a locked filing cabinet for 5 years. A report of the study may be submitted for publication, but individual participants will not be identifiable in such a report.

Use of data for other purposes

Data may be used to write journal papers and a thesis but will not include the name of any school or teachers or materials that could identify an individual. But please keep in mind that it is sometimes impossible to make an absolute guarantee of confidentiality/anonymity.

Results

If you would like to be informed of the aggregate research finding, please contact Afrianto [redacted]. The findings are accessible for one year.

If you would like to contact the researchers about any aspect of this study, please contact the Chief Investigator:	If you have a complaint concerning the manner in which this research (**CF12/2297 - 2012001232**) is being conducted, please contact:
Dr. Raqib Chowdhury [redacted] [redacted]	Desri Maria Sumbayak, S.S., M.Hum., M.Ed **English Education Department of Riau University** Kampus Bina Widya Simpang Baru Panam Pekanbaru Riau, Indonesia [redacted]

Thank you.

Afrianto

Appendix 6. Consents Forms

MONASH University
Education

Consent Form - *for pre-service English teachers*

Title:

Constructing Professional Identities through Teaching Practicum: An Indonesian Case Study of Pre-service English Teachers

NOTE: This consent form will remain with the Monash University researcher for their records.

I understand I have been asked to take part in the Monash University research project specified above. I have had the project explained to me, and I have read the Explanatory Statement, which I keep for my records.

I understand that:	YES	NO
- I will be asked to be interviewed by the researcher	☐	☐
- unless I otherwise inform the researcher before the interview I agree to allow the interview to be audio-taped and/or video-taped	☐	☐
- I will be asked to complete a survey asking me about *my perceived sense of competence relation to professional teachers competency standards in Indonesia*	☐	☐
- I will be asked to write fortnightly guided reflective journals reflecting my experiences during teaching practicum	☐	☐
- I will be asked to take part in a focus group of up to *5* people	☐	☐

and

I understand that my participation is voluntary, that I can choose not to participate in part or all of the project, and that I can withdraw at any stage of the project without being penalised or disadvantaged in any way.

and

I understand that any data that the researcher extracts from the interview / focus group / questionnaire / survey for use in reports or published findings will not, under any circumstances, contain names or identifying characteristics without my signed consent below.

and/or

I understand that I will be given a transcript of data concerning me for my approval before it is included in the write up of the research.

and/or

I understand that I may ask at any time/prior to publication/ prior to (insert date) / prior to my giving final consent for my data to be withdrawn from the project

and/or

I understand that no information I have provided that could lead to the identification of any other individual will be disclosed in any reports on the project, or to any other party

and

I understand that data from the *interview / focus group /transcript / audio recording / reflective journals* will be kept in secure storage and accessible to the research team. I also understand that the data will be destroyed after a 5 year period unless I consent to it being used in future research.

and

I do/do not give permission to be identified by name/by a pseudonym/ understand I will remain anonymous at all times in any reports or publications from the project.

Participant's name: _____

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Appendix 7: Participants' Complete Demographic Profiles

Name	Sex	Age	School Placement			Working Experience	
			Location	Status	Location Categories	Teaching	Length
Selly	F	21	SMP 8 Pekanbaru	Public	Urban	Yes	1 year
Rike	F	22	SMP 8 Pekanbaru	Public	Urban	No	NA
Ayi	F	21	SMP 9 Pekanbaru	Public	Urban	Yes	1 year
Arel	M	21	SMK Taruna Pekanbaru	Private	Urban	Yes	6 months
Dewinta	F	23	SMA 10 Pekanbaru	Public	Urban	Yes	2 years
Nisa	F	20	SMA 10 Pekanbaru	Public	Urban	No	NA
Elvina	F	21	SMP 8 Pekanbaru	Public	Urban	No	NA
Dodi	M	21	SMP 1 Tapung Kampar	Public	Rural	No	NA
Maysil	F	20	SMP 9 Pekanbaru	Public	Urban	No	NA
Demire	M	23	SMA Muhammadiah Pekanbaru	Private	Urban	Yes	2 years

Appendix 8: Personal Information Form

Full Name:

Contact Numbers:

Email:

Age:

Years of Teaching Experience (if applicable):

Where:

1. ……..
2. …….....
3. ……..

Other working experience (if applicable):

Where and as:

1. ……..
2. ……..
3. ……..

Appendix 9: Pre-Practicum Interview Questions (Prompts)

1. Why did you decide to study English Education at Riau University?

2. Why do you want to be an English teacher?

2.1. Is there any specific experience in your childhood that inspires you to be an English teacher?

2.2. Is there any specific experience during you schooling that inspires you to be an English teacher

3. How do you see the future of English teachers in Indonesia?

4. In your opinion, how do you define 'good English teaching' in the context of English as a foreign language in Indonesia?

5. How do you define a "professional English teacher"? What characteristics do you think they should have?

6. What were your expectations when you first started teaching practicum?

7. Do you believe that the practicum will meet your expectations? How?

Appendix 10: Post-Practicum Interview questions (prompts):

1. How do you feel after finishing your teaching practicum program? Why?
2. Are you statified or dissapointed with your teaching practicum? Why
3. Did you find what you expected from the practicum experience?
4. Can you tell me what kind of roles did you play as a student teacher during teaching practicum program?
5. Having experienced as a student teacher in the teaching practicum, what is now your definition on a teacher? What is a teacher?
6. Can you tell me again, how do you define a good/professional English teacher?.
7. Do you think that teaching practicum has changed your views on a good english teaching in the context of English as a foreign language in Indonesia.
8. Do you think that that teaching practicum has changed your views on the characteristics of professional english teacher?
9. After doing your practicum, do you think that you keep dreaming to be a professional English teacher?
   - **9.1.** Is there any specific experience in your teaching practicum that stregthen your dream to an English teacher?
   - **9.2.** Is there any specific experience during your teaching practicum that discourage you to be an English teacher
10. What do you think the most important aspect that you learn well during your teaching practicum?
11. One last question, regarding teachers' law. Do you think that the teachers law has lead you think of being a teacher as your profession?
12. Do you think that this teacher law can guarantee the improvement of English language teaching in the future?

Appendix 11: Guided Reflective Journals – Pro Forma

Student's Name :

Date :

Week :

Direction:

Please write as much as you can on the following sections reflecting your current teaching practicum experiences. Your writings could focus on, but are not limited to, the following guided questions.

1. In general, how do you feel about the practicum in the past two weeks? Is there anything interesting you learnt or experienced?
2. What kind of processes, events, acts, persons, contexts, institutions which seemed to be influential for the development of your sense of becoming an English teacher in the past two

weeks?
3. What are your expectations from your teaching practicum in the next two weeks?
4. Do you have any additional comments? Feel free to say it here!

Pekanbaru, ……. 2012

Appendix 12: Protocols for Focus Group Discussion

Topics for focus group discussion will be based on particular of interest themes which will emerge from individual interviews; therefore I cannot predict them yet at this stage. However, the topics for focus group discussion might align with these three general questions:

1. What is the most important experience that you found during your practicum experience which you think was important to develop your sense of being an English teacher? Why is it important?

2. What kind of process, events, acts, persons, contexts, institutions which seemed influential for the development of your understanding on the notion of good English teacher and professional English teacher in the last practicum?

3. Do you think that the teaching practicum has changed your views on the notion of ‘good English teaching’ and ‘professional English teacher’? How?

Appendix 13: List of Questions for Focus Group Discussion

1. Would you say you are satisfied with the current situation of the teaching program in Riau University, with the way things are going on?
2. (If so) What are you satisfied about? Why is that?
3. Are there things you are dissatisfied with, that you would like to see changed?
4. (If so) What are they? Why is that? How should they change? What kinds of things would you like to see happen?
5. How about this particular aspect (the role of your mentor teacher). What do you think about that?
6. Do you think that the role of your mentor teacher stregthen your dreams to be a teacher? Why?
7. How about the role of your university supervising teacher?
8. Some people have said that one important lesson you get during your teaching practicum is that the practicum has improved your understanding on how to manage a class well. Do you agree with that?
9. Some people in the individual interview have said that one experience that has strengthened you sense of being a teacher during teaching practicum is your students' respect and approval to you as their teacher, like they way they respect you, the way they greet you as 'bapak/ibu', or when they present you a bunch of flower in the teachers day celebration. Do you agree with that?
10. Some of you have reported that your sense of being a teacher has grown up well during the teaching practicum. Do you agree with that?
11. Do you think that the term of a 'good teacher' is a syonymous of a 'professonal teacher'? Why?
12. Some of you said that one of the main roles of a teacher is a motivator. What do you think of this view?
13. Do you still have some more views on what roles should a good teacher plays?
14. Some of you said that a professional english teacher doesn't have to be someone with a fluent English speaking ability. Do you agree with that?
15. Some of you said that teachers certification program doesn't guarantee the improvement of Indonesian education quality. What do you think?

Appendix 14: Prodi Paling Diminati di Universitas Riau (List of Most Popular Departments Based on University Entrance Test of Riau University – 2012)

Prodi Paling Diminati di Universitas Riau
Seleksi Nasional Masuk Perguruan Tinggi (2012)

No	NAMA PRODI	DT	PE	KEL
1	Manajemen	80	2426	IPS
2	Akuntansi	144	2409	IPS
3	Pend. Biologi	30	1852	IPA
4	Pend. Dokter	24	1772	IPA
5	Ilmu Pemerintahan	36	1514	IPS
6	Pgsd	45	1411	IPS
7	Pend. Bhs. Inggris	30	1377	IPS
8	Ilmu Komunikasi	36	1295	IPS
9	Ilmu Hukum	135	1210	IPS
10	Ilmu Administrasi Negara	36	1195	IPS
11	Pend. Matematika	30	1138	IPA
12	Pend. Bahasa, Sastra Indoneia & Daerah	30	1128	IPS
13	Ilmu Keperawatan	24	1117	IPA
14	Teknik Sipil	32	958	IPA
15	Pend. Kimia	30	819	IPA
16	Sosial Ekonomi Pertanian (Agribisnis)	36	804	IPA
17	Ekonomi Pembangunan	256	767	IPS
18	Pend. Ekonomi	30	728	IPS
19	Hubungan Internasional	36	715	IPS
20	Teknik Mesin	24	679	IPA
21	Agroteknologi	72	668	IPA
22	Sosiologi	36	644	IPS
23	Pend. Fisika	30	592	IPA
24	Bimbingan Konseling	15	578	IPS
25	Teknik Elektro	30	507	IPA
26	Teknik Kimia	30	506	IPA
27	Biologi	36	487	IPA
28	Teknologi Hasil Pertanian	36	461	IPA
29	Teknik Arsitek	12	429	IPA
30	Kehutanan	18	413	IPA
31	Pend. Sejarah	30	411	IPS
32	Pend Jasmani Kesehatan & Rekreasi	30	407	IPS
33	Pariwisata	12	382	IPS
34	Teknik Lingkungan	12	367	IPA

35	Pend. Pancasila & Kewarganegaraan (Ppkn)	30	335	IPS
36	Ilmu Administrasi Niaga	36	327	IPS
37	Matematika	36	293	IPA
38	Pend Kepelatihan Olahraga	30	291	IPS
39	Kimia	36	238	IPA
40	Paud	45	197	IPS
41	Fisika	36	195	IPA
42	Budidaya Perairan	30	172	IPA
43	Ilmu Kelautan	30	164	IPA
44	Teknologi Hasil PeRikenan	30	161	IPA
45	Pend. Bahasa Jepang	15	160	IPS
46	Manajemen Sumberdaya Perairan	30	142	IPA
47	Sosial Ekonomi PeRikenan	30	135	IPA
48	Pemanfaatan Sumberdaya PeRikenan	30	123	IPA
49	Pend. Luar Sekolah	15	64	IPS

DT : Daya Tampung
PE : Pelamar
Kel : Kelompok

(Adriyanto, 2014)