Indonesian Pre-Service English Teachers' Learning and Using Classroom Language

Ahmad Munir

BEd (TEFL) (UNESA, Indonesia)

MEd (TESOL-International) (Monash University, Australia)

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Monash University

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Ahmad Munir

Abstract

This study investigates how seven pre-service English teachers (PSETs) learned classroom language in a Classroom Discourse (CD) unit at Pahlawan University, Indonesia, and used it in sixteen microteaching and seven practicum lessons. Specifically, the research investigates the nature of classroom language taught in the CD unit, how the PSETs learned it and how they implemented it.

The data for this case study research were collected in two phases, at the university and in regional schools. The data include a questionnaire, learning and teaching journals, videotaped and audiotaped lessons, interviews, and classroom observation. Seven PSETs, two university staff, and five supervising teachers took part in this research. The analysis of data is both quantitative and qualitative.

A review of the literature links the nature of classroom language to theoretical perspectives on learning, which show the importance of language as a tool for mediating learning. It was found that the CD unit curriculum goals refer to scaffolding, yet classroom language taught in the unit focuses on eight Basic Teaching Skills (BTSs) and includes limited content on classroom interaction, including scaffolding.

It was further found that PSETs learned classroom language taught in the unit in the form of expressions used for the eight BTSs. They learned to use these by observing other PSETs, and English teachers during the CD unit. They also used these expressions in microteaching at university and in lessons which they taught in the school-based practicum. In their lessons, the PSETs focussed particularly on the use of five of the eight BTSs, including three kinds of lesson management skills, explaining the lesson and asking comprehension check questions. Although the PSETs tended to use English in microteaching, there was a noticeable change to trilingual code switching in the practicum. Three kinds of scaffolding, prompting, extension and modelling were attempted. However, these were used unsystematically.

This study provides empirical data to inform teacher educators in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) settings on the need for training in interactive classroom language. It contributes to the research literature, especially in teacher education.

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Chapter 1
Introduction

Frankly most of my students felt ackward [sic] (weird) with my classroom language. The most expressions used by my students were "*Pak, ndak ngerti*"[1] and "*Geleng-geleng kepala*"[2]. (PSET 7, Practicum learning journal, Entry 1)

Do pupils always understand what their teacher says to them in the classroom? Any teacher in the world is likely to hope and expect that pupils would understand what s/he says to them during the teaching process. After all, it is through talk that meaning is made. In the reality of a lesson on English as a foreign language, this expectation may be difficult to achieve. As illustrated in the journal entry above, the pre-service English teacher (hereafter PSET) was surprised to find that the pupils in his lesson did not understand what he said in English. I experienced a similar surprise when I asked one of the PSETs if she used English with her pupils during practicum, as she was taught in the Classroom Discourse unit (hereafter the CD unit) in 2007. This unit was introduced in 2007 to help PSETs to use English throughout a lesson, from opening the lesson to closing it. This PSET answered, "Sometimes yes, sometimes not, depend on the students, *tergantung dari tingkatan muridnya. mis membahas suatu topik.*[3]" She continued saying about the CD unit, "*Secara teori memang sudah diajarkan tapi untuk practice-nya aja yang kurang dalam menghadapi murid secara langsung*[4]." As one of her lecturers, I was challenged to investigate if the language learned in the CD unit was sufficient and applicable in the practicum. Hence, this thesis reports my research about PSETs' learning classroom language in one university unit, (the CD unit), and their using it in microteaching and practicum lessons.

This chapter provides a background for this research. It begins with an account of my teaching experience in an English teacher education program in Indonesia to describe how the present research emerged and the processes it has undergone. I also introduce the main theoretical concepts framing the present research as well as some of the principal directions of studies in the area of classroom language training in EFL

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[1] Translation: Sir, I don't understand.
[2] Translation: Shaking their heads.
[3] Translation: Depending on pupils' proficiency and topics (Personal conversation with Ms. Citra, a PSET of the 2005 cohorts).
[4] Translation: Theoretically, it (teaching English using English) was taught in the CD unit, but practice in facing real pupils was lacking (Personal conversation with Ms. Citra, a PSET of the 2005 cohort).

contexts. From this brief introduction, I will argue for the need to conduct the present research in an English teacher education program in the Indonesian context. The research questions follow in Section Two of this chapter. The scope of the research and its delimitation, the significance of the research study and the organisation of this thesis are also presented in this chapter.

1.1 Background

This research grew out of my professional experience as a lecturer in the English teacher education program at Pahlawan University[5] especially when I taught the CD unit to a group of PSETs in 2007. In the CD unit, I taught the PSETs how to teach using English as a medium of instruction for teaching content and for classroom management. The Indonesian Government, through legislation (Departemen Pendidikan Nasional, 2007; Indonesian Government, 2009) and the English curriculum (Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan, 2003, 2006a, 2006c), recommend the use of English as the medium of instruction in English lessons. Upon returning from doing the practicum, however, some of the PSETs[6] told me that they did not use English all the time, as pupils in their practicum lessons did not pay them respect when they used English for instruction. Furthermore, while I was sent to visit a school during the 2007 practicum, I personally observed that one PSET did not use English exclusively as the medium of instruction.

Given what the PSETs said previously and my own observation, I asked myself what had made this happen. Was it because the PSETs did not learn well in the CD unit, or was it because the delivery of the CD unit itself was not facilitating PSETs' learning? The answer to these questions requires more than anecdotal evidence and merits rigorous academic research (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). My interest in the topic of classroom language led to this study.

I initially planned to investigate how PSETs learned what was taught in the CD unit and how they used it in microteaching lessons. As will be explained in Chapter 4, I

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[5] I have used this pseudonym for the university throughout this thesis and references to maintain anonymity. The real name of the institution will be revealed to the thesis examiners for verification purposes if required.
[6] Personal conversation with Mr. Rikat in 2007. He was a PSET of the 2005 cohort.

carried out an initial study on PSETs' strategies for learning classroom language in the CD unit and microteaching. However, early during analysis of the initial research data (e.g., the background information questionnaire, learning journal of the CD unit, and microteaching lesson) from a few PSETs, I began to understand that a study on ways of learning what was taught in the CD unit and the use of what PSETs had learned in microteaching lessons would not explain why the they used Indonesian along with English in their practicum lessons. I needed to extend the initial plan to cover the practicum, where the PSETs would teach in real classrooms. This would form a case study, which is based on a certain group of people having similarities or similar conditions (Yin, 2003, 2006, 2009). A case study would allow me to consider data collected from the PSETs participating in the initial research alongside the data collected during the practicum. Moreover, as is described below, a review of the literature on classroom language training shows a gap in the research regarding the relationship between what PSETs learn in classroom language training at university and how they use it in microteaching and practicum lessons. This study attempts to fill this gap.

The term classroom language as used in English teacher training texts by authors such as Willis (1981) and Salaberri (1995), often refers to English idiomatic expressions especially used for teaching English through English, particularly to young learners. These English expressions are used when teachers are "giving instructions, explaining, asking questions,…, responding to and evaluating students' contributions, signalling the beginning and end of activities and lesson stages and so on." (Cullen, 2001, p.29). Other terms to describe classroom language, according to Macaro (1997, p.64), are "management language, internal language, language for conducting the lesson, and interaction language". Although these terms suggest that classroom language is teachers' language, classroom language expressions also include teachers' language in response to learner talk wherein teachers extend the students' contributions (Willis, 2002), recasting into English what students have said in their mother tongue (Slattery & Willis, 2001) and dealing with pupils' errors (Salaberri, 1995).

Johnson (2009) broadens the term classroom language to refer to any language used in a second language classroom. It is a special language used in the social setting of

the classroom (Cazden, 1988; Freeman, 2004; Gee, 2004), which is completely different from everyday language (Johnson, 2009). This language can include the language used by both teachers and pupils in the classroom. In foreign language teaching, teacher language may be either in the target language or the learners' first language (Pennington, 2002; Sinclair & Brazil, 1982; Willis, 1992). This means classroom language may include both the target language and first language used by both the teacher and pupils. It could be said, therefore, that classroom language is like classroom talk, which is described by Edwards and Westgate (1987). It is also similar to classroom discourse, the language of teaching and learning (Cazden, 1988). Attention has been paid in the last decade or so to one kind of teacher language, that is, scaffolding (Walsh, 2006a, 2006b).

The broad definition of classroom language has been adopted for the present research. In other words, classroom language in the present research is the language produced by both (student) teachers and by pupils in the classroom, either in English, Indonesian or Javanese. It also includes the teacher's use of language for the functions of scaffolding such as reformulating, extending and modelling pupils' responses (Walsh, 2006a, 2006b). In fact, these three kinds of scaffolding share some similarities with the examples of teacher language in response to pupils' language suggested by Willis (2002), Slattery and Willis (2001) and Salaberri (1995) previously. As more recent authors have stressed, scaffolding through the use of pupils' first language by the teacher may also occur in foreign language classrooms (Forman, 2008; Kim & Elder, 2005).

Scaffolding is an interactional feature of classroom discourse, which aims to facilitate second language learning (Walsh, 2006a). However, the relation between scaffolding, interaction and learning is not "straightforward mechanisms" (Johnson, 2009, p.71). Instead, teachers' classroom language works as a "symbolic linguistic tool" that can "semiotically mediate, assist, and scaffold mental activity" that promotes pupils' language development (Johnson, 2009, p.71). Thus, the power of teacher's language (Denton, 2007) to promote learning lies in the pedagogical decisions of teachers themselves. Interaction in classrooms can be created by the teachers through their language (Hall & Walsh, 2002). Teachers can provide certain kinds of language as modified input available to the learners (Gass, 2003), through a mechanism of

mediation (Johnson, 2009). With this mechanism and the learners' own efforts in changing input into learning (Scrivener, 2005, p.17), the learning of language could happen, according to Gass (2003).

As the language learned in a classroom is never authentic or natural, according to Widdowson (2002), and as there are specific ways of talking in a language class (Gee, 2004; Lemke, 1989), language teachers are recommended to aim for two things. First, they should learn how to use classroom language themselves (Crookes, 2003; Freeman, 2004). As Richards (2008, p.170) puts it, "'[l]earning how to talk' is essential in order to participate in a community of practice". Second, it is suggested that teachers as well as material developers make sure that the learners are familiar with the language used and taught in the lesson (Widdowson, 2002). This could be achieved by making modifications to their classroom language (Gass, 2003; Walsh, 2006a).

To enact these two recommendations is not easy for non native English speaker teachers, due to their level of proficiency in the target language and their general teaching skills (Kamhi-Stein, 2010; Lantolf, 2009), specifically skills in communicating in the target language the content knowledge to meet the needs of pupils (Freeman, 2004; Tüzel & Akcan, 2009). For this reason, classroom language training for non native English speaker teachers in EFL contexts is important, according to Cullen (1994, 2001), and should be part of any language teacher education program, according to Johnson (1990) and Snow et al. (2006).

The importance of improving non native English speaker teachers' proficiency has been reflected in many classroom language training books since the 1980s (e.g., Heaton, 1981; Hughes, 1981; Salaberri, 1995; Slattery & Willis, 2001; Willis, 1981). All these books have focused on improving the teacher's English language use in their teaching. It is no wonder that classroom language training in these books is also called classroom English training (e.g., Heaton, 1981). Other books also include ways in which teachers can exploit the potential of classroom language use for teaching real English (Slattery & Willis, 2001).

Empirical studies on classroom language training have also been conducted. For example, Cullen (1994) attempted to improve in-service teachers' language awareness in in-service teacher training by including it in a methodology course. Other academics (e.g., Cadorath & Harris, 1998; Cullen, 2001; Harfitt, 2008), have made use of lesson transcriptions to draw teachers' attention to their own classroom language use. A foreign language teacher program in England even provided intensive language training for improving the competence of new foreign language teacher graduates through self-access to the language lab and interactive CDROM, and writing a learning log (Barnes, 1996). These studies have shown different ways of training in-service teachers in the use of classroom language.

However, it seems that no particular attention has been paid to classroom language training as it is experienced by non native PSETs in a formal university unit and as it is used in microteaching and practicum lessons. There has, however, been one study comparing native English PSETs' reflection during the practicum with the theory presented in a Classroom Discourse unit (Orland-Barak & Yinon, 2005). This unit, in an Israeli university, was not classroom language training since the PSETs were native English speakers, but it focused on "helping students to acquire tools for analysing classroom discourse" and "enhancing understandings about teaching and learning" (Orland-Barak & Yinon, 2005, p.96). This means the objective and contents of the CD unit in this research are unique.

A related area of research is language awareness training. For example, one study reports on a training program to improve PSETs' target language use during their practicum in Turkey (Tüzel & Akcan, 2009). This training was not a formal unit at the university, but took place in special sessions as a response to PSETs' problems in grammar, weaknesses in using English for managing the class, and target language modification during their practicum lessons. In other words, the training in Tüzel and Akcan's (2009) study was conducted along with the practicum process and specifically designed to improve the quality of PSETs' target language use. Unlike the "language refreshment" sessions provided by Tüzel and Akcan (2009, p. 276), the CD unit in this research preceded the practicum lessons and was not intended to tackle PSETs' specific problems in their target language use.

To the best of my knowledge, it seems that no study has discussed how PSETs implement what they learn in classroom language training in teaching microteaching and practicum lessons. It is for this reason that the present research has investigated this matter.

The focus of this research is how PSETs implement the language they learn in the CD unit in their teaching practice in microteaching and the practicum. This focus is based on Freeman's (2004) and Gee's (2004) assertions that to become members of a classroom discourse community, PSETs should experience and use classroom language, not only in teacher training (Murray, 1998), but also in the real context of classrooms in schools (Freeman & Johnson, 1998). In this way, the PSETs may acquire the knowledge and skills to be language teachers (Freeman, 2004). The broad definition of classroom language previously mentioned will be able to capture whatever language is taught to the PSETs in the CD unit and whatever language they use in microteaching and practicum lessons. This classroom language is expected to work as a source of rich input in foreign language for language learners and to stimulate opportunities for classroom interactions, whether in the target language or the first language.

1.2 Research questions

As indicated earlier, the main objective of this research is to investigate how PSETs implement the classroom language taught in a CD unit in their microteaching and practicum lessons. The overarching research question is "How do the pre-service English teachers implement the classroom language taught in the CD unit in their microteaching and practicum lessons?" To be able to answer this, three research questions are posed:
1. What is the nature of classroom language taught in the CD unit?
2. How do PSETs learn the classroom language in the CD unit?
3. To what extent do PSETs implement classroom language taught in the CD unit in their microteaching and practicum lessons?

An additional research question arises in relation to the wording of the handbook of the English teacher education program considered. This handbook states that the goal

of the CD unit is to promote competence and skill in scaffolding pupils' learning. The fourth research question is, therefore:

4. What kinds of scaffolding are represented in classroom language used in microteaching and the practicum?

1.3 Context of the study

The setting of this case study is the English teacher education program at Pahlawan University, in East Java province, Indonesia. In order for the reader to understand the design of this study, it is important to explain the place of the CD unit in the overall English teacher training program of the university. The university offers a Bachelor degree in English Teaching (Bachelor of Education) (Direktorat Jenderal Pendidikan Tinggi, 2009), which is the minimum requirement to become an English teacher (Departemen Pendidikan Nasional, 2007).

National law also stipulates that all teachers at all levels of education should hold an undergraduate degree or *Sarjana* (S-1) in the subject matter taught (Direktorat Ketenagaan, 2008). Based on ministerial regulations, the Bachelor degree in English Teaching at Pahlawan University requires students to complete a certain number of credit points. This was 148 credit points[7] in 2006, which is the first year of entry for the cohort of participants in this study (hereafter the 2006 cohort). This credit point total includes compulsory units (138 credit points) and optional units (10 credit points). The units offered to the students are grouped under English language skills (64 credit points, about 43 %), general education (20 credit points, about 14 %), English language studies (26 credit points, about 18 %), English teaching methods (32 credit points, about 22 %), and other units (6 credit points, about 3 %).

All of these units are offered during different semesters in an eight semester program. The summary of these units can be seen in Table 1.1.

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[7] This number was reduced to 144 in 2010 onwards (Pahlawan University, 2010)

Table 1.1

Unit groups in the English teacher education program, Pahlawan University

No	Unit group names	Total credit points	Semester
1	English language skills	64	1-6
2	General education	20	1-3
3	English language studies	26	3-7
4	English teaching methods	32	4-8
5	Other units	6	4-5
	Total	148	8

During the eight-semester program, PSETs can take units up to 24 credit points in one semester, depending on the units offered in a particular semester. English language skills and general education units are mainly offered in Semester 1 up to Semester 6. This study focuses on a sequence of activities taking place from Semester 4 onwards. These are the CD unit, microteaching and practicum, which are part of English teaching methods, as is detailed below.

The English teaching method units include Teaching English as a Foreign Language I and II (4 credit points), Curriculum and Materials Development (2 credit points), Instructional Design (2 credit points), Language Testing I and II (4 credit points), Language and Education Research Method (2 credit points), Teaching English to Young Learners (optional) (2 credit points), Classroom Discourse (optional)[8] (2 credit points), Microteaching or *Program Pengalaman Lapangan I* (PPL I) (2 credit points), Real Teaching or *Program Pengalaman Lapangan II* (PPL II) (2 credit points) and a Thesis Writing project (6 credit points) (Pahlawan University, 2006). Given that the maximum credit points for optional units are limited to 10 credit points during the whole program, the department usually decides which optional unit is offered in a given semester. In Semester 6, 2008 when this research took place, for example, only the Classroom Discourse unit was offered to the PSETs in the 2006 cohort. As a result, all of the 127 PSETs enrolled that semester took this unit.

The CD unit does not discuss theoretical Classroom Discourse; Rather, it teaches the PSETS a number of expressions in English used by teachers for teaching different lesson stages, from the opening to the closing of lesson. The taught expressions are

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[8] Although optional, all of the 2006 cohorts (127 PSETs) took this unit in Semester 6, 2008.

exclusively extracted from Willis' (1981) book. Each of the units in that book is usually used as the focus of the meetings in the CD unit. As it focuses on the practical uses of those English expressions, the class usually runs like speaking class, which follows presentation, practice and production. The PSETs are to practise these expression in class of the CD unit and doing role plays. The focus of the practice is the accuracy and fluency in using these English expressions. They are also expected to use these expressions for their microteaching lesson, which is a different unit offered at the sixth semester.

This unit is 2 credit points which means that the PSETs have to attend 100 minutes lecture per meeting per week along 14 weeks. As there are usually four classes of PSETs, consisting of 35-50 PSETs, at Semester 6 every year, each class is assigned one lecturer in-charge. Following the university regulation, the assessment of every unit takes three forms: in-class participation (20%), assignment (30%), mid-test (20%), final test (30%). To pass the CD unit, the PSETs have to accumulate at least 56% score. Along with the success in the Microteaching unit, the success in the CD unit is a prerequisite for taking Practicum unit at the seventh semester. All this description show that the CD unit in this thesis is different from the CD unit in Yinon and Barak (2007), described later in this chapter.

Table 1.2 below summarises offerings in the English teaching method units.

Table 1.2

English teaching methods units and semester offered

No	Unit names	Credit	Semester
1	Teaching English as a Foreign Language I	2	4
2	Teaching English as a Foreign Language II	2	5
3	Language Testing I	2	5
4	Curriculum and Materials Development	2	5
5	Instructional Design	2	6
6	Language Testing II	2	6
7	Microteaching or *Program Pengalaman Lapangan I* (PPL I)	2	6
8	Teaching English to Young Learners[9]	2	5
9	Media	2	6
10	Classroom Discourse[10]	2	6
11	Language Games and Songs[11]	2	6
12	Language and Education Research Method	2	6
13	Real Teaching or *Program Pengalaman Lapangan II* (PPL II)	2	7
14	Seminar on Language and Education Research	2	7
15	Thesis writing project	6	8
	Total	32	

(Pahlawan University, 2006, p.208)

As Table 1.2 shows, the microteaching is offered on campus in Semester 6 and the practicum is offered in Semester 7 in regional partner schools for eight weeks (Pahlawan University, 2006; Tim UPTP4, 2008, 2009).

The research took place in two phases, as is shown in Figure 1.1. below.
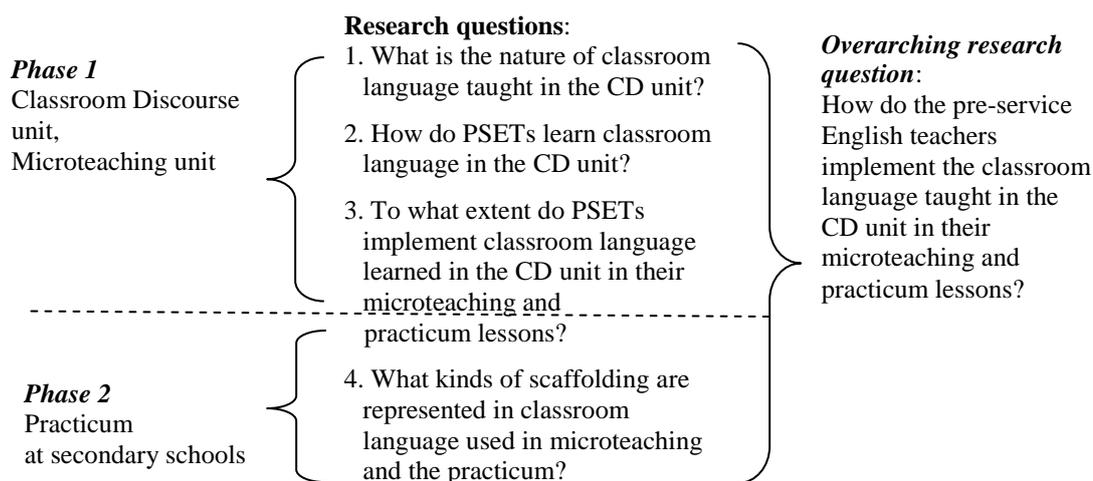
Figure 1.1. Research phases and contexts and research questions

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[9] Optional but it was the only optional unit in the English teaching unit group actually offered to the 2006 cohorts for Semester 5 in 2008

[10] In the handbook of 2010, this unit is named 'Classroom Language'

[11] Optional unit offered in Semester 6

Details of the two research phases are given in Chapter 4.

1.4 Scope and delimitation of the research

The starting point of this research is language expressions that PSETs in the English teacher education learned explicitly in the CD unit in 2009. As will be explained in Chapters 4 and 5, the classroom language taught in the unit covers a range of functions.

This study is based on empirical data on the use of language introduced in the CD unit as it appeared in the microteaching and practicum. Seven PSETs took part in this research. This may not necessarily represent the learning experiences of all PSETs enrolled at the time of data collection (Davis, 1995; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Furthermore, the data and information collected in this research may only be true in this context and at the time of data collection (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007), which is typical of the qualitative approach taken for this research. It is hoped that applications of the findings to other English teacher education programs in Indonesia and other countries may also be possible.

1.5 Significance

The present research has arisen from my professional work as a teacher educator preparing English language teachers. By conducting this research, I hope to understand more about what happened in the process of the unit I taught prior to this research. Indirectly, this research may also inform my colleagues who have taught the same unit. The results of this research may then be used to revise the syllabus, study materials and the learning process of the CD unit, microteaching and practicum in my own university. More importantly, this research may inform all teacher educators in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts about the effectiveness of training PSETs for teaching English through English. Its findings may also promote discussion between teacher educators and supervising teachers in schools.

1.6 Organisation of thesis

This thesis has eleven chapters. Chapter 1 sets out the background for the research and explains why it was conducted. It describes how the present research grew from the researcher's personal experience as a teacher educator in this context. This experience is then linked with major literature in the area of classroom language training. Research questions are presented in the second section. The third section then briefly describes the English teacher education program at Pahlawan University. The scope and delimitation as well as the significance of the research then follow.

Chapters 2 and 3 present a literature review. Chapter 2 specifically reviews the literature on pre-service teachers' professional learning as the theoretical framework for the research. It starts with models and perspectives which have been used in language teacher education to date. An account of the knowledge and skills needed to become teachers in general and foreign language teachers in particular is presented in Section Two. The third and fourth sections describe the importance of microteaching and the practicum as avenues for PSETs learning to teach and survey studies about learning to teach.

Chapter 3 adds a review of the literature about classroom language and classroom language training for PSETs. Issues such as choice of target language or first language, how language is used in the classroom and the use of scaffolding are included. The final section reviews studies about classroom language training in EFL contexts.

Chapters 4 and 5 describe the methodology employed for conducting the present research. Chapter 4 argues for the approach taken in the research and introduces the participants in the study. This is followed by ethical considerations raised during the different stages of the research. Chapter 5 presents the procedures for data collection and analysis employed in this research, providing an account of how the researcher attempted to maintain validity and reliability.

Research findings are presented in four chapters (Chapters 6-9). Chapter 6 presents the findings for research questions 1 and 2. It includes categories of classroom

language taught to the PSETs in the CD unit and three main ways the PSETs learned this classroom language. Chapter 7 presents the findings for research question 3, about the classroom language implemented by the PSETs in microteaching and practicum lessons. It also details PSETs' use of English, Indonesian and Javanese in practicum lessons. Chapter 8 compares PSETs' classroom language in microteaching and practicum lessons. Reasons for differences between the use of languages in each setting were expressed in interviews with the PSETs. Chapter 9 presents the kinds of scaffolding in the classroom language implemented by the PSETs in microteaching and practicum lessons.

Chapter 10 discusses findings presented in Chapters 6, 7, 8 and 9. It also answers the overarching research question of this research: "how do the pre-service English teachers implement the classroom language taught in the CD unit in their microteaching and practicum lessons?"

The conclusion for the research is presented in Chapter 11. Recommendations are presented for the present English teacher education program at Pahlawan University and for future research in the area of English language teacher education.

Chapter 2

Pre-service Teachers' Professional Learning

To discuss how PSETs learn and use classroom language during their teacher education, it is essential to place this study in a broader discussion of pre-service teachers' professional learning. This chapter begins with a documentation of models of and perspectives on language teacher education programs. It then surveys the literature on teacher knowledge and skills, specifically the knowledge and skills that foreign and second language teachers need according to specialist experts. It continues with a discussion on the role of microteaching and the practicum in teacher learning.

2.1 Models and perspectives for language teacher education

A career in the teaching profession requires knowledge and skills (Wallace, 1991). With these, teachers are expected to perform their tasks competently (Darling-Hammond, Holtzman, Gatlin, & Heilig, 2005; Schön, 1983; Wallace, 1991). The knowledge and skills for teachers can be pursued in language teacher education, the primary goal of which is to help those who want to be language teachers to develop skills in teaching (Richards, Li, & Tang, 1995). In a teacher education program, the trainees will learn about the specific content being taught, about how pupils learn, and, most importantly, about teaching (Loughran, 2006).

According to Verloop, Driel and Meijer (2001, p.454), teacher education has to consider not only what knowledge and skills are needed by a teacher, but also the ways they "are made available, or accessible" for the pre-service teachers. The ways for doing this are documented in models and perspectives of language teacher education. Models are the ways the knowledge and skills to be teachers are delivered to those who learn to be teachers (Day, 1993) while a perspective is a theoretical mind set or a "theory of mind" rather than a model for language teacher education (Johnson, 2009, p.3).

Wallace (1991) proposed three models of language teacher, namely, the craft model, the applied science model and the reflective model. According to Richards (2008), he

was one of the first to do this. Wallace's (1991) models "have characterised both general teacher education and also teacher education for language teachers" (Richards, 2008, p.169). The development of these models reflects the development in our understanding of the knowledge and skills in learning to become professional teachers in general and second/foreign language teachers in particular (Richards, 2008; Wallace, 1991).

The three models show that teaching competency is acquired according to the source from which the knowledge is learned (Ditfurth & Legutke, 2006). The craft model was a typical professional training model up to the 1945s (Wallace, 1991). In this model the knowledge, skills and experience of the master experts are valued highly. To be a professional, one must learn directly by observing a master practitioner doing the job, getting direction from the master him/herself, and doing the job supervised by the master. In this way, learning to be professional is said to be an imitation of how the master experts do the job (Crandall, 2000; Ditfurth & Legutke, 2006). Hence, Day (1993, p.2) called this "the apprentice-expert model". However, reliance on personal knowledge and experience of master experts gives no place for the learners' own knowledge and skills development (Wallace, 1991).

The craft model did not seem to meet the demands of the profession in the 1960s (Wallace, 1991). At that time, the areas of linguistics, applied linguistics, second language acquisition, and research on teaching shifted the emphasis from content teaching to the thought processes of teachers (Freeman, 2002). Therefore, a new model called the applied science model emerged up to the 1970s (Wallace, 1991).

In the applied-science model, the role of the expert is to find scientific knowledge by experimentation in order to produce theories. The theories are then delivered to those who learn to apply them in their practice. Ditfurth and Legutke (2006, p.515) called this model "learning as application of knowledge", in which the master experts become thinkers and the learners act as doers. The trainees in the applied science model of language teacher education can follow a "tested model" or "operationalised learning principles" (Zahorik, 1986, p.21) in their teaching. These learning principles are usually produced by experts in linguistics and second language acquisition and the trainees' job is only to apply these in their everyday teaching practices (Crandall,

2000). However, as the experts are "not the ones who actually do" the teaching (Day, 1993, p.6), the trainees often find problems in practice that cannot be addressed by the experts (Wallace, 1991). Despite this drawback, this transmission model of language teacher education has been widely practised up to the 2000s (Freeman, 2001, 2002).

The third model, the reflective model, gives an alternative to professional education in which trainees combine knowledge they get from experts (called "received knowledge") with practical knowledge during practice (called "experiential knowledge") (Wallace, 1991, p.13). During practice, they are required to reflect upon and evaluate their actions as a cycle. Following Schön (1983), the reflection in action in the reflective cycle is expected to enhance their professional competence (Wallace, 1991), to develop appropriate practical knowledge (Ditfurth & Legutke, 2006) or to modify their own practice (Crandall, 2000).

To the reflective model, Crandall (2000) added the importance of context for reflecting on beliefs and practices and reconstructing the learners' personal theories of language teaching and learning. In a later development, Wallace (1991, p.49) modified the reflective model, called "the advanced reflective model". This advanced model accommodates the trainee's knowledge and life experiences prior to taking up teacher education.

There are two stages to achieve teachers' professional competence in the advanced reflective model: the pre-training stage and professional education/development stage (Wallace, 1991). The first stage includes the trainees' existing conceptual schemata and mental construct about the professions before they enter teacher education. The second stage includes how the combined received knowledge and experiential knowledge are practised and reflected in the context of the profession to refine their knowledge. Through this model, "novice teachers become autonomous reflective practitioners capable of constant self-reflection leading to a continuous process of professional development" (Barduhn & Johnson in Richards, 2008, p.169). As argued by Schön (1983), practitioners also have the knowledge and capacity to develop professional knowledge when they encounter certain types of situations again and again and reflect as they are doing their actions, so that they become "practitioners"

and "researchers of practice" (Schön, 1983, p.68). This reflection throughout a career in teaching was acknowledged by Dodd (2001) in her accounts of her professional teaching experience.

Development in language teaching and learning research after the 1990s has brought about changes in the way teachers teach with the emerging view of teachers' cognition, beliefs, and decision making as the key players for teaching (Freeman, 2002; Richards, 1998, 2008). In response to this view, language teacher education started to focus on the roles of contexts of learners, teachers, and schools and how these contexts changed the ways teachers delivered knowledge to learners (Freeman, 2002). This has led to teacher education programs offering only theoretical knowledge while the practical knowledge, or practice, is often left to the teacher themselves to develop (Ball, 2000). Moreover, teachers themselves have to integrate subject matter knowledge and pedagogy (Ball, 2000). Language teacher education has even been suggested to place emphasis on the teachers as the key players in their own development (Richards, 1998). Thus, it can be concluded that since the 1990s, the emphasis of teacher education on the so called 'prescribed knowledge and skills' for language teachers has changed to their actualisations of teaching, or their practical knowledge (Verloop, et al., 2001), or personal practical knowledge (Golombek, 1998).

Freeman and Johnson (1998) propose that the knowledge base of language teacher education should be the teaching itself, which Bennet (in Westgate, 1988, p.147) saw as meaning "the study of teaching should be the heartland of teacher preparation". This leads to the view that language teacher learning should accommodate the contexts of teaching and learning, where they will develop their knowledge and skills as effective teachers. For that reason, language teacher education should include the contexts surrounding the activity of teaching itself, namely: classrooms, schools, and community (Freeman, 2002). Practicum sites should become places for student teachers to learn to be teachers and to socialize themselves into school work, because "understanding of schools and schooling as the social and cultural contexts for teacher learning is critical to establishing an effective knowledge base" (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p.408). In so doing, student teachers can participate in the activity of

teaching and learning so that they will feel the sense of being in the community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

There are three domains of language teacher education (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Freeman & Johnson, 2005), namely, the teacher-learner domain, the social contexts (school and schooling), and the pedagogical process of language teaching and learning. In these domains, processes of learning and socialization, processes of creating communities of practice, and processes of participation in teacher education take place. This framework emphasises that language teachers are "learners of language teaching" rather than merely focusing on "students as learners of language" (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p.407); it acknowledges continuous professional learning. Moreover, schools and classrooms should be seen as the places for "applying theory in practicum, socialisation to the school life, and possibly in-service education" (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p.408). Finally, the pedagogical process of teaching "as an activity cannot be separated from either the person of the teacher as a learner or the contexts of schools and schooling in which it is done" (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p.410).

Despite the theoretical development of language teacher education models presented previously, the practice of language teacher education before the 2000s failed to "address schools and schooling as a critical social context for teacher learning" (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p.406). For this, Freeman (2004, p.191) suggests that second language teacher education should change its practice to include "how teachers see what they do and how their students perceive what they are learning." Furthermore, Johnson (2006) sees teacher learning,

> as normative and lifelong, as emerging out of and through experiences in social contexts: as learners in classrooms and schools, as participants in professional teacher education programs, and later as teachers in the settings where they work (p.239).

Johnson (2009) has incorporated sociocultural perspectives in language teacher education. The proposal to include these sociocultural perspectives was based on criticism that the previous models of language teacher education reflected a positivist epistemological perspective (Johnson, 2009). In fact, this sociocultural perspective is the latest trend in views on human learning. In the sociocultural perspective of language teacher education:

teacher learning and the activities of teaching are understood as growing out of participation in the social practices in the classrooms; and what teachers know and how they use that knowledge in the classrooms is highly interpretative and contingent on knowledge of self, setting, students, curriculum, and community. (Johnson, 2009, p.13)

The sociocultural perspective is not meant to be "a methodology or an approach to how to 'do' L2 teacher education" (Johnson, 2009, p.16). It is an especially useful perspective for language teacher educators as they seek to understand and support the professional development of language teachers (Johnson, 2009).

However, adopting this perspective requires a change in teacher educators' points of view (Johnson, 2009). First, teachers should be seen as learners of teaching, which means that they keep learning throughout their teaching careers. Second, language is seen as a social practice, which means that the language in the classroom is the language of society in which the classrooms exist (Gee, 2004), or "languaculture" (Johnson, 2009, p.46). Third, teaching should be seen as a 'dialogic mediation', which means teaching "is not the [unidirectional] transmission of specific bodies of knowledge and skills" (Johnson, 2009, p.62). Fourth, "it is essential to understand the broader social, cultural, and historical macro structures" that shape the teachers' and students' activities (Johnson, 2009, p.77). Finally, the approaches to teachers' professional development should be inquiry-based (Johnson, 2009).

In all of the models and perspectives on language teacher education above, there is a continual discussion on how knowledge and skills for becoming teachers are delivered to the learners of teaching. All models and perspectives have followed the fads of theories of teaching developing during their times (Richards, 1998), and each of them holds its own position on how knowledge and skills can be mastered by trainee teachers during their teacher education. As Johnson (2009, p.11) puts it, they are "grounded in particular epistemological perspectives—that is, what counts as knowledge, who is considered to be a knower, and how knowledge is produced," which depends "on issues of access, status, and power of a particular professional community". This study focuses on teacher training foregrounding the knowledge and skills required by language teachers. Drawing on this assertion, the next section introduces literature on the broad knowledge and skills required to be teachers and particularly language teachers.

2.2 Knowledge and skills for language teachers

For teachers to be called professionals, they should have the qualities of the profession, according to Wallace (1991). Hence, teachers should have the scientific knowledge and basic skills to perform their teaching tasks competently (Shulman, 1987; Wallace, 1991). According to Crandall (2000), the knowledge for teachers refers to the theories teachers have mastered, while the skills refer to their ability to perform the theories in their practice of teaching. This is what Moore (2007, pp.7-8) calls the "theoretical knowledge and active knowledge" of teachers. Similarly, Tamir (1988, p.100) suggests that the knowledge for teachers is "knowing" what they teach while their skills are "knowing" what to do with the knowledge. Richards (1998, p.1) represents the knowledge and skills of teachers in his account of the contents of teacher education, which should cover "theories of teaching, teaching skills, communication skills, subject matter knowledge, pedagogical reasoning and decision making, and contextual knowledge". All these kinds of knowledge and skills characterise teachers as professionals and they will expand during their career (Shulman, 1987).

In addition to the previous definitions of what teachers need to know and do, Shulman (1987, p.7) suggests that teachers should have an "understanding of what is to be learned and how it is to be taught". Freeman adds that teachers should have the mastery of the content to teach and the methodologies to teach it (Freeman, 2002). Moreover, Kyriacou (2007) suggests knowledge and skills for teaching are covered in "teaching skills" (p.4), i.e., knowing what to do and being able to do it. Marsh (2008, p.3) also notes that "personal and professional knowledge and skills" are necessary for teaching. The attributes of personal knowledge and skills are "empathy with students, respect for individuals, positive outlook and attitude, approachability, and sense of humour", while having "good organisation skills, professional relationships with staff, parents and students, appreciating others' skills" are the attributes for professional knowledge and skills (Marsh, 2008, p.3).

Some writers focus on what they call general teaching skills, "the dimension of teaching regarded as essential to the repertoire of any teacher, regardless of subject"

(Richards, 1998, p.xiv). Teaching skills may include, procedural and managerial aspects of teaching such as lesson planning, rules and routines for classroom management, strategies for setting up grouping and seating arrangements, ways of opening and closing lessons, techniques for effective questioning, eliciting and giving feedback (Richards, 1998). These skills are complex skills (Kyriacou, 2007) as they involve three domains: knowledge, decision-making and action. The actual behaviour of teaching is a result of decisions that the teachers make before, during and after the lesson, based on their knowledge about the subject, learners, curriculum and teaching methods (Kyriacou, 2007). The roles that the teachers perform in front of the class also add to the complexity of teaching skills (Moore, 1989, 2007). Sometimes the teachers are instructional experts, classroom managers, and often they become counsellors (Moore, 1989, 2007), or even actors or public speakers (Crookes, 2003). Such decisions and actions are actually derived from teachers' own beliefs on what makes good teaching (Zahorik, 1986). Therefore, it is acknowledged that to find "universal teaching skills is difficult" (Zahorik, 1986, p.21). Moreover, there is no agreement in the literature on the "definitely agreed list" of teaching skills (Kyriacou, 2007, p.5; Zahorik, 1986, p.21).

Nevertheless, some authors have attempted to list generic teaching skills. One author to do so is Moore (1989, 2007) who suggests three generic teaching skills applicable for all teachers at all levels; these are pre-instructional skills, instructional skills and post-instructional skills. Pre-instructional skills include the skill of planning the lesson, which covers writing the lesson goals, selecting the learning materials and structuring the lesson to meet the learning styles of the pupils. Instructional skills are the skills to implement the planning; in which communicating the instruction and learning materials is the core. Post-instructional skills are the skills needed to make teachers good evaluators, which may include skills in assessing the learners' performance and mastery of the lesson goals. Such generic teaching skills are based on the occurrence of the skills in the structure of an instructional event.

Three further authors are Joyce, Weil, and Wald (1972, p.3), who defined a teaching skill as "a distinct set of identifiable behaviours that affect the learner by supporting and guiding him in his inquiry". From this, they (Joyce, et al., 1972) suggest three basic teaching skills: structuring skills, skills modulating cognitive levels, and

focusing skills. They argued that these skills are basic because in their belief all teaching starts with these skills and for that reason these skills have to be mastered by those who want to be teachers. Structuring skills are the skills to control the behaviour of the pupils and the teachers (Joyce, et al., 1972). Skills modulating cognitive levels "establish certain types of intellectual activity and change it when appropriate" (Joyce, et al., 1972, p.4). Finally, focusing skills are the skills to "draw, maintain, or shift the students' attention to a particular aspect of the topic or learning activity" (Joyce, et al., 1972, p.4). For each of these skills, teachers should be able to plan it and carry out the plan. As these basic teaching skills are identifiable throughout the teaching episodes, one of the ways to learn them is to analyse a teaching episode from the beginning of the lesson to the end of the lesson. Hence, it is very likely that these skills can be learned in an applied science model of teacher education.

In addition to the list of knowledge and skills needed by teachers above, the development of standard competency for teachers should also be added to the long list. These standards of teaching skills and/or competencies are set by the education authority in each county (Kyriacou, 2007; Marsh, 2008), and Indonesia as the context of this study is no exception (Departemen Pendidikan Nasional, 2007). All this means that up to now there is no single list of teaching skills which is applicable or agreed to be applied to all the teacher education programs in the world (Kyriacou, 2007). Despite this disagreement, looking at the standards of teachers' competency of each country and comparing them is still possible.

Knowledge and skills for teachers of the first, second, or foreign language are similar to those for teachers in general (Freeman, 2002; Freeman & Richards, 1993; Harmer, 2007; Johnson, 2006; Pachler & Field, 2001; Richards, 1998; Richards, et al., 1995). These teachers should have general knowledge and skills (Wallace, 1991) and specific knowledge and skills (Borg, 2006; Richards, et al., 1995) especially for language teaching (Richards, 1998, p.4). Pachler and Field (2001) have demonstrated that Shulman's (1987) teacher knowledge categories can be applied to (modern) foreign language teachers. For example, language teachers' content knowledge includes a regular update of their linguistic competence, and cultural awareness or intercultural communicative competence (Pachler & Field, 2001). Another example,

language teachers' general pedagogical knowledge includes understandings of adolescent development and relationships between language and learning, while they also need to know learners' language levels, skills and learning styles as part of their knowledge of the learners and their characteristics (Pachler & Field, 2001).

It is generally agreed that the second and foreign language teachers' subject matter knowledge includes knowledge about the structure of the target language, understanding of the culture of the language, and background knowledge of linguistics and language learning theories (Pachler & Field, 2001). More importantly, communicating effectively in the target language orally and in written forms is a must for becoming a foreign language teacher (Medgyes, 1999a; Pachler & Field, 2001; Richards, 1998; Scrivener, 2005). According to Richards (1998, p.7) non native speaker teachers need "to attain a certain threshold level of proficiency in a language to be able to teach effectively in" the language they teach. The proficiency is marked by ability to provide "sociolinguistically appropriate and (nearly) error free examples of the target language in their lessons and materials" (Bailey, 2006, p.305). More explicitly, Medgyes (1999, p.179) suggests that the non native English speaker teachers should have a proficiency level near that of native speakers. In addition, it is expected that English language teachers in international contexts have knowledge about and how to use the target language, knowledge about and how to teach in culturally appropriate ways, and knowledge about and how to behave appropriately in the target culture (Crookes, 2003; Snow, et al., 2006).

In the teaching of English as a second or foreign language, English is both a subject being learned and also often used as the medium of instruction (Larsen-Freeman & Freeman, 2008; Pennington, 2002; Willis, 1992). This situation often causes confusion for the pupils (Freeman, 2002), especially when the teachers and learners do not share the same language or teachers do not have background cultural knowledge of the learners (Crookes, 2003; Freeman, 2004). Even teachers who have pupils with non-English speaking background in the US are recommended to have knowledge about language and language skills for teaching (Fillmore & Snow, 2000). For this reason, Freeman (2002) adds that teaching languages requires a specific teacher's ability to differentiate between the content and subject matter, in which the "content" (p. 172) is the modification of subject matter to meet the needs of learners

(Freeman, 2004), similar to pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987). Gee (2004, p.13) calls this the "social language" of the classroom, a specific skill in talking in a language class. Skills in using the language to communicate effectively and to interact with pupils socially in assisting their learning are requirements for those learning to be language teachers (Marsh, 2008; Richards, 1998).

In addition to linguistic knowledge and other language related skills, second/foreign language teachers also need specific teaching skills (Freeman & Richards, 1993; Richards, 1998). Richards (1998) provided examples of specific teaching skills based on one teacher preparation program in the UK, which includes:

> preparation of communicative interaction activities (e.g., group work, games, role plays, simulations), organisation and facilitation of communicative interaction, judgement of proper balance between fluency and accuracy, awareness of learners' errors, appropriate treatment of errors (pp. 4-5).

The specification of teaching skills depends on the theories and conceptions of good teaching which the teacher education program implies; these may variously draw on science-research, theory-philosophy, and art-craft conceptions (Freeman & Richards, 1993; Richards, 1998; Zahorik, 1986).

Freeman and Richards (1993) and Richards (1998) suggested that those who followed the science-research based conceptions would have to master specific principles in operationalising the audiolingual method, task-based language teaching, learner training and strategy training as advocated by their proponents and implement them accurately. If they believe in a specific theory-based conception of good teaching, teachers have to understand the underlying theory, for example, community language learning, action research, and team teaching and learner centred curriculum. Moreover, they must be consistent in following the theory (Freeman & Richards, 1993; Richards, 1998). Finally, if they believe in a art-craft based conception of good teaching they have to develop observational and analysis skills that will enable them to try out different ways of teaching which best match the context and then assess their efficacy (Freeman & Richards, 1993; Richards, 1998).

Diverse teaching skills for second and foreign language teachers suggested by Freeman and Richards (1993) and Richards (1998) show that even teaching skills specific to certain subject teachers cover a different range. This is in line with

Kyriacou's (2007) assertion that the scope of teaching skills is very wide, ranging from very general skills to very specific skills. Hence, teaching skills can be put in a continuum, with very broad skills at one end and very specific skills on the other end. Placing oneself on a certain point of the continuum is guided by the conceptions of good teaching the teachers have and their complex reasoning in their decisions for choosing their options. It is also possibly forced by the external agents given the authority to standardise teachers' competency (Freeman, 2001), or imposed by the teacher education institutions (Kyriacou, 2007). As seen in Figure 2.1, a teacher may choose to use very specific teaching skills he or she considers the teaching context requires. This choice is also influenced by a belief that good teaching should follow a tested model of teaching (science-based conception) (Freeman & Richards, 1993).
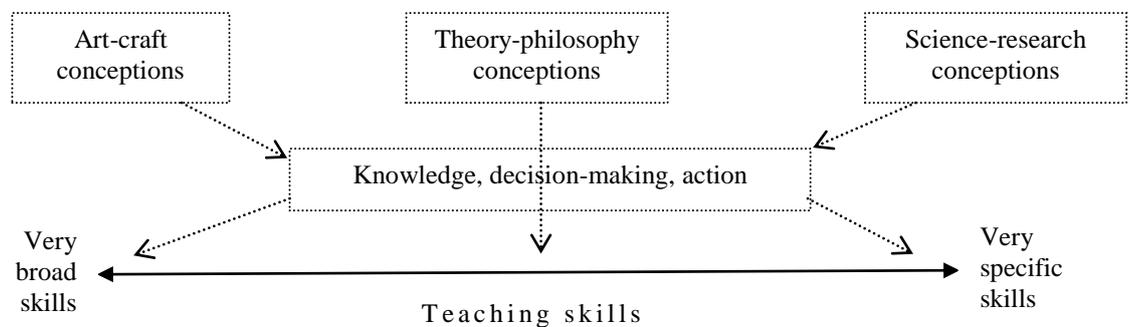
Figure 2.1. What leads to teaching skills on a teaching skills continuum

All in all, the teachers' choice for the teaching skills they believe in and implement in their classrooms also depends on their formal teacher education, which determines the particular teaching skills to be introduced to PSETs (Johnson, 2009). As Larsen-Freeman and Freeman (2008, p.178) observe, "the current foreign language teaching and learning is increasingly locally defined and contextually determined". However, there is one thing in common in most programs, in that teacher education usually uses microteaching and/or a practicum as an opportunity for learning the skills needed to be teachers (Tognini, 2006). The roles of microteaching and the practicum in learning to teach (as suggested by authors like Crookes, 2003; Ditfurth & Legutke, 2006) are presented in the next section.

2.3 Learning to be teachers through microteaching and practicum

As indicated in the discussion on the models of language teacher education throughout history, there is a time when student teachers have to practise doing the

teaching, either with master teachers (as in the craft model) or in their own practice (as in both the applied-science and advanced reflective models) (Freeman & Richards, 1993; Richards, 1998; Wallace, 1991). Freeman and Johnson (1998, p.399) indicate that language teacher education courses generally use three contexts for pre-service teachers, namely, "the teacher education program (as learning about teaching), the practicum (by observing and practicing teaching) and the first years of teaching (by developing effective teaching behaviours)". Ditfurth and Legutke (2006) similarly propose that the environments for teacher education should include: the practicum as a core component, classroom based research components, indirect research components, and participant observation in classroom and/video documents. Moreover, according to Hoban (2006), a design for teacher education should include a theory and practice link between school and university. Through both microteaching and practicum, it is expected that by the end of formal teacher education, novice teachers will continue their professional development and face the actual benefits, risks and costs of the teaching profession (Wallace, 1991).

During the period pre-service teachers are learning to teach, they undergo different stages of learning based on their concerns during their education (Maynard & Furlong, 1995). Similar stages called "levels of theorising" (Pachler & Field, 2001, p.29) or "stages leading to teacher-self actualisation" (Dodd, 2001, p.13) also stretch from teacher education through the teachers' professional life. The change in all these stages is typically marked by shifting from early concerns with themselves as teachers to a concern for pupils' learning. The five levels of theorising during teacher education, especially in the practicum, are early idealism, survival, realizing difficulties, hitting a plateau and moving on (Maynard & Furlong, 1995). These five stages are also applicable to the teachers' concerns along their teaching careers in schools as Dodd (2001) and Pachler and Field (2001) suggest. Dodd (2001) has described her five learning stages through her teaching career, namely, Stage 1: confusion, chaos, and survival (theory discounted); Stage 2: coping and recipe collecting (theory ignored or denigrated); Stage 3: trusting the experts (theory borrowing); Stage 4: questioning the experts (theory building); Stage 5: self-actualisation (theory refined and integrated with reflective practice).

Microteaching, the practicum and the early years of teaching offer a space for early idealism and personal survival, where pre-service teachers are concerned about good and bad examples of teaching and where they start growing out of feelings of insecurity and ask for learners to accept them as teachers (Pachler & Field, 2001). It is no wonder that during the practicum, pre-service teachers experience a situation where there is a gap between their knowledge of teaching practices from teacher education and what the actual practice of teaching in school is (Hudson, Nguyen, & Hudson, 2008). Even an initial English teacher is often "reality shocked" in her first year of teaching after teacher education (Farrell, 2003, p.95). Initial teachers often feel confused and even reject the theory they learned in their teacher education (Dodd, 2001). After some years in the profession, teachers change from the early idealism stage to a moving on stage, called the theorising stage (Farrell, 2003). Later in their professional lives, pre-service teachers will become experienced teachers and achieve the self-actualisation stage (Dodd, 2001), in which they start developing a personal approach to foreign language teaching (their own personal teaching styles) (Dodd, 2001; Pachler & Field, 2001) and ideally become "critical and reflective thinkers" (Richards, 1998, p.xiv).

Microteaching has been part of language teacher education for a long time (Crandall, 2000) as the first place to gain practical knowledge (Wallace, 1991). Through microteaching, pre-service teachers can be encouraged to reflect on both the received knowledge and experience (Wallace, 1991). Microteaching also gives the PSETs a training context, although the teaching situation is modified or simplified for the purpose of reducing the teaching tasks, length of the lesson and class size in some systematic ways (Wallace, 1991). The modifications during the microteaching are intended to reduce the risk and cost for the PSETs in terms of their anxiety (Wallace, 1991). A teacher educator can use microteaching as a technique for professional reflection, not merely as a way to shape their teaching behaviour (Wallace, 1991).

Scrivener (2005) has incorporated all of these aspects of microteaching and practicum into his conception of student teachers' experiential learning cycle. This cycle uses actual teaching over and over again as the core of learning teaching by student teachers. The cycle includes five components: do, recall, reflect, conclude, and prepare (Scrivener, 2005). This experiential learning cycle means that student

teachers can learn teaching by doing the teaching, recalling what actually happened in the teaching, reflecting on the aspects of teaching, concluding what needs improvement and preparing for better teaching. While the responsibility to implement these components lies with the student teachers themselves, the people around them, namely, teacher educators, peers, and supervising teachers can all provide feedback for the student teachers (Scrivener, 2005). These people provide support for student teachers' learning outside the cycle.

2.4 Studies of learning to teach in microteaching and practicum

Some studies have shown what pre-service teachers learn in microteaching. In fact, in most teacher education, videotaped microteaching has been used in pre-service teacher education for learning to teach (Orlova, 2009). Amobi's (2005) research, for example, shows that pre-service teachers learn different degrees of reflectivity on the sequence and consequences of teaching actions in two videotaped microteaching experiences. Thirty one student teachers, majoring in math, science, English and social studies were taking a general method course in an American university. As part of the course, they were asked to videotape two microteaching lessons and write two-page reflections on them. The lesson was peer evaluated on certain criteria prepared by the instructors. It was found that the student teachers had different perceptions of their own performance. In their reflections some of them only recalled and reviewed the event of the lesson, while others expressed positive and mixed perceptions of their performances. In response to their peers' comments, the participants took four different confronting stands: passive, defensive, affirmative, and self-critique. From this study, Amobi (2005) concludes that microteaching is a meaningful learning experience, but that learner teachers are also vulnerable to criticism, yet through their reflection there is potential for them to improve their teaching skills by themselves (Amobi, 2005).

The practicum too has become a significant place for learning to teach through experience of teaching in real schools, because "learning from experience takes place in the life world of everyday context" (Moon, 2004, p.104). As reiterated by Wallace (1991), a part of learning to be teachers "in the college or university ought to be experiential in nature" (p.26). Thus, for teachers' professional education, as for other

professional education, a partnership between university and schools is very important (Schön, 1987). Pungur (2007) believes that the success of PSETs' teaching in the practicum may depend on how well the teacher education institutions and schools conduct their partnerships. More importantly, the success of the practicum depends on the student teachers themselves, because they are the ones who combine the theory (from teacher education) and practice (in schools).

A study in Israel by Orland-Barak and Yinon (2007, p.959) examined three PSETs' reflection on what they had learned in a university unit called "Classroom Discourse: Students examine their own practice", and whether it was applicable in their practicum lessons. They videotaped one practicum lesson and analysed whether they had implemented "issues in classroom discourse (as related to notions such as moves, patterns of turn taking, and patterns of interaction)" (Orland-Barak & Yinon, 2007, p.959). It should be noted that this unit asked the PSETs to read theories of Classroom Discourse; therefore, this unit is completely different from the CD unit in the study reported in this thesis. The PSETs in Orland-Barak and Yinon's (2007) study were given a series of reflective questions for their reflective reports on their transcribed classroom discourse. In this way, they could identify their pattern of classroom discourse and see if the theory of the Classroom Discourse unit fitted well with the practice setting (Orland-Barak & Yinon, 2007).

It was found that the three PSETs had different patterns of classroom discourse and different understandings of how the theory they had learned fitted their practice. The first PSET admitted to have a controlling pattern of classroom discourse and she was able to connect what she had done with the theory she had learned. Another PSET generated "new theories of practice as a result of examining practice in light of theory" (Orland-Barak & Yinon, 2007, p.965). The third PSET found that there was a gap between what she had planned for her lesson based on the theory she had learned and the actual classroom discourse of her lesson. As a result of this, she developed her own understanding of classroom discourse based on her lesson, that is, she developed her own personal theory. It was concluded in this study that how PSETs see the way in which the theory of Classroom Discourse meets the actual classroom discourse practice was idiosyncratic, each PSET having a different reflection and understanding (Orland-Barak & Yinon, 2007).

However, learning from the practicum in schools as part of the process of schooling (Freeman & Johnson, 1998) is not an easy task for pre-service teachers. In fact, several studies have documented the challenges pre-service teachers face during the practicum. For example, Pailliotet (1997) studied one PSET of Asian origin in an American university in order to find out the challenges she faced to become an English teacher when she was on campus, off campus, and at school. Multiple data sources revealed that this PSET faced many difficulties in her experience, such as: conflicts between past and present experiences, language and communication problems, home/school tensions, financial concerns, social isolation, stereotyping and prejudice (Pailliotet, 1997). Similarly, Pinder (2008) studied the experience of pre-service teachers majoring in general subjects doing a practicum in schools in New Zealand. It was found that the practicum involves emotional feelings and negotiations between those involved in it (Pinder, 2008). In fact, Hayland and Lo's (2006) study confirmed that if there is a miscommunication between those involved in practicum, the success of student teachers in learning from practice may be disturbed. Therefore, Ferrier-Kerr (2009) concluded from her study that a professional relationship between those involved in the practicum should be maintained.

In Malaysia, Kabilan and Izzaham (2008) describe the challenges of one PSET doing her practicum in a secondary school. As a non native speaker of English in an ESL context, this PSET had to cope with the challenges of teaching ESL, including the mixed abilities of the pupils, the use of the mother tongue by pupils, and pupils' expectation of a teacher-centred approach. Despite these challenges, this PSET was successful in coping with them by relying on her prior knowledge for her decision making (Kabilan & Izzaham, 2008).

In the Indonesian context, Yusuf (2010) reported a case study on pre-service teachers' perceptions of their university preparation for their practicum, though the university context, the subjects taught, methods, and findings of this study were not clearly described. Eleven pre-service teachers, nine supervising teachers and one lecturer were interviewed and some classroom observations were conducted. As the reported findings were not supported by evidence, they can only be considered as claims. The claims of findings reported by Yusuf (2010) refer to perceptions, partnerships, and

practice. Four of the pre-service teachers perceived little benefit from their practicum, as they were mostly involved in teachers' administrative duties. In contrast, most of the pre-service teachers felt that their university got benefit from the partnerships between with schools. Although all of the pre-service teachers claimed to have learnt from "practical matters that will help them to implement in their daily routines as a teacher", classroom observation showed that these pre-service teachers had problems with their "monotonous teaching" (Yusuf, 2010, p.35). It was not clearly described by Yusuf (2010) what monotonous teaching was like. Finally, the pre-service teachers also found that their supervising teachers and lecturer provided good supervision for their practicum teaching. Despite the lack of clarity of the findings and the methods applied in collecting the data and data analysis of this study, this article showed that pre-service teachers have diverse experiences during a practicum.

In Switzerland, Hascher, Cocard, and Moser (2004) studied 150 PSETs' feelings of improvement after doing the practicum lessons on three occasions. These PSETs were non native speakers of English. From the completed questionnaire and diaries about their learning during practicum, it was found that there was improvement in teaching skills, more self-esteem and subjective well-being. This finding was also supported by mentor teachers' answers on the questionnaire about the PSETs' skills in preparing, conducting and post-processing lessons. According to Hascher et al. (2004) the PSET participants in their study were in a novice teacher or survival stage, not yet having achieved the mastery, or even the routine stage.

All these studies show that in the teacher education practicum in many countries in the world, PSETs have different experiences, and face different challenges, but most of the studies show that the PSETs have a positive feeling about their teaching experience in the practicum. However, none of these studies focus on how the PSETs implement the classroom language they learn at the university in their practicum lessons. This research, therefore, fills this gap.

2.5 Chapter summary

This chapter has attempted to locate this study of Indonesian PSETs learning and use of classroom language in a broader body of knowledge in language teacher education.

The literature documents three models of teacher education, namely, the craft model, the applied science model, and the (advanced) reflective model, and also introduces the current sociocultural perspective of teacher education. Each of the models assumes a different knowledge base needed by teachers and different ways to develop PSETs' knowledge and skills. How academics have conceived of teachers' knowledge and skills has also been discussed in this chapter. It is suggested that the kinds of teaching skills for teachers in general and language teachers in particular are influenced by the beliefs about good teaching held by the teacher educators guiding their preparation to be teachers. The expected teaching skills are often learned by student teachers through microteaching and practicum lessons. Studies on learning to teach in microteaching have focused on how PSETs reflect on their microteaching lesson videos, while studies on student teachers' practicum have focused on the challenges they faced during the practicum, including relationships with supervising teachers. Only one study conducted by Orland-Barak and Yinon (2007) looks at all similar to the research reported in this thesis. However, the content of the Classroom Discourse unit in their study and PSETs' reflection tasks are completely different from those in this research. Indeed none of the studies reviewed in this chapter trace how non native PSETs learn to teach using classroom language through two contexts, microteaching and the practicum. It is, therefore, hoped that this research, will contribute fresh insights to the literature.

Chapter 3
Learning and Using Classroom Language

This chapter presents definitions of classroom language and how it is taught to pre-service teachers. The first section specifies and justifies the definition of classroom language applied in this research. Section Two reviews studies on the use of the target and first languages in foreign language classrooms, including code switching between the target language and first language by either experienced or pre-service teachers. The third section details different kinds of scaffolding in language classrooms, drawing on studies in EFL and ESL contexts. The last section of this chapter discusses classroom language training for in-service and pre-service teachers reported in the professional and research literature.

3.1 Definitions of classroom language

The word classroom language has been used in English teacher training since the 1980s (see Section 3.4 for details about classroom language training). "Classroom language" is the name of an entire chapter in Willis' popular book (Willis, 1981, p.vii). It includes teacher language in certain areas of methodology, such as oral production and teaching reading. Throughout Willis' book, trainees are introduced to "the specialised and idiomatic forms of the English used when teaching English" (Willis, 1981, p.vi). Classroom Language is also the title of Salaberri's later book "for teachers of English who do not feel confident enough to use English as the main language of communication with their classes" (Salaberri, 1995, p.i). In both books, English, the target language, is the main language of communication in the classroom. This classroom language should also be taught to pupils according to Macaro (1997), who wrote about foreign language teaching in the UK.

Classroom language as defined in Willis (1981) and Salaberri (1995) has been described further by recent language teacher educators. Cullen (2001), for example, asserts that classroom language is used by teachers "typically…when giving instructions, explaining, asking questions,…, responding to and evaluating students' contributions, signalling the beginning and end of activities and lesson stages, and so on" (p. 29). Louwerse (2001) suggests classroom language phrases such as "Open

your books to page fifteen" to "May I go to the bathroom?" Bilash (2010) adds more examples such as "Take out your books" or "Please sit down". These are examples of "the routine language that is used on a regular basis" (Bilash, 2010), which is "normally found in classrooms and particularly classrooms where the learners are young learners" (Macaro, 1997, p.64). It can be concluded that these authors defined classroom language as English words or expressions used by teachers as the main language of daily communication in the language classroom.

Johnson (2009) offers a broad definition: "[t]he language of the L2 classroom…, [which] is fundamentally different from language in the everyday world" (p.52). This broad definition of classroom language includes what the pupils say, as both the teacher and pupils contribute to classroom language.

3.1.2 Classroom language versus teacher talk

Classroom language is distinguished from teacher talk in two ways. First, the term 'teacher talk' is the commonest phrase to describe the language which teachers use for teaching, such as in the work of Sinclair and Brazil (1982) and Cullen (1998). The term classroom language, on the other hand, has been used in language teacher education literature to mean specific idiomatic expressions in the target language used for teaching a language class. Authors such as Bilash (2010), Cullen (2001), Louwerse (2001), Macaro (1997), Salaberri (1995), Slattery and Willis (2001), and Willis (1981) list English expressions for daily routines to be used by non-native English speaker teachers, especially in primary classrooms. Similar examples to these can be found in early books providing language training such as those by Heaton (1981) and Hughes (1981).

The term 'teacher talk' allocates a key role to the teacher. This is evident in Sinclair and Brazil's (1982, p.7) observation that the "teacher dominates the talk in quantity, range and degree of control". According to Crookes (2003, p.78), "the term 'teacher talk' is often used negatively, to characterize teacher speech to language students that seems to underestimate their capacity of understanding". The term classroom language, on the other hand, emphasises real classroom communication in the target language so that the pupils can contribute to classroom interaction (Salaberri, 1995).

Moreover, in line with the current sociocultural view of learning, "we can look at classroom language to see what sort of dialogic mediation may or may not be" happening there and how it supports pupils' learning (Johnson, 2009, p.53). In other words, classroom language assumes interactions between teachers and pupils. Without consideration of this interaction, it is impossible to detect the success of a language lesson; according to Seedhouse (2004) pupils' responses need to be associated with the teacher's turn if full understanding of what is happening is to be achieved.

The idea that classroom language is more than teacher talk can be clearly seen in the way Johnson (1990) has described classroom language to teachers in Hong Kong. Johnson (1990) suggests that classroom language has three aspects: physiological, interpersonal and pedagogical aspects. The physiological aspects concern the sounds of the language, including producing a clear, loud voice, and the right pronunciation of and the right intonation in the target language. The interpersonal aspects of classroom language include the modes (such as controlling the class, organizing the class, and motivating the class) which may be realised in many different utterances, and which express a range of functions such as: to get things done (Sinclair & Brazil, 1982), to serve as questions or follow up, to orient the students to the lesson, to explain lesson objectives, or to check students' understanding or solicit information from students (Nunan & Lamb, 1996). The pedagogical aspects of classroom language consist of three modes: operative, interactive and informative (Johnson, 1990). The operative mode is manifested in three phases called framing, mediating and evaluating. Each of these phrases is marked by teachers' direction and pupils' performance (Johnson, 1990). The interactive mode has the same phases as those of the operative modes, but it is marked with teachers' elicitation and pupils' replies or responses. The informative mode of classroom language is divided into three phases namely: framing, informing and consolidating. Johnson (1990) argues that these aspects are universal for teachers of all subjects.

3.1.3 Classroom language in this research

Given the range of definitions of classroom language given previously, it is important to take a stand on which definition of classroom language best fits this study. The

data in Phase 1 of this research reflect the limited definition of classroom language previously mentioned, that is, English words or expressions used by English teachers as the main language of daily communication in the classroom. However, the data of the actual language used in practicum lessons (Phase 2 of the research) include not only teacher talk in English but also a great deal of first language and mother tongue used by both the (student) teachers and the pupils. This means the limited definition of classroom language does not cover these classroom data. Instead, the broader definition of classroom language proposed by Johnson (2009) covers all language used by the (student) teachers (PSETs) and their pupils in practicum lessons.

Therefore, classroom language is defined broadly in this research as the language produced by both the (student) teachers and the pupils in their responses. Thus, the definition of classroom language in this research is similar to Johnson's (2009) definition of classroom language. It is expected that teachers' classroom language plays two roles, as language input available for the learners (Gass, 2003; Harmer, 2007; Macaro, 1997) and as a trigger for the language learners to produce language (Gass, 2003) in interaction with the teachers (Hall & Walsh, 2002).

3.1.4 Studies on features of teachers' classroom language use

This section reviews studies on features of classroom language used by pre-service and in-service teachers. The first of these is Menon's (1993) study, where she compared the features of the classroom language used by eight PSETs and INSETs in one TESL course in a Malaysian university. Menon (1993) found that the PSETs and INSETs had similarities and differences in their language use. Both groups used classroom language mostly for asking questions, using strategies such as checking understanding and eliciting (Menon, 1993). Both groups also rarely used reminding, reprimanding and giving permission, but they frequently used language for prompting, clarifying and checking progress. The differences between the two groups were in their use of language for organising, directing, presenting, correcting and summarising. The PSETs tended to use language for presenting the lesson (giving information) and verbal control of the learners' language and behaviour more than did the INSETs. In correcting, the PSETs were more critical of the learners' language than were the INSETs (Menon, 1993). In contrast, the INSETs tended to be more

selective in correcting the learners' output. Finally, the INSETs gave a higher priority to summarising than did the PSETs (Menon, 1993). Menon (1993) suspected that the difference was partly related to the difference in activities in the lessons as well as teachers' experience.

Another study on classroom language features was set in an American university. Giouroukakis, Honigsfeld, Endres-Nenchin, and Peluso (2008) investigated the characteristics of 15 native-speaking PSETs' instructional discourse when giving a tutoring session as part of the practical component of their teaching method in TESOL. The data were collected from audio taped tutoring sessions, tutoring journals, course assignments, observation notes, and individual and focused group discussion. They were analysed using Chaudron's (1988) typology of teacher talk (phonological, morphological, syntactical and discourse modifications). It was found that all these kinds of language modifications were made by the PSETs. Phonological modifications included exaggerated articulation, pauses, slower rates of speech, less reduction of vowels and consonant clusters, and louder delivery (Giouroukakis, et al., 2008). To facilitate students' comprehension of content they used basic vocabulary as well as syntactical modifications such as fewer subordinate clauses, shorter utterances, a higher proportion of simple present and a higher proportion of well-formed sentences. The PSETs also used modifications in discourse such as first person reference, teacher-initiated moves, conversational frames, and more self repetitions. To praise the learners, the PSETs used expressions such as "Excellent!" and "Good job!" as a discourse modification (Giouroukakis, et al., 2008, p.12).

In an EFL context in Thailand, Todd, Chaisayuk and Tantisawetrat (2008) studied the features of native English speaker teachers' instruction in English lessons. From four EAP classes, four whole two-hour lessons were video recorded, in which the researcher identified nine directing transactions containing 1,373 words. While one teacher was asked about his intentions in directing transactions, students' views were not sought (Todd, et al., 2008). They used Sinclair and Brazil's (1982) classroom discourse categories to analyse their data. This study identified four types of exchange: instruction, inform, boundary and insertions (off topic information) (Todd, et al., 2008). They also found the following moves in the directing transactions: frame, focus, direct, opening, counting, recall given information, transfer knowledge,

give moral support, complaint, organise the class and filler. From the frequencies of the data they found that the types of exchanges included: instruction (40%), insertion (30%), inform (22%) and boundary (8%), while the moves include direct (49%), transfer knowledge (24%), filler (7%), frame (4%), complain (5%), focus(3%), organise the class (2 %), giving moral support, opening, counting (all 1%) (Todd, et al., 2008).

Johnson (1992) studied what PSETs in an American university did in their videotaped practicum instruction and why they carried out those actions. The six PSETs in Johnson's (1992) study were a mix of four native English speakers and two proficient non native English speakers. These PSETs were interviewed after they watched their videotaped lessons. Johnson (1992) found that the most implemented types of instructional language used by the participants were explaining concepts and procedures (28 %), checking knowledge (24 %), eliciting and incorporating input (24 %), giving feedback (18 %), focusing attention and applying, extending and planning (each 3 %). The study also found that the participants reported that their actions in the instructional communication were based on student understanding (37 %), student motivation and involvement (17 %), instructional management (15 %), curriculum integration (9 %), subject matter content and students' language skills and ability (each 8 %) (Johnson, 1992). Finally, she found that PSETs' prior knowledge was also contributing to their actions particularly in relation to the appropriateness of the teaching strategy (65 %), students' language skills and probable knowledge (19 %) and important content and pedagogical principles (8 %) (Johnson, 1992).

This review reveals a gap in the research in that there seem to be few if any studies on how non native pre-service English (as a foreign language) teachers learn to use classroom language in a university unit and use it in the microteaching at the university and in the practicum at secondary schools. More interestingly, no studies have been undertaken in Indonesia in this field, which justifies the need for the present research.

3.2 Use of target language and first language in language classrooms

According to Willis (1992), use of target language along with pupils' first language is common in EFL classrooms. From her observation, therefore, Willis (1992) suggests that EFL lessons have inner and outer layers. The inner layer is marked by teachers' use of the target language while the outer layer is usually marked by the use of learners' first language. Differently from Willis (1992), Pennington (2002) broke down a language lesson into four frames, namely, commentary, institutional-support, lesson-support, and lesson frames. The core of the lesson is the lesson frames while the external layer is the institutional-support frame. Pennington (2002) demonstrated that using these frames, one can differentiate which language is used by whom and for which purposes. In Pennington's (2002) example of an English lesson in Hong Kong, the pupils produced the piece of language in the lesson frame in English, while the English teacher and other pupils provided the support for the lesson in English and mixed English and Cantonese.

The layers and frames in EFL classrooms in different languages suggest that monolingual English teaching using only English as the medium of instruction is unrealistic, especially in EFL contexts (Orland-Barak & Yinon, 2005), whose teachers are non native English speakers (Dash, 2002). In fact, the ideal exclusive use of the target language in the EFL context is stipulated in national policy in only a small number of countries and has rarely if ever been put into practice (Littlewood & Yu, 2011). In practice, the EFL lesson is marked by the use of first language as a medium of instruction (outer discourse structure) and the use of the target language as the language being taught (inner discourse structure) (Willis, 1992). It is no surprise that the choice of target language or pupils' first language in communicative English teaching has been debated for some time (Turnbull & Arnett, 2002; Wei & Martin, 2009).

The proponents of the use of the target language argue that exposure to the target language spoken by teachers is important because it is often the only source of linguistic input for the learners (Guest & Pachler, 2001; Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Turnbull & Arnett, 2002). Therefore, teachers who hold this view want to maximize the use of the target language in their teaching practice (Littlewood & Yu, 2011;

Turnbull & Arnett, 2002) and often forbid the use of the first language. This is called a virtual (or unreal) position by Macaro (2001a). If the target language is used effectively by the teacher, learners will be exposed to the target language, improve their listening skills, learn new teaching/learning strategies, have demonstrated the importance of the foreign language, and see how language can be used to do things (Turnbull & Arnett, 2002). In the long run, it is possible that pupils acquire new words, especially the most frequently used items of classroom language such as: greetings, instructions, labelled items of furniture and equipment, as well as the linguistic habits of the teacher. They might be able to respond in the target language too (Guest & Pachler, 2001).

In contrast, for the supporters of first language use, the quality of input is more important than the quantity of input when it comes to intake (Macaro, 1997). Van Lier (1995) argues that the use of learners' language can promote intake for learners. Macaro (1997, 2001a) calls this the maximal position of the use of the first language. Many language learners in Hong Kong and China can recall the use of first language by their English teachers for socialisation purposes (Littlewood & Yu, 2011). The ability and size of the group, receptiveness of the pupils, and many other factors such as discipline problems and interruptions from outside often make teachers choose not to use the target language (Littlewood & Yu, 2011). In the absence of a supportive environment for target language use, such as "classroom routines, adequate preparation" and pupils' feelings of "confidence and security", the use of the target language can inhibit pupils' learning (Guest & Pachler, 2001, p.85). Both teachers and pupils, especially if they cannot speak the target language, need high concentration to understand and use the target language. This often makes the pupils tired, "demotivated and frustrated" (Guest & Pachler, 2001, p.85). To prevent this from happening, teachers can use pupils' first language to a minor extent (Guest & Pachler, 2001; Macaro, 1997) for "explaining the meaning of new words, explaining the aims of lesson, checking understanding of learners and discussion for understanding a passage" (Guest & Pachler, 2001, p.85), or they can use some translation (Creese & Blackledge, 2010) to help comprehension of materials and directions (Willis, 1981). Macaro (1997, 2001a) called this position the optimal use of pupils' first language in learning the target language.

To bridge the debate, Cummins (2007) proposed a bridge between the two opposing views of the use of first language and target language between the monolingual views and the bilingual/multilingual views. For Cummins (2007) "a balanced and complementary way" of using bilingual instructional strategies along with monolingual strategies is viable by means of translations. This means the teachers allows the learners, whose first or native language is not the language being learned, to translate one's first/native language to help others in expressing their ideas. According to Cummins (2007), translation by the learners is a potential tool for learning, i.e. scaffolding their own performance in the target language.

3.2.1 Studies on the use of target language vs. first language in language classrooms

There are several studies on teachers' use of pupils' first language in foreign language classrooms. A study by Schweers (1999), for example, found that in teaching EFL a university EFL teacher used Spanish (the learners' first language) more than one third of the time to explain difficult concepts. The learners believed that the use of Spanish by their teacher facilitated their learning of the target language (Schweers, 1999). The senior teacher used Spanish more often than did the less senior teacher against the author's expectation (Schweers, 1999). In Schweers' (1999) study, Spanish was used to build relationships with learners, to simplify procedures, to control behaviour, to check understanding, and to teach explicit grammar. Teachers switched language to save time in explaining difficult concepts and avoid ambiguity, and more importantly to impose authority on the learners (Schweers, 1999).

Similarly, in the Indonesian university context, Pasaribu (2001) surveyed students of some private universities about their English lessons. He found that most students reported that Indonesian was used by their teachers to some extent in the lessons, especially for explaining difficult concepts, to help improve students' comprehension of concepts and for some administration matters. Many students also preferred that their English teachers use Indonesian language when they taught English (Pasaribu, 2001). Even in the English department at private universities, the lecturers use Indonesian along with English for motivating the students to learn more about English grammar (Refnita, 2007).

Macaro (2006) points out that for many bilingual teachers, code switching to the first language during classroom discourse is something that they try hard to avoid. This happens naturally, especially when the language teachers and learners share the same mother tongue or the teachers speak a little bit of the learners' first language (Macaro, 2006), whether at primary (e.g., Kang, 2008), secondary (e.g., Grim, 2010) or even at college (e.g., Grim, 2010) and university level (e.g., Wilkerson, 2008) and with general adult learners (e.g., Brooks-Lewis, 2007).

Because most foreign language teachers are non native speakers of the language being taught (Canagarajah, 1999; Hayes, 2009; Snow, et al., 2006), the proponents of teaching English through English (e.g., Slattery & Willis, 2001; Willis, 1981) still allow an occasional use of learners' first language. Teachers can take advantage of switching to first language to give comprehensible input and negotiate meaning with pupils (Macaro, 2006). They may also switch to the first language because they are not ready for full use of the target language in teaching (Bateman, 2008; Macaro, 2006) or due to the learners' difficulty in tackling meaning exclusively in the target language (Bateman, 2008; Macaro, 2001a) or because they are following the policy of the school (Duff & Polio, 1990). Thus, the decision for switching to the learners' first language has to be based on the idea that the pupils may gain more advantages than disadvantages (Guest & Pachler, 2001; Macaro, 2006).

In a review of studies on code switching, Ferguson (2003) suggests three purposes for teachers switching code either from the target language to the first language or from the first to the target language. The first is for curriculum access, in which the switching is to mediate the textual meaning for pupils who have low proficiency and to scaffold knowledge construction for them (Ferguson, 2003). The second is for classroom management, in which switching is mainly for disciplining pupils and to get their attention (Ferguson, 2003). Thirdly, code switching is for interpersonal relations, through which teacher and pupils who share a similar cultural background can build a personal touch, and sometimes to bridge the twinning identities of the teacher (fellow countryman and 'native' speaker) in the classroom (Ferguson, 2003). According to Ferguson (2003) a program is needed in teacher education curricula that includes awareness raising regarding classroom code-switching. This would draw

trainees' attention to the existence of language alternation in communities and classrooms, and reassure them that this is very common, in fact normal, behaviour in these settings. The program could also highlight some of the functions that code-switching has in multilingual classrooms, and make the point that it can be a useful communicative resource for helping pupils understand lesson content, for managing pupil behaviour, and for maintaining a good classroom climate. According to Ferguson (2003) code-switched talk can be more or less helpful, depending on when and why it occurs.

There are many recent, additional studies on code switching in foreign language classrooms. For example, Ustunel and Seedhouse (2005) looked at teacher initiated code-switching and its pedagogical focus in six whole English lessons in a Turkish university. Audio and video recordings provided verbal and nonverbal information about the lessons, which were then analysed using conversation analysis. It was found that code-switching was used to deal with a lack of response in the L2, to get learners to translate into the L1 for clarification, to provide a prompt for L2 use, and to deal with procedural trouble. Moreover, three systematic uses of code-switching were identified, namely:

- When there is no L2 answer to the teacher's question in the L2, the teacher code-switches to L1 after a pause of more than one second. Typically, the teacher will repeat or modify the question at least once in the L2 before the CS occurs.
- [L]earners express their alignment with the teacher's pedagogical focus by speaking in the L2, or express misalignment by speaking in the L1.
- [W]here the teacher's pedagogical focus is to induce learners to code-switch…learners express alignment by code-switching. (Ustunel & Seedhouse, 2005, p.321)

Ustunel and Seedhouse (2005, p.321) concluded that "pupils' language choice depends on teachers' pedagogical focus" and "the language choice is embedded in the interactional architecture of the language classroom and the interactional architecture depends on the institution goal of the learning context".

In Korea, Kang (2008) studied how one English teacher in an elementary school used English as the medium of instruction. It was found that this teacher used Korean and English in her lesson. The patterns of her language use are exclusive use of Korean, exclusive use of English, and use of Korean or English followed by either Korean or English. Korean is used because in the teachers' belief, the pupils could not

understand her when she used English. In the teacher's experience, pupils tended to be disciplined if they were given instructions in Korean. English was used only for the piece of language pupils would learn and specific expressions for daily routines such as greetings. Use of mixed codes of either English-Korean or Korean-English occurred mostly between sentences, not within sentences. Such a pattern resembles translation from one language to another.

In Malaysia, Then and Ting (2009) compared the functions of teacher code-switching in English as a medium of instruction in secondary school English and science lessons. It was found that in the English lesson, there was little code-switching. In the science lesson, however, code-switching was frequently used by the teacher to give reiteration and message qualification. The commonest pattern of switch was English to Bahasa Malaysia, similar to translating English to the learners' first language. It was concluded that "code-switching is a necessary tool for teachers to achieve teaching goals in content-based lessons involving students who lack proficiency in the instructional language" (Then & Ting, 2009, p.1).

Studies also found code switching by foreign language teachers in Spanish, Korean, Japanese, and German lessons. For example, Lacorte (2005) investigated how five Spanish language teachers managed their classroom transitions between different teaching events and related the teachers' decision in managing the transitions with their knowledge and beliefs about control over instructions. It was found that the "personal and subjective understandings of teaching and learning a language" play roles in the Spanish teacher's decision on the control over the instructional sequence and the use of English and Spanish during the transitions (Lacorte, 2005). The teachers used first language to achieve pedagogic control (to maintain the focus in the class activities) and discipline control (to avoid interventions to the lesson) through their instruction (Lacorte, 2005, p.388). Another finding is that the combination of English and Spanish was not based on the teachers' knowledge about the cognitive values of the use of first language to support the learning of target language; rather, it was based on their personal knowledge, understanding and experience of learning the target language (Lacorte, 2005).

In New Zealand, Kim and Elder (2005) studied seven native speaker teachers' language choice and its pedagogic functions in Japanese, Korean, German, and French lessons. Using AS-units (Foster, Tonkyn, & Wigglesworth, 2000) to count the proportion of the target language and first language use of the teachers, the researchers found that some teachers used the target language more frequently than others, for different purposes (Kim & Elder, 2005). The highest proportion of target language use was 88% and the lowest was 23%. Moreover, among the teachers, the highest use of either pure first language or mixed first language was 76% and the lowest proportion of first language or mixed first language was 32% (Kim & Elder, 2005). The pedagogic functions of the code switching were different among the teachers, but Model/Correct/Scaffold (MCS) in the target language were the most frequent functions for three of the teachers. This was followed by Acc (accept) (2 teachers) and Cue (1 teacher) (Kim & Elder, 2005). There was also a tendency that teachers who used a high proportion of first language mostly used the target language to carry out the MCS functions (Kim & Elder, 2005). In contrast, the teachers who either used a high proportion of target language or a low proportion of target language, used their target language toward the goals of the lessons, not for management of the classroom (Kim & Elder, 2005). They concluded that there was no relationship between language choice and particular pedagogic function (Kim & Elder, 2005) due to limited quantity and quality of target language input provided by the teachers.

Similar to their previous study, Kim and Elder (2008) compared the use of target language by two native speaker teachers of Korean and French. They found that the French teacher used the target language for 88% of classroom communication, compared to 23% of Korean by the second teacher (Kim & Elder, 2008). All use of the target language was oriented toward the framework goal, management, by both teachers. For the French teacher, her target language use served MCS functions, while the Korean teacher mostly used the students' first language (English) for acceptance (Kim & Elder, 2008). When they were asked about their beliefs about the use of the target language, both teachers expressed the need for target language use to support students' learning, although in fact the Korean teacher did not use Korean as the medium of instruction, since she had experienced practical problems, such as students not understanding her language (Kim & Elder, 2008). The researchers concluded that

proficiency of the learners, teachers' attitude towards target language use, and institutional/social factors play roles in their decision to use/not use the target language.

While a number of studies have focused on the code-switching of experienced native speaker teachers when teaching foreign languages, there is only very limited research on pre-service teachers' code switching. For example, Orland-Barak and Yinon (2005) investigated how pre-service native English speaker teachers used pupils' first language in their practicum lessons. This study included 14 PSETs, who had either Arabic or Hebrew speaking backgrounds and had done readings on Classroom Discourse and taught one practicum lesson. The PSETs were asked to videotape, transcribe, and write a reflection on their lessons. They had been encouraged to use English in the classroom and minimise the use of Arabic or Hebrew respectively. While the social context of each ethnic group was different, the findings of the study showed that both groups had similar actions and reflections on the use of English and either Arabic or Hebrew. It was found that three purposes of using the pupils' first language were seen in the PSETs' reflections. The first was for making a comparison between the target language and first language and for helping the pupils to understand what they said in the target language. This was done by giving immediate translations into Arabic or Hebrew for words or expressions spoken in the target language. Secondly, the PSETs used pupils' first language for promoting communication and pupil participation. The third purpose was managerial, i.e. for control and discipline and in order to be liked by pupils. These three purposes are similar to the three functions of code switching in Ferguson's (2003) review discussed previously.

Liu (1999) points out that non native PSETs are very likely to use pupils' first language due to their own low target language proficiency. Despite my best attempts, I have found only two studies on non native pre-service foreign language teachers' code switching. The first is Macaro's (2001a) study. Macaro (2001a) investigated 14 videotaped French lessons taught by six non native pre-service French teachers in England. These student teachers who had high proficiency in French were introduced to three theories of code-switching, namely, the virtual (ideal) position (total exclusion of first language use), the maximal position (resorting to first language

unavoidable), and the optimal position (using first language to enhance learning). Then, two of them were asked to reflect on their use of the languages in their practicum lessons. Macaro (2001a) found that the use of target language in the lessons was on average three quarters of the total classroom talk, while the use of first language was about 7%. The two pre-service French teachers interviewed stated that they used French to a very high percentage following their personal beliefs, the theoretical knowledge about code-switching acquired during the training, and following the government recommendation for target language use. It was concluded that student teachers' use of first language in their teaching was not related to pupils' use of the first language and target language (Macaro, 2001a). Macaro's (2001a) study shows that teacher education is one of the three factors which influence PSETs' behaviour.

Bayliss and Vignola (2007) investigated non native pre-service French teachers' perceptions about their practicum experiences in relation to their French language proficiency. The participants were three groups of pre-service teachers in Canada, namely, of primary-junior level schools (Group 3, 8 pre-service), of junior-intermediate (Group 2, 6 pre-service), and of intermediate-senior schools (Group 1, 12 pre-service). Through focus group interviews, it was found that all of the groups felt their French proficiency was good enough for teaching French as they had passed a French proficiency test in their university. Pre-service teachers in Groups 2 and 3 felt that in the university classes prior to the practicum, French should have been used more often, so that they would have been better prepared in French for cross curriculum subjects. Group 1 felt that the university courses before practicum prepared them enough, as they had already received feedback on their language skills. However, Group 1 found difficulties in tackling a large amount of material in their French immersion program practicum, and in fact experienced negative feedback from their supervising teachers, who were French native speakers. All the groups felt the need for support in terms of French resources at the school and university to maintain their French language proficiency to a good level.

The review on studies on teachers' code switching in foreign language classrooms has shown that there is a gap in the research on code-switching by non native pre-service English teachers. This research will fill the gap to some extent as it focuses on how

PSETs in Indonesia implement classroom language during microteaching and practicum lessons.

3.3 Classroom language for scaffolding language learning

Proponents of classroom language use such as Salaberri (1995) and Macaro (1997) have emphasised its role for assisting learning especially through expressing classroom routines in the target language. Classroom language is one source of situational input for language learners, according to Macaro (1997). Through their classroom language, teachers can modify the input to make it comprehensible to the learners (Gass, 2003). Pawan (2008, p.1454) calls this "linguistic scaffolding." Walsh (2006a) argues that it is in fact the teacher's responsibility to offer linguistic or speech modification, such as in a study by Giouroukakis et al. (2008) following Chaudron's (1988) study.

The range of linguistic support from teachers to the learners to move forward to develop new skills, concepts or levels of understanding is called scaffolding by Gibbons (2002) and Hammond and Gibbons (2001). These authors and others working in the area of ESL teaching (e.g., Clark & Graves, 2005; Gibbons, 2002; Hammond & Gibbons, 2001; Johnson, 2009) have acknowledged that the scaffolding metaphor did not originate in the language teaching field. The metaphor originated from Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory of learning, but it was Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976) who used the metaphor of scaffolding in their study on the help given by a tutor for a child completing a task, which involved "scaffolding" (p.90) in many different ways. The scaffolding metaphor was used "to illustrate how a person can become intimately and productively involved in someone else's learning" (Johnson, 2009, p.70). In scaffolding, learning takes place through dialogic mediation between the learner and the more able adult such as between a child and his or her mother (Gibbons, 2002; Johnson, 2009). According to Forman (2008), this is the broad definition of scaffolding.

However, when the scaffolding metaphor is "appropriated to fit a particular educational philosophy" (Forman, 2008, p.321), it is more narrowly defined. Forman (2008) gives an example of this narrow definition adopted by "the Sydney genre

school" in the 1990s, who defined it as "a supporting organiser in the form of a proforma delineating the structural features of specific types of texts, which will assist students in their composing of oral and written texts" (webpage cited in Forman, 2008, p.28). In the Department of Education New South Wales' current webpage, the term scaffolding is used synonymously as teachers' "support and guidance" which are "provided to assist" the development of students' understanding of the subject including "modelling, cues, steps, partial solutions, teacher questioning, selection and sequencing of examples" (Board of Studies NSW, 2010). This definition shows that the scaffolding metaphor has been appropriated and applied to teacher's classroom language use to assist students to talk or to write. In a similar way, Walsh (2006a, p.120) defined scaffolding narrowly as "the ways in which teachers provide learners with linguistic 'props' to help self expression" during the completion of a linguistic task beyond learners' current capability. Moreover, according to Forman (2008), the scaffolding metaphor is also narrowly used to describe a given function of code switching from the target language to the first language in a foreign language lesson, such as the one in Kim and Elder's (2005) study.

The broad definition of scaffolding provided by Wood et al.(1976) is clearly related to teachers' roles in providing an environment for learning to take place (Scrivener, 2005). Moreover, Sharpe (2001) argued that scaffolding "is inherent in our 'habitual ways of teaching', [and] there are numerous instances of scaffolding in our teaching and learning activities" (p.76). It is also one feature of all teacher talk, according to Walsh (2006a, 2006b). In other words, there is a likelihood that in good teaching, teachers' classroom language will contain scaffolding. While the narrow definition of scaffolding has been considered as an appropriation and adaptation to fit a certain educational philosophy, according to Forman (2008), it may also be called a misinterpretation of scaffolding, according to Johnson (2009). Johnson (2009, p.70) observed that scaffolding has been "uncritically appropriated and misinterpreted by the L2 educational community to represent any and all teacher-student interaction". She cites Kinginger (2002) and Packer (1993) as an example. Quoting other experts such as Aljafreeh and Lantolf (1994) and Swain (2000), Johnson (2009, p.70) also suggests that "dialogic interaction" or "collaborative dialogue" have been used

instead of scaffolding, specifically in second language teaching. All this means that the scaffolding metaphor has to be used with caution (see Section 3.2.2 below).

3.3.1 Kinds of scaffolding

Broad and narrow definitions of scaffolding have been otherwise named in the second language teaching literature. For example, Sharpe (2001) divides scaffolding into two kinds: designed-in-scaffolding and point-of-need scaffolding. The designed-in-scaffolding involves careful planning of the lesson by following a certain curriculum cycle and stages of instruction (Sharpe, 2001). This has also been called scaffolding at the macro level (Hammond & Gibbons, 2001). Almost similarly, Walqui (2006) proposed three levels of scaffolding (at curriculum, lesson plan and interaction levels) for English language learners in the context of subject teaching in elementary schools in the USA. However, she did not specifically address these for scaffolding ELL in learning English as a second language and a school subject. The instructional scaffolding she suggested (such as modelling, bridging contextualising, schema building, re-presenting text, and developing metacognition) are all addressing ELL's problems in expressing subject matter arguments (in English). This could mean that Walqui's (2006) proposal for the scaffolding levels does not fit the context of my research. Rather, her proposal could not be grouped under specific scaffolding in English lessons such as the ones proposed by Walsh (2006a, 2006b) and Forman (2008). In terms of literacy teaching in Australia, stages of teaching genres, namely, building the field, modelling of text, joint construction of text and independent construction of text are also scaffolding in this sense (Gibbons, 2002; Sharpe, 2001). Rose (2006) provides another example of the use of the term, reporting the curriculum cycle for a reading program for indigenous Australian secondary school students which was called the Scaffolding Interaction Cycle.

Designed-in-scaffolding is very important in a lesson. According to Hammond and Gibbons (2005), without a good design, the implementation of scaffolding in an interaction "may become simply a hit and miss affair that may contribute little to the learning goals of specific lessons or units of work" (p.20). Scaffolding in interaction is called point-of-need scaffolding (Sharpe, 2001) or scaffolding at the micro level (Hammond & Gibbons, 2001). This focuses on an individual task by an individual

pupil at a point of need (Sharpe, 2001). As this type of scaffolding mainly involves talk between teacher and individual pupils in classroom interactions (Sharpe, 2001), Walsh's (2006a) and Forman's (2008) kinds of scaffolding can be seen as point-of-need or micro level scaffolding.

Using the descriptions of classroom discourse in an ESL classroom in Ireland, Walsh (2006a) suggests that scaffolding is one of the interactional features of teacher's classroom discourse. According to Walsh (2006a, p.120), scaffolding can be done by teachers in three ways: reformulation, extension and modelling. Reformulation occurs when the teacher reworks a pupil's contribution, as in line 138 in the example below.

> 137 L5 =yeah and also I I do many things (1) many different experiences=
> 138 T=why don't you say you just believe in experiencing as many different things as you want?=
> 139 L5 =oh yeah=
> (Walsh, 2006a, p.45)

Alternatively, if an individual pupil's contribution is very short, the teacher can extend it further so that the learner can express his or her ideas more extensively. Extension is exemplified in line 3 in the example below.

> 2 L1 (3) on the train?=
> 3 T =on the train, on the train does anybody know has anybody ever been to London? Yeah what do you call the underground train in London?
> 4 L (2) the tube=
> (Walsh, 2006a, p.121)

Finally, if a pupil's contribution is incorrect, the teacher can restate it in a correct form, or recast it, so that the learner can repeat it (Walsh, 2006a, p.120). Recast as modelling is found in line 481 in the example below:

> 480 L4   the good news is my sister who live in Korea send eh…
> 481 T   SENT=
> (Walsh, 2006a, p.45)

It may be noted that for Kim and Elder (2005), modelling is used to mean giving an example before the learners produce a piece of language (grammar or pronunciation) in the target language; therefore, modelling, correcting and scaffolding often happen one after another in that order (Kim & Elder, 2005). For Walsh (2006a), however,

modelling is a form of a corrective feedback after an individual student has spoken. For Forman (2008, p.323), scaffolding is defined in an EFL context in Thailand as "the ways in which teachers verbally interact with students in whole-class contexts for pedagogic purposes". This is in contrast to Walsh's (2006a) focus on individual learners. Forman (2008) appropriates the definition of scaffolding, adapting it to the context of EFL teaching, where bilingualism is a common practice. He shows that teachers scaffold learning by addressing the whole class either in the first or the target language.

In Forman's (2008) study, scaffolding is mainly done through the use of priming, prompting and dialoguing by the teachers with the learners. Priming is demonstrated when the teacher offers a word, phrase or utterance of the target language to the learner(s) to be repeated after the teacher says it, which is a kind of drill. Prompting is demonstrated by the teacher when he or she provides cue(s) for the learners so that they produce a piece of target language. The pattern of prompting is similar to Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) pattern (Cazden, 1988; Hall & Walsh, 2002; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), but prompting as scaffolding positions the learners as "actors" under teachers' direction, according to Forman (2008, p.324). Feedback in this context is often replaced with echoing, which, however, "offer[s] little opportunity for critical thinking or creative output on the part of students" (Forman, 2008, p.324). Forman (2008) argues that even echoing is scaffolding in an EFL context, because a one word response is already a sign of teacher-pupil interaction. Asking learners to translate a word from the target language to the learners' first language is also prompting. In this way, prompting can be monolingual, as well as bilingual.

Dialoguing is demonstrated when a teacher participates in a dialogic exchange between teacher and pupils (Forman, 2008). Dialoguing in Forman's (2008) study often happens in talking not only about the specific meaning of word or phrases in the textbooks but also about broader questions, such as "how to render meaning interdiscursively across language/culture" (Forman, 2008, p.326). This is similar to the definition of dialogue in teaching provided by Fischer (2009, p.8), who states that the aim of dialogue is to reach a common understanding, "a meeting of minds" between teacher and pupils. In this process to get common understanding,

bilingualism is often used in prompting and dialoguing. In Forman's (2008) study, if the target language is used during dialoguing, it is usually within the receptive capacities of learners, but beyond their productive capacities.

Figure 3.1 below summarises the kinds of scaffolding previously described.
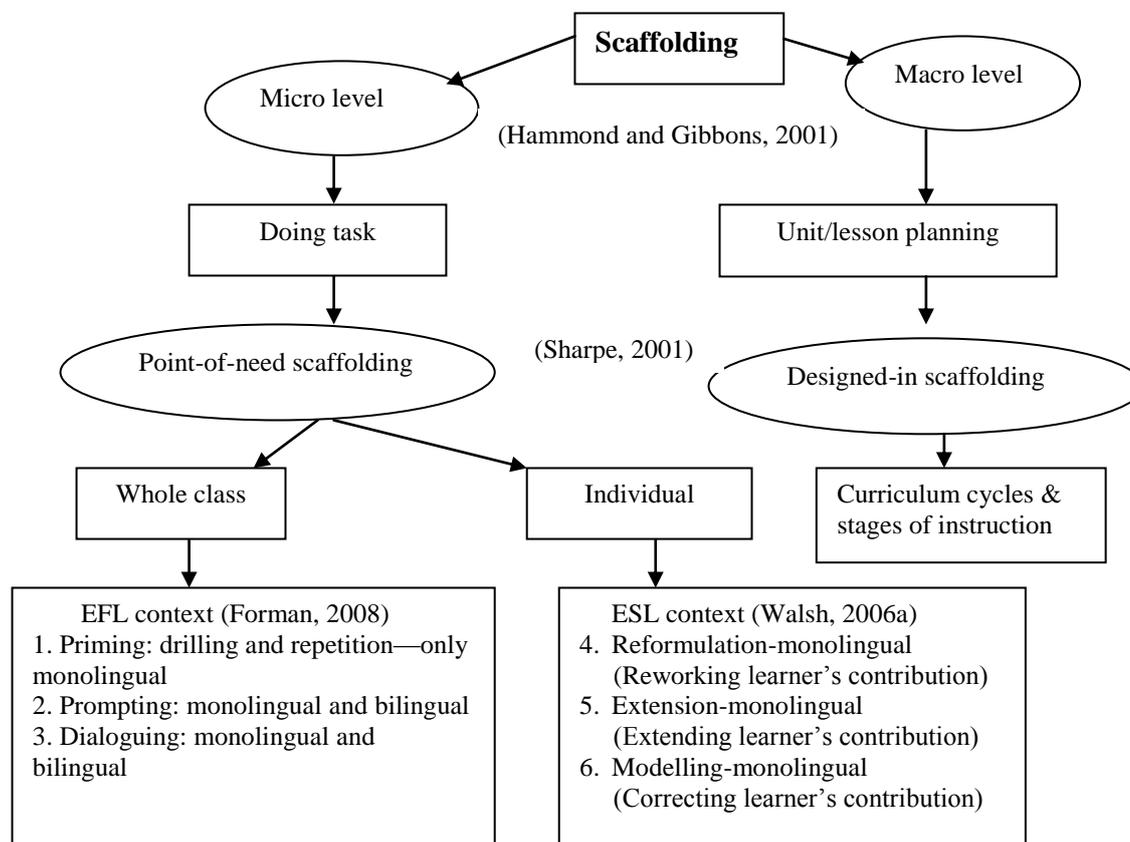
Figure 3.1. Kinds of scaffolding

Figure 3.1 represents the kinds of scaffolding described in the literature review. So far, macro level scaffolding can be manifested through curriculum cycles and stages of instruction, as in genre based teaching (Sharpe, 2001), while micro level scaffolding can be implemented through different types of scaffolding, as proposed by Walsh (2006a) for the ESL context and by Forman (2008) for the EFL context. Reformulation, extension, modelling, priming, prompting and dialoguing all include teachers' classroom language which supports pupils' language production. All these features of scaffolding are used in this study to analyse classroom data. Walsh's (2006a) reformulation, extension, and modelling are used when PSETs use classroom language in English for scaffolding talk in microteaching and practicum lessons. To capture PSETs' use of first language for scaffolding, particularly in practicum lessons, Forman's (2008) priming, prompting and dialoguing are used. It should be

noted that these six kinds of scaffolding are also covered in the list of classroom language expressions suggested by Willis (2002), namely: responding to learners talk (accepting, evaluating rephrasing), recasting into English what a learner has said in the mother tongue, giving feedback during activities, reading, rephrasing and extending story text, eliciting learner contribution and supporting vocabulary development. It can be seen from the above that classroom language has the potential to be used for scaffolding (Sharpe, 2001). However, some caution needs to be exercised when trying to understand the nature of scaffolding.

3.3.2 Some caution about scaffolding

Experts in the broad area of scaffolding such as Sharpe (2001, p.60), suggest that scaffolding strategies may have extremely different supporting values to learners, ranging from least supportive to most supportive. For example, in interactional scaffolding, teachers' questions which are display questions only, but not aimed at developing a logical thought process, are not effective in supporting language development (Gibbons, 2002). It is common for such questions and answers to fall into the famous Initiation-Response-Feedback pattern (Cazden, 1988; Hall & Walsh, 2002; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), such as in the example below:

> T: What is a cat? (I)
> S: A mammal (R)
> T: Right (F) (Sharpe, 2001, p.41)

According to Cullen (2002), the teacher's feedback in the example above has an evaluative role. Gibbons (2002) further points out that with only single word feedback, the teacher in the example above "provides little opportunity for the learner's language to be stretched, for students to focus on how they are saying something, or for giving the practice in using language for themselves" (p. 17).

Cullen (2002) argues that for the example above to be most supportive for pupils' language production, the teacher would need to make the feedback have a "discoursal role" (p. 119) rather than an evaluative one. This could be done by extending the feedback to "deepen and enhance their understanding" as suggested by Gibbons (2002, p.17) or by reformulating and elaborating the feedback (Cullen, 2002). Extension can be made by asking a follow up question "which requires a student to

engage in further talk to push them from their ZPD [Zone of Proximal Development]" (Sharpe, 2001, p.40). Hence the example above could become:

> T: What is a cat? (I)
>
> S: A mammal (R)
>
> T: Right. What else do you know about cats? (F, with follow up question)
>
> (Sharpe, 2001, p.41)

The example above is one of point-of-need scaffolding where the teacher stretches a pupil's response to push the pupil to express his/her ideas which allow the pupil to go beyond his current cognitive level. This has the most supportive value.

Another caution is that during teachers' planning for scaffolding at the unit and task levels, the teachers have to check

> if the lesson builds on and links to what children already know; if the task extends sufficiently beyond what they could already do; if appropriate scaffolding is provided so that task could be successfully completed; and if there is evidence that children develop new concepts or reach a new level of understanding (Gibbons, 2002, p.38).

In addition, Johnson (2009, p.71) reminds us that for scaffolding plans to be successful, "teachers and students subscribe to the views that: knowledge is socially constructed, learning takes place in shared contexts, and talk plays a crucial role in mediating learning". Therefore, if language teachers want to have "a classroom program that is supportive of second language learning" they have to "create opportunities for more varied and dialogic interactional patterns to occur" (Jones, 2001, p.70).

More caution about scaffolding in literature relates to its relation to the ZPD and to its temporal nature. By definition, the teacher's assistance through his/her language should support the cognitive learning of the learners (Gibbons, 2002, p.132) and push the learner through his/her Zone of Proximal Development (Johnson, 2009; Mercer, 1995), the term from Vygotsky which means "the area between what children can do independently and what they can do with assistance" (Sharpe, 2001, p.40). However, the assistance should gradually be reduced when the pupils seem to be able to perform the requested task (Clark & Graves, 2005).

3.3.3 Studies on scaffolding through teachers' classroom language

In a search for empirical studies on how classroom language use facilitates language learning, only studies on the classroom language used by experienced native speaker English teachers have been found. In a key study in Ireland, for example, Walsh (2002) conducted a qualitative analysis of the relationships between ESL teachers' classroom language use and its pedagogical functions. Among the eight experienced native speaker teachers that he observed, videotaped and then interviewed, Walsh (2002) identified features of teachers' language use which facilitate learners' involvement and construct the potential for learning and, on the other hand features which obstruct their learning. Facilitative features include direct error correction, content feedback, checking for confirmation and extended wait time (Walsh, 2002). This classroom language matches the context of the moment and task in hand. However, the features of teachers' language use that obstruct learners' involvement and reduce potential for learning include turn completion (that is teachers filling the information gaps, making the learners' language smoother), or repetition of learners' responses, and interruptions to learners' language production (Walsh, 2002).

Another study on the facilitation of learning through classroom language by experienced teachers is Pawan's (2008) study in America. Pawan (2008) investigated how content area teachers used scaffolding to teach language and content to English language learners. From the 33 native speaker content area teachers who were asked to have discussions on what scaffolding techniques they provided to their students, she obtained 408 statements. From these statements, Pawan (2008, p.1451) summarised four ways for scaffolding: linguistically, conceptually, socially and culturally. The only way related to the research in this thesis is linguistic scaffolding, which includes simplifying and making the 'English' language more accessible (such as free journaling, prewriting, oral presentation of materials, reading out aloud, conversational mode in lesson delivery, written instructions), simplified language, slowed pacing, direct instruction of form and meaning, vocabulary teaching, and reading instruction (Pawan, 2008). The conclusion of this study is that cultural scaffolding is an element of content teaching that must become a focus for teachers of English language learners and that literacy instruction is an inherent component of subject matter instruction and needs to be part of teacher education (Pawan, 2008).

In the Indonesian context, one study was found on how an English teacher used classroom language to scaffold the pupils' writing skill. Suherdi (2010a) reported an experiment of teaching a procedure text using the stages of the curriculum cycle in an English lesson in two junior high schools in West Java, Indonesia. However, he only documented one of the English lessons. In the following example, Suherdi (2010a) claimed that the teacher under study successfully helped pupils perform a task through modelling as seen in the transcript below.

78	ds 1	T	Now who wants to come forward to try to tell others how to cook noodles?
	Ro	Ss	(silent)
	Rp	T	Who wants to try first?
	Pr	T	Good to try (pointed to a pair of Ss who sit at the front)
	S2	A pair of Ss	(two Ss came forward and practiced/said the steps by turns)
	S1	T	OK, it's good
	(Suherdi, 2010a)		

No details are given on the input provided by the teacher. The claimed 'modelling' of a text in the example above is actually teacher eliciting pupils' practice, rather than modelling. While Suherdi (2010a) claimed that the two pupils in line 82 successfully produced a procedure text orally, they seem to have actually made a paired construction of an oral text, together with the teacher's help. What pupils actually said is not given. Such an activity could have been followed up with the teacher writing the text on the blackboard. Despite this rather vague description, Suherdi (2010a) stated that "from their performance we can learn that when modelling is well presented, students tend to have better picture of how the communication should be accomplished (p. 4)". This leads to his conclusion that "the use of scaffolding strategies has surprisingly led the students to good communicative performance of telling others how to do some activities with language" (Suherdi, 2010a, p.6). Suherdi's (2010a) use of "modelling" might refer to the design-in-scaffolding suggested by Sharpe (2001). However, the claimed modelling was not the same as that discussed in Sharpe (2001), nor in Walsh (2006a).

3.4 Classroom language training

As indicated previously, teacher skills in using classroom language are important as they are part of classroom management skills (Cullen, 2001; Harmer, 2007) and communication skills during the instruction (Marsh, 2008; Moore, 2007; Richards, 1998). Moreover, the classroom language used by the teachers can play an important role in assisting learning, called scaffolding. Such uses of classroom language for scaffolding learning, however, do not happen automatically in the classroom. Scaffolding should be planned by teachers (Gibbons, 2002). In terms of foreign language teacher education, this also means that such uses of classroom language in scaffolding learning through dialogic mediation have to be part of language teacher education (Johnson, 2009). However, as teaching foreign languages also involves unity between the content and medium of teaching and learning (Borg, 2006; Larsen-Freeman & Freeman, 2008; Medgyes, 1999a), the mastery of the target language has also become a prerequisite to become a foreign language teacher (Macaro, 2006; Medgyes, 1999a). This means that for English teachers, proficiency in using the target language is an ultimate quality (Bailey, 2006; Murray & Christison, 2011).

Nevertheless, "80 percent of English teachers" in the world are non native speakers of English (Canagarajah in Snow, et al., 2006, p.262). In China alone, non-native English teachers who teach English as subject in schools total more than half a million (Hayes, 2009). However, it is customary that in developing countries highly competent non native English teachers are rare (Bailey, 2006; Kamhi-Stein, 2010; Medgyes, 1999a). One study by Butler (2004) found that the teachers in Korea, Taiwan and Japan perceived that their proficiency in English was still "lower than the minimum levels they thought necessary to teach English (p.268)." As observed by Bailey (2006), teachers who are proficient in English in Asian countries are in fact native speakers who happen to visit a certain country and are dragged into the English teaching sector, but lack background teaching knowledge. From this phenomenon Bailey (2006) and Snow et al. (2006) conclude that teachers who are proficient in the target language are often not professionally prepared, while those who are prepared professionally are sometimes not proficient in the target language.

The above phenomenon poses a challenge for English language teacher education in non English speaking countries, whose main duty is to prepare qualified non native English teachers (Medgyes, 1999a). A good language teacher education program should aim at producing English teachers who are both proficient in the target language and professionally prepared as language teachers (Bailey, 2006; Kamhi-Stein, 2010). The question is whether English language teacher education provides appropriate preparation for student teachers to be good language teachers (Bailey, 2006).

In fact, the teacher education literature includes books for training classroom language and reports on actual training to improve English language teachers' proficiency in using English in the class. Up to the present, there have been a number of books for training pre-service English teachers to use classroom language, namely those by Hughes (1981) and his revised version (Hughes, Moate, & Raatikaine, 2007), Willis (1981) and her revised version (Slattery & Willis, 2001), Heaton (1981) and Salaberri (1995). Classroom language training programs for pre-service and in service English teachers have also been documented by Cullen (1994, 2001), Cadorath and Harris (1998), Johnson (1990), Harfitt (2008), and most recently by Tüzel and Akcan (2009).

The books on classroom language training present the classroom language expressions in English based on their functions in the classroom. Hughes (1981) for example, organised teacher expressions around four language functions: organisation, interrogation, explanation, and interaction. In his later version with others, teacher expressions have been organised into several functions such as: everyday classroom routines, involving the learners, managing the classroom, working with the textbook, using technology, and developing skills (Hughes et al., 2007). Similarly, Willis (1981) grouped the classroom language expressions into two: those for social, personal, and organizational uses and those related to teaching techniques and instruction. The expressions in Willis' (1981) book cover samples of what the actual English teachers usually say from the opening to the closing of the lesson such as, "Well, did you have a good weekend? Did you enjoy your holiday?" (p.8) for beginning a lesson and beginning a chat and "You've been absent for 3 days, haven't you? You've missed 6 lessons, haven't you? (p.16)" for checking attendance. Very

similarly to Willis (1981), Salaberri (1995, p.1) presents the classroom language expressions around the functions of: "simple instruction, dealing with the language of spontaneous situations, the language of social interactions, pair and group work, question types, dealing with errors", etc. In their revised book, Slattery and Willis (2001) present classroom language expressions under topics such as: starting your lesson, organising your class, ending your lesson etc., in which each topic presents a language focus to be read and practised by the intended audience of the book. All these books require that the trainers use English in the course and encourage teachers to speak English too, even during practical activities like making visual aids, or planning and reporting on their activities to improve student teachers' fluency and confidence (Slattery & Willis, 2001). It is expected that improvement in their language proficiency will lead to the most immediate and significant improvement in their ability to teach through English (Willis, 2002).

3.4.1 Studies on classroom language training

One of the classroom language training programs is documented by Cullen (1994). To meet the expectation of INSETs in developing countries to boost their confidence and fluency in English, since their poor language proficiency made them unconfident, unmotivated, and unable to teach according to the procedures, Cullen (1994) included English language skills improvement in methodology training. He made the trainees experience a language lesson that was later to be discussed based on "teachers' notes/lesson plans, learning materials, trainees' notes/diaries, audio tapes/transcripts of lessons and observer's notes" (Cullen, 1994, p.168). The trainees, who kept records during the lesson, later watched the videotaped lesson and discussed in groups the stages of the lesson. They also discussed how the lesson was delivered (the methodological issue) and followed up by making their own lesson plan in each group (Cullen, 1994). They then practised teaching their lesson plan in their group. In all these activities, the teachers use the language they learn during the lesson in their teaching in practicum-like English teaching (Cullen, 1994).

Further, Cullen (2001) introduced the use of lesson transcripts for developing pre-service teachers' classroom language skills, especially questioning skills. In such training, they were asked to listen to an audiotape or videotape and follow the

transcripts. Later they were also asked to role play the transcript themselves by reading aloud, with the tutor or one of the participants taking the part of the teacher, and the others becoming individual students as directed by the teacher (Cullen, 2001). The next stage in the training was asking the pre-service teachers to analyse the transcripts. Through the analysis, they were asked to compare different lesson situations from transcripts, and were finally asked to remodel the questions in the transcripts. It was believed that through these activities, student teachers would be able to imagine and consider the different ways in which the questions could be asked, for example, the stress and intonation patterns that could be used, or the teacher's use of pausing between questioning and nominating, or between asking a question and repeating or reformulating it (Cullen, 2001).

Similar to Cullen's (2001) studies, Harfitt (2008) used transcriptions of two language teaching videos in a special training called "Classroom interaction'" (p.174) in Hong Kong. Each INSET transcribed his/her own lesson and compared with one other teacher to promote awareness of her own classroom language use and self-reflection. In the beginning of the study, the first INSET was reluctant to look at her own teacher centred video, which was full of display questions. This is because she was shy about seeing what she always did in her everyday teaching (Harfitt, 2008). The second INSET's video was different in terms of her use of more referential questions and greater student participation, which made the class situation different (Harfitt, 2008). When the first teacher watched the second teacher's video and its transcriptions she began to see a different way of teaching that maximized the use of interactional devices in the classroom. From this, she started to feel the need to change her way of teaching (Harfitt, 2008). Six months after that, the researcher helped the first teacher to identify and target key classroom language features by exploiting transcriptions of the second teacher's lesson in order to encourage student participation in her class (Harfitt, 2008). By doing this, the first teacher became thoughtful about the tasks given to the class and used more referential questions and more wait time, which resulted in more student participation in the class (Harfitt, 2008, p.177).

Regarding PSETs' lesson transcripts, Cadorath and Harris (1998) suggested that teacher education draw PSETs' attention to pupils' natural language used in response to the teachers' language. This is sometimes different from what the PSETs have

anticipated in their lesson plan. The purpose of this suggestion is to make use of "genuine communicative opportunities available" in the lesson (Cadorath & Harris, 1998, p.188). The PSETs were given a worksheet to work on with a lesson transcript. One of the tasks in the worksheet is to ask the PSETs other ways that the teacher in the transcript could have used to follow up pupils' responses. It is expected from this activity that the PSETs could make the English lesson livelier and more communication-friendly (Cadorath & Harris, 1998).

Long before Harfitt's (2008) study, Johnson (1990) introduced classroom language training to pre-service teachers in Hong Kong with various background studies as they were being prepared to teach using English as a medium of instruction. Through lectures and tasks, pre-service teachers were introduced to various aspects of classroom language, namely physiological, interpersonal, and pedagogical aspects (Johnson, 1990). Training to voice their English in a language lab was intended to improve the physiological aspects of their classroom language, while "discussion of classroom language data, aided by transcriptions" was meant to develop awareness and understanding of the interpersonal aspects of their classroom language (Johnson, 1990, p.274). For the pedagogical aspects of classroom language, the student teachers were given a task to give instructions to assemble a set of cards to form a certain shape (Johnson, 1990). Their instructions were recorded and then compared to the best model for solving the task. In this way the pre-service teachers were able to learn what their classroom language lacked. Other tasks included role play exercises and handling student replies (Johnson, 1990).

Recently, Tüzel and Akcan (2009) used Hughes' (1981) book to give "a corpus of classroom language for specific situations (e.g., for managing the class and drawing students' attention) in the classroom in order to make the pre-service language teachers sound more accurate" (Tüzel & Akcan, 2009, p.276). This training was given after both researchers collected data revealing five PSETs' problems in using target language through observation of their practicum lessons, the PSETs' own reflection in a discussion with the researchers about their language problems, and retrospective interviews. Tüzel and Akcan (2009) found that the five PSETs observed used classroom language with grammatical errors, inappropriate use of expressions for managing the class, difficulty in conveying meaning in English, and not modifying

their oral language according to pupils' proficiency level. Hughes' (1981) classroom language expressions were introduced to improve the PSETs' authenticity of their classroom language for managing the class. Four grammar books, including, "*Collins COBUILD English grammar"* and "*English grammar in use"* (Tüzel & Akcan, 2009, p.286) were used to tackle PSETs' grammatical errors, difficulty in conveying the meaning of words in the target language to pupils, and difficulty in modifying their oral target language to suit pupils' level. After this training, Tüzel and Akcan "observed" that the five PSETs' classroom language improved and that they "were able to adapt the patterns they studied during the discussion meeting to their teaching experience" (p.281). However, examples of classroom language expressions actually used by the PSETs in their teaching practicum, how the PSETs adapted their use, and evidence of classroom language improvement were not provided in Tüzel and Akcan's (2009) account of their study.

All the above classroom language training programs are in line with current suggestions by Johnson (2009) on ways of improving language teachers' awareness for language as a social practice. Johnson (2009) suggested that the language teacher education program should be able to elevate the trainees to the language teacher level. This level is demonstrated with a conscious understanding and use of the meta-linguistic terminology to explain the language, understanding of the structural and/or functional features of language (i.e. syntax, phonology, semantics, pragmatics, and /or notional functional) through activities such as analysing email messages, analysing classroom transcripts, and building curriculum for contexts of use. Johnson (2009) elaborated how these activities could be used to extend each teacher's competence from that of a mere language user and language analyst to that of a language teacher. Tarone (2009) adds that language teacher education should be able to produce teachers as "language explorers" (p.7) too. With these three levels of awareness, she believes, teachers will become effective language teachers.

3.5 Chapter summary

This chapter has presented a theoretical framework for the concept of classroom language and related studies. The first section discusses the definition of classroom language in relation to teacher talk. That this study adopts a broad definition of

classroom language is explained in Section One, and includes teacher's language and the pupils' responses to teacher's use of classroom language. Section Two argues that the use of both the target language and pupils' first language is common in EFL contexts. This is supported by studies on the use of target language and first language reported in Section two. As one feature of teachers' classroom language use, scaffolding is presented in Section Three, following its broad and narrow definitions. These definitions lead to a discussion of the features of scaffolding suitable for the teachers' use of language to assist the learning of individual pupils in an ESL context by Walsh (2006a) and of the whole class in an EFL context by Forman (2008). Six kinds of scaffolding, namely, reformulation, extension, modelling, priming, prompting, and dialoguing have been described in Section Three. In addition, studies on the use of classroom language for scaffolding learning presented in Section Three show that scaffolding may include use both target and first languages by language teachers, whether native or non native speaker teachers. The rationale for training non native foreign language teachers to use classroom language is presented in Section Four. This is based partly on books on classroom English for training non-native English speaker teachers who teach English at primary levels. Empirical studies in training classroom language use for non native English speaker teachers are also surveyed in Section Four.

From the studies presented in this chapter, it seems that there is a need in the literature for a study on the explicit learning and implementation of classroom language and strategies in microteaching and practicum lessons in a non English speaking country. Therefore, this study attempts to fill this gap by exploring how non native PSETs learn classroom language in a university unit and microteaching, and then how they apply the taught classroom language in English lessons during the practicum in Indonesian secondary schools, where English as a foreign language is a school subject.

Chapter 4
Research Design

This chapter explains and justifies how the research was conducted. It begins with a statement on the approach taken in this research, which is followed by a description of the case study design chosen. Phases of the study are then explained in the following section. The participants are then introduced, together with the ethical considerations during the two research phases.

4.1 Subjectivist research approach

Epistemologically, research in social sciences and education is about understanding social existence in the world (Cohen, et al., 2007). Such inquiry depends very much on the way one sees society, because social reality is understood differently from different perspectives. In the process of understanding the world through research, either an objectivist or a subjectivist approach can be used. Objectivists believe that social reality exists independently from individuals, which means that social reality holds truth in itself. For the objectivists, "a fact is a fact"; in other words, there is one answer to a research problem (Cohen, et al., 2007, p.4). Such a view is considered a traditional view in social inquiry and "is said to be less successful in its application to the context of classrooms and schools" (Cohen, et al., 2007, pp.9-10). This is because of the complex nature of learning in school. Those who take a subjectivist approach to research believe that social reality is socially constructed by the individuals in the society (Cohen, et al., 2007), which means the truth about social reality is dependent on how the individuals create, modify, and interpret the world they are in (Cohen, et al., 2007; Corbin & Strauss, 2008). In subjectivism, there is no single interpretation, but varieties of interpretation made by the participants about the problem under investigation (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

According to Cohen (2007), it is the researchers themselves who decide to subscribe to either a subjectivist or objectivist approach to research. In other words, the process of this research depends on their views in seeing the reality of the world. This means all the methodological aspects of this research, such as "the choice of the problem, the formulation of questions to be answered, the characterization of pupils and teachers,

methodological concerns, the kinds of data sought and their mode of treatment" (Cohen, et al., 2007, p.8) reflect one's views on seeing the reality of the world.

As introduced in the background of this research in Chapter 1, this research grew out of my world of work in the English teacher education program at Pahlawan University. I had a belief that the social reality (Cohen, et al., 2007; Holden & Lynch, 2004) in my university is not unchangeable. To me, what was happening in the program as the anecdotal evidence in Chapter 1, was the product of how the management of the program have set it and how the PSETs have responded to it. In this context, the program and lecturers' conceptions of teaching and classroom language could or could not be same as that held by PSETs. Similarly, individual PSET taking the CD unit might have responded to what was taught differently as they might have had different learning experiences. Similarly, the lecturers might not always consider these prior learning experiences and expectations by the PSETs in the CD unit.

In the practicum process too, there is no guarantee that supervising English teachers' conceptions of teaching and classroom language and real context of teaching would have influence PSETs' conception of classroom language. Instead, what happens here could be a conflict experienced by the PSETs between the classroom language taught in the university and the language actually practised in the secondary school contexts. In this way, I agree with the idea that social reality is not given "out there" (Cohen et al., 2007, p.5), but created by one's mind (Cohen et al., 2007; Holden & Lynch, 2004).

It could be said that the program and lecturer's plan on the nature of classroom language taught to the PSET is not always running smoothly in the process of teacher education, and the expected outcome from the PSETs is not always as assumed. Despite all these uncertainty, I belief that with careful planning and listening to what the PSETs needs, and responding to the ongoing needs during the process of the CD unit and microteaching and practicum lesson, we can expect the best results. All these shows the very liquid and vivid nature of social reality within the context of English teacher education at Pahlawan University. Therefore, for me, understanding how the PSETs implement classroom language taught in the CD unit in microteaching and

practicum lesson is not simply a cause-effect relationship. Rather, it is fluid as it involves human's learning experience. Following Cohen et al.'s (2007) assertion, in this research knowledge is "subjective" (p.6) according to participants' learning experiences.

In this research, the social reality in my research context is understood as constructed by the individuals involved in the context; hence, I have subscribed to the subjectivist approach in this research. As indicated in Chapter 1, this research was conducted as a response to my own world of work in English language teacher education; thus, I subscribed to the subjectivist approach in this research. I have examined an assumption that because the PSETs were explicitly taught certain kinds of classroom language expressions in the CD unit, they would certainly use them in their microteaching lessons and ultimately in real English lessons in schools.

Following the subjectivist approach, I would value the PSETs' own interpretations of the world they find themselves in (Cohen, et al., 2007), in this case their English teacher education course, to investigate their experience and its meaning for them and how the meaning of their experience has been formed (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). This also means that this research applies interpretation, "a process of examining and interpreting data in order to elicit meaning, gain understanding, and develop empirical knowledge" (Cohen, et al., 2007, p.1). The knowledge developed from this research is constructed from the PSETs' interpretations of their experience in learning classroom language in the CD unit and their accounts as well as my observations of how they use it in microteaching and practicum lessons (Cohen, et al., 2007). I also take into account how the PSETs' experiences in learning and using classroom language depended on external factors other than the PSETs themselves, namely the lecturer of the CD unit and microteaching, and the supervising English teachers, and the broader context of the English teacher education policy in Pahlawan University.

This belief is in line with Corbin's (2008, p.8), who suggests that "to understand experience that experience must be located within and can't be divorced from the larger events in a social, political, cultural, racial, gender related, informational, and technological framework". All this means that the epistemology of this research is not

positivism, but it is "naturalistic, qualitative, interpretive" (Cohen, et al., 2007, p.21). Some of the characteristics of naturalistic, interpretive, epistemology include:

- Deliberation, creativity, and intentionality of the participants in making meaning
- Participants as the constructors of their social world
- The fluidity and changes of situations
- Uniqueness of events and individuals
- Natural occurrences without intervention
- Participants' interpretation of the events
- Use of multiple interpretation and perspectives of single event
- Complexity of multiple layers of reality
- No simple interpretation
- Using the eyes of the participants (Cohen, et al., 2007)

Some of these characteristics are indicative in the overarching research question presented in Chapter 1. This question allows an investigation into not only an individual PSET's interpretation of his or her experience in implementing what was taught in the CD unit in microteaching and practicum lessons, but also that of the lecturer, head of department and the supervising English teachers and broader policy makers in Indonesian teacher education. A suitable approach to this practical issue in language teaching is qualitative research, according to Richards (2009). The scope and delimitation for this research, therefore, has been set in Chapter 1.

4.2 Case study design

The subjectivist, naturalistic, qualitative, interpretive approaches taken in this study lead to certain ways of doing the research, collecting the data and analysing them (Cohen, et al., 2007). The approaches taken in this research have placed importance on individual interpretations of experience in the context, which is in line with the purpose of this research, to understand how PSETs learn classroom language and use it in the microteaching and practicum unit in an English teacher education program. In qualitative research, the researcher can decide one's methodology in accordance with the purpose of the research (Corbin & Strauss, 2008) and choose the design of one's research that best fits the purposes of this research (Cohen, et al., 2007).

Case study is one of many kinds of qualitative research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008; Richards, 2003; Yin, 2009) and "the method of choice when the phenomenon under study is not readily distinguishable from its context" (Yin, 2003, p.4). Other proponents of case study (e.g., Cohen, et al., 2007; Denzin & Lincoln, 2008) also emphasise the importance of context because it is specific to a certain instance, certain individuals and groups involved, and certain participants' roles and functions in the case (Cohen, et al., 2007; Richards, 2003). Yin (2003, p.4) maintains that the phenomenon for a case study can be a "project or program", unit, institutions, or there might be other "boundaries to be drawn around the case" (Cohen, et al., 2007, p.253) with the aim "to provide a detailed description of the unit(s)" (Richards, 2003, p.20) and "to illustrate a more general principle" (Cohen, et al., 2007, p.253). Following these principles of case study, I argue that this type of research is well-suited to my investigation.

The main reason why case study fits the context of the research is that the CD unit, microteaching and practicum lessons are unique to the English teacher education program at Pahlawan University. In addition to its difference from the CD unit in the research literature presented in Chapter 3 (e.g., Orland-Barak & Yinon, 2005; Orland-Barak & Yinon, 2007), the CD unit in my research is also unique in the Indonesian context. To the best of my knowledge, it can be said that the CD unit containing classroom language training in English as a medium of instruction was one of very few offered in English teacher education in Indonesia. In fact, a search for a similar unit in other teacher education programs in Indonesia, using the database of Indonesian universities provided by the Department of Education, EPSBED (2011), found no similar unit. The description of the units in three highly esteemed English teacher education programs in Indonesia at the State University of Malang, the Indonesian State University of Bandung, and the State University of Semarang were then examined.

Instead of offering classroom language training as such, one state university offers a class in a broader unit for Classroom Management (Universitas Negeri Malang, 2010). A second university offers a speaking class called "Speaking in Professional Context" (Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia) in Bandung (Suherdi, 2010b). This

university also offers classroom language in a theoretical unit called Discourse Analysis (Suherdi, 2010c). The description of the Classroom Management unit states that it gives "basic knowledge of classroom management" which contains "teacher talk and teachers' questions" (Universitas Negeri Malang, 2010, no page), while the description of Speaking in Professional Context unit includes

> the uses of classroom language, that is English that is used in specific situation i.e. in classroom, (...) such as greetings and introduction (...) checking attendance, organizing the classroom, ending lessons, giving instructions in English, etc. (Suherdi, 2010b, no page).

The CD unit in this study was related to other units in the same program, the Microteaching and the practicum units. As previously described in Chapter 1, the CD and Microteaching units are offered in the same semester, while the Practicum unit follows after them. In fact, the participation in the practicum has as a prerequisite the completion of the CD unit and microteaching units (Pahlawan University, 2006; Tim UPTP4, 2008, p.7). It is interesting to note that this prerequisite for the practicum is not explicitly stated in the State University of Malang's curriculum (Universitas Negeri Malang, 2010).

Thus, three units, namely the CD, the Microteaching and the Practicum units form the context of this study. These three units become smaller settings within the main setting of this case study, which is the English teacher education program at Pahlawan University in Surabaya, in East Java, Indonesia.

4.3 Phases of the research

This research was divided into two phases. Phase 1 covered the CD unit and microteaching, which took place on campus during Semester 2 Academic Year 2008/2009 (March-June 2009). The third setting, the practicum, was covered in Phase 2, which took place in Semester 1 Academic Year 2009/2010 at secondary schools (July-September 2009). The details of the phases and the locations of partner schools are presented in the sections below.

4.3.1 Phase 1: The Classroom Discourse unit and the Microteaching unit

As mentioned above, Phase 1 covered the CD unit and microteaching, whose place in the teacher education program is described in Chapter 1. The full description of the CD unit can be found in Appendix 2 and the description of microteaching can be found in Appendix 3.

The purpose of Phase 1 was to explore the nature of classroom language taught in the CD unit, how PSETs learn classroom language in the CD unit and use it in microteaching lessons. As will become clear in the instrument section below, the participants were asked to submit their learning journals and microteaching VCDs directly to the researcher in Australia. For the administration of the data collection, a non academic staff member at Pahlawan University assisted the researcher by distributing the consent forms, explanatory statement, questionnaires, and the closed envelopes.

In mid February 2009, information about Phase 1 of this research was posted on the notice board of the English teacher education program at Pahlawan University by the administrative officer. The brochure asked the 127 PSETs who were taking the CD unit and microteaching unit to take part in Phase 1 of this research. These PSETs were divided into three CD unit groups, each taught by three different lecturers. These PSETs were also taking the Microteaching unit, which was organised into groups of 12 PSETs. Each microteaching group was taught by one lecturer, some of whom also taught the PSETs in the CD unit groups. The participation of three lecturers in charge of both the CD and microteaching unit was also sought. Fortunately, one lecturer, Sinta (pseudonym), consented to take part in Phase 1 of the research.

From among the 127 PSETs taking the CD unit and microteaching unit during Phase 1, more than 20 PSETs contacted the researcher and sent their consent form. To select from these PSETs, the researcher asked them if they were taught by Sinta in the CD unit and Microteaching unit. Among the 20, eight PSETs were taught by Sinta. It seems that this "data-accessing method" (Noy, 2008, p.329) is a snowball sampling

procedure. However, as there the PSETs were in the same class taking the CD unit, it does not meet the definition of snowball sampling suggested by Noy (2008) that is when the researcher gets an access to informant based on the "recommendation" (Marshall, 1996, p.523) of the first informant, who will then recommend the researcher to contact the third informant and so on. These eight PSETs became the research participants for Phase 1 of the research. However, later on one PSET withdrew, leaving seven PSETs taking part in the research. The details of the seven PSETs are explained in the participants section below.

4.3.2 Phase 2: The practicum

Phase 2 of the research focused on how the PSETs use classroom language in practicum lessons at secondary schools. As the practicum is conducted after the microteaching unit on campus, Phase 2 followed the same PSETs into their practicum placement in secondary schools in July-September 2009.

The placement for practicum is organized by the university placement unit, called *Unit Pelaksana Teknis Pusat Pembinaan & Pengembangan Pendidikan* (UPTP4) (Tim UPTP4, 2008, 2009). As the handbook states, the placement unit asks students to choose one of the 100 secondary schools participating in the practicum program (Tim UPTP4, 2008). Most of these schools are Junior High Schools (JHS) and Senior High Schools (SHS), but there were also a few Vocational High Schools. The SHS is intended for those who want to continue studying at tertiary level, while the VHS is intended for those who want to enter the job market after their study, although they are also eligible to continue studying at tertiary level (Indonesian Government, 2003; Joni, 2000).

In all of these schools, English is taught as a foreign language subject, which will be examined nationally at the end of students' schooling (Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan, 2006a, 2006b; Joni, 2000; Nababan, 1991). However, there is a difference in the goal of the English subject in these schools. English at the JHS is aimed at a functional level, that is, being able to communicate orally and in writing to deal with everyday life, while at the SHS, English is expected to boost the pupils' language skills to an informational level, being able to use English language to access

knowledge (Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan, 2006a, 2006c). In contrast to JHS and SHS, English at VHS is aimed at enabling the students to communicate in English in their specific fields, which can be in business, technological industries, hospitality, and art sectors (Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan, 2006b). Despite these differences in the school levels and goals of the English lessons in the partner schools during practicum, the PSETs have a common preparation. This makes this study suitable for a case study research (Richards, 2003; Yin, 2003, 2009).

The schools where Phase 2 research took place were not selected by the researcher but they were generally chosen by the PSET participants. However, there are occasions when one partner school is favoured more than the other schools, so that the PSETs have to negotiate with each other on who will take the school. This often results in some PSETs being placed in a school they did not want, as in the case of three out of the seven participants in this research.

The PSETs did the practicum in two months (mid July- mid September). In the first two weeks of the practicum they were required to be engaged in observation and orientation in the placement school, which would then be used as the basis for planning their lessons (Tim UPTP4, 2008, 2009). Additional school administration knowledge and skills were also introduced to the PSETs early on from the beginning of the practicum (Tim UPTP4, 2008, 2009). Starting from the third week of the practicum, the PSETs would carry out their lesson plan in guided teaching, in which the supervising English teachers assigned one session of the English lesson to be taught by the PSETs under their supervision (Tim UPTP4, 2008, 2009). In the last four weeks of the practicum, the PSETs were given time for their independent teaching, with or without the presence of the supervising English teachers (Tim UPTP4, 2008, 2009).

As the ethics approval for Phase 2 research was granted on 5 August 2009, it was in the last four weeks of the practicum that the researcher visited the schools and arranged for observation of each of the PSETs' English lessons. However, there was one placement school, an SHS which did not provide access to the observation as the last four weeks of the practicum were used for religious activities. As a result of this, one PSET had to withdraw from Phase 2 of the research. Unfortunately, all earlier

data in Phase 1 from this participant had to be discarded, despite two unsuccessful visits by the researcher to the school. Overall, seven PSETs took part in both Phases 1 and 2 of this research.

4.4 Research participants

The participants in this research were seven PSETs, one lecturer, and five supervising English teachers. These seven PSETs were taught by one lecturer, Sinta, in both the CD and the Microteaching units. They were then placed in five secondary schools with five supervising English teachers.

Table 4.1

PSETs, supervising English teacher, and placement schools

No	PSET	Placement of practicum	Supervising English teachers
1	Sholeh (M)	School 1, VHS, Town A	Heri (M)
2	Arif (M)	School 2, VHS, Town B	Dewi (F)
3	Tatik (F)	School 2, VHS, Town B	Dewi (F)
4	Faris (M)	School 3, SHS, Town B	Rani (F)
5	Luna (F)	School 4, SHS, Town C	Amin (M)
6	Indah (F)	School 5, SHS, Town D	Aliyah (F)
7	Zaini (M)	School 5, SHS, Town D	Aliyah (F)

Note: Pseudonyms are used

Table 4.1 shows each PSET participant's placement during Phase 1 and Phase 2. All PSETs were in the same group in the CD unit and Microteaching, but were placed in five different schools during Phase 2. Three of the PSETs are females (Tatik, Luna and Indah) and four of them (Sholeh, Arif, Faris, and Zaini) are males. Table 4.1 also shows five schools for the practicum were two VHSs and three SHSs in four different towns; Town A, B, C, and D. The VHS in Town A specialises in technical programs while the VHS in Town B specialises in fine arts. The distance between towns is given in Chapter 5.

The table also shows the five supervising English teachers. Two of the supervising English teachers (Heri and Amin) are male and three of them (Dewi, Rani and Aliyah) are females. Three supervising English teachers (Heri, Rani, and Amin)

supervised one PSET (PSET 1, 4, and 5 respectively) while each of the two supervising English teachers (Dewi and Aliyah), supervised two PSETs (PSETs 2 and 3, and PSETs 6 and 7 respectively).

Background details of the PSETs (see Chapter 5 for questionnaire) are presented in the brief profiles which follow.

PSET 1 (Sholeh) is a Javanese male, with good language proficiency according to his scores in the Speaking 1, 2, 3, 4 units and his lecturer (Sinta). Based on his answers to the questionnaire, he had experience in teaching English in a private language course, where he seldom used English as a medium of instruction. Instead he used his first language – which his students shared – during his English teaching especially for explaining difficult concepts, joking, comparing English with Indonesian language and giving definitions for new vocabulary items. He reported that his English teacher in secondary school often used English as a medium of instruction. In addition to English, his English teacher had also used Indonesian for similar purposes such as he did himself.

PSET 2 (Arif) is a Madurese male, who had good language proficiency as shown by his scores in the Speaking 1, 2, 3, 4 units. He had previous teaching experience in private English courses. In his experience, his English teachers from junior high and senior high school always used English for teaching. However, his English teacher in junior high schools also used Indonesian for explaining difficult concepts, making pupils confident, comparing the target language with Indonesian and giving definitions.

PSET 3 (Tatik) is a Javanese female who had no previous teaching experience. She admitted that her proficiency in English was low, and had failed the Speaking 3 and 4 units. The lecturer confirmed this by saying that she was the worst in the group. Tatik's English teacher in junior high never taught English in English but her senior high school teacher often taught in English. She reported that her English teachers in junior and senior high school all used Indonesian for introducing new material, testing, and checking comprehension, comparing English and Indonesian language and giving definitions too.

PSET 4 (Faris) is an ethnically Chinese male[12], who had no previous teaching experience. He admitted that he was keen on improving his English but not to become an English teacher. He reported that his English teachers in junior and senior high schools often taught English using English. However, his teachers also used Indonesian for joking, explaining difficult concepts, checking comprehension and giving definitions.

PSET 5 (Luna) is a female Javanese with a good command of English, but without previous teaching English experience. She reported that her English teachers in junior high school never taught in English, while her senior high school English teacher seldom taught in English. Instead, her teachers used Indonesian for introducing new material, testing, and checking comprehension, comparing English and Indonesian, giving feedback and giving definitions for new words.

PSET 6 (Indah) is a Javanese female without previous teaching experience. She had shown a good command of English in her earlier English subjects. She reported that her English teachers in primary and junior high school seldom taught English in English, but her senior high school English teacher often used it as a medium of instruction. Regardless of this, her English teachers also used Indonesian for explaining difficult concepts and comparing between English and Indonesian.

PSET 7 (Zaini) is a Javanese male, who was considered weak in his English language proficiency by his lecturer. He had had no previous teaching experience. He felt confident in English grammar but not in oral communication. For that reason, he had done only tutoring of English grammar. He reported that his English teacher in vocational secondary school often taught English in English. However, he also reported that his English teachers in vocational high school used Indonesian especially for introducing new learning material, making jokes, making pupils comfortable and confident, and checking comprehension.

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[12] But his family language is Indonesian

4.5 Ethical considerations

This research was conducted in accordance with the ethical standards set in Australia. The ethical considerations in both data collection and writing processes are inseparable according to McMaugh, Sumsion, Symes and Saltmarsh (2006). McMaugh et al. (2006) suggest that for reporting of research involving the researcher's own university and students, there should be an explicit "statement, where appropriate, outlining the ethical process and consent procedures" and making explicit "the researcher's relationship with the participants" (p. 2). Therefore this section describes the ethical measures taken in this research process.

However, the issues of power relationship in the selection of PSETs participants were also minimised. These students were invited to participate in the research without force, as brochures were posted on the English department notice board inviting them to participate in the research. Moreover, it was explained to these PSETs that their participation in the research would have no influence in their success or failure in the CD unit, microteaching, and practicum. However, Sinta, the lecturer of the CD unit and microteaching was well aware of which PSETs took part in the research. To minimize the possibility that the PSETs would be penalised for writing unpleasant descriptions of their learning in the CD unit and microteaching in their learning journals, these PSETs were asked to send their learning journals directly to the researcher.

As Phase 1 took place in my own university, I had to consider issues of power relationships or coercion between the researcher and the participants. The lecturers in charge of the CD unit and microteaching, and the Head of the English teacher education program, knew me well. I had once taught a unit called "Structure I" to some of the 127 students in the 2006 cohort. That means there was already a connection between myself and the lecturer of the CD unit and microteaching as well as with two of the seven PSETs. I was well aware that this connection might give me privileged in access to the PSETs and that they might wish to please me by taking part or by responding in a way that they felt I wanted. However, I upheld the code of ethics applied by MUHREC (Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee). I was aware of the need "to safe guard or protect the anonymity and

confidentiality of research participants and to protect their health and well being" (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p.27). To ensure privacy, the case study contexts and the participants in this research have been given pseudonyms, as used above.

In addition, I was aware that both Pahlawan University and the lecturer of the CD unit and microteaching might suffer if the results of the research were not in line with public expectations, that is those held by the stake holders of the English teacher education program. The university where the research was undertaken issued formal permission to conduct this research. As indicated in the description of the selection of participants, no coercion was exercised by either the researcher or the Head of the Department on staff to participate in this research. Instead, having been informed of this research through an announcement placed in the staff room, Sinta, the lecturer, expressed her interest to take part.

Another potential ethical issue also arose in Phase 2 in the selection of practicum schools, the supervising English teachers and the classes for classroom observation. The placement unit at Pahlawan University put no pressure on partner schools and the supervising English teachers to take part in this research. Instead the placement unit informed the researcher of the names and contact number of schools where the PSETs participants were placed. Using this information, the researcher then contacted the schools and sent them the consent forms both for the principals and the supervising English teachers. The school principals and the supervising English teachers were provided with a stamped envelope addressed to the researcher. In this way, the researcher did not force the schools and supervising English teachers to participate in this research.

Parents and students in Indonesia trust that school principals will make decisions on their behalf which ensure their wellbeing. However, to meet the ethical standards in Australia, the researcher visited one class taught by each student teacher who had agreed to participate, introduced himself and invited pupils to take part in this research. The researcher explained that the focus of the research was what the student teachers said. Pupils' voices would be recorded, since the student teachers were talking with them. Following this, the researcher sent home and received back

explanatory statements and consent forms for parents and pupils in the classes taught by the PSETs prior to the lesson observation.

In addition to the issue of power relations above, an issue of translation of documents emerged. For practical research reasons, the interviews mainly used English, a foreign language to the participants; so the issue of whether they could express themselves adequately emerged. To tackle this issue, the researcher suggested that the participants resort to their first language whenever they could not best express something in English. Furthermore, clear information was also given to the supervising English teachers in the explanatory statements that this research project had no relationship with the assessment of the PSETs' practicum. There was no intention to assess the performance of either the supervising teachers or the pre-service English teachers during the data collection.

The above ethical issues were intensively discussed with the Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee until they were satisfied that all the ethical standards would be met during the data collection. Finally, both Phase 1 and Phase 2 were approved by MUHREC (Certificates of Approval can be seen in Appendix 1).

4.6 Chapter summary

This chapter has elaborated the design for this research. The approach for conducting this research was a subjectivist, qualitative approach, which allows for interpretation and naturalism. The case study design for this research is clearly in line with this epistemology; it is Section Two has described this design, emphasising the uniqueness of the context of the study, including the university CD unit and its relation to the microteaching unit and the practicum in the partner schools. The research phases have been described in Section Three. Phase 1 took place in the CD unit and microteaching while Phase 2 took place in the partner schools during the practicum. The two phases also show the focus of the research, which is how the PSETs implement what was taught in the CD unit in their teaching practice in microteaching and the practicum. Section Four mentioned the participants taking part in this research, namely seven PSETs, one lecturer, the Head of Department and five supervising English teachers. Brief descriptions of each of the PSET participants have

also been given in Section Four. The ethical aspects of the research in relation to the context and participants of this research have been elaborated in Section Five.

Chapter 5
Data Collection and Data Analysis

Following the research design presented in Chapter 4, this chapter explains how the data were collected and analysed. Section One will present the kinds of data collected in the two phases of research and how these data were obtained from the participants. Details of the instruments used to collect the data and how they were developed are then presented in the next section. The procedures for analysing the collected data are explained for each of the research questions in Section Three. Section Four presents efforts to maintain the validity and reliability of the present research.

5.1 Procedures for collecting data

The sources of data for qualitative research are various (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Yin, 2009). Yin (2009, pp.114-115) argues that "a major strength of case study data collection is the opportunity to use many different sources of evidence" which "allows an investigator to address a broader range of historical and behavioural issues". Therefore, based on the main research questions and the subsequent research questions presented in Chapter 1 of this thesis, various kinds of data were needed to answer them. The data sources for this research were the handbook for the English teacher education program at Pahlawan University, the syllabus of the units, one lecturer's teaching journals, PSETs' written accounts in learning journals on campus and during the practicum, transcriptions of videotaped microteaching and audiotaped practicum lessons, the researcher's notes from observing practicum lessons, and transcriptions of interviews with various participants. The purpose of this variety of data sources to investigate the research problem is to gain as many perspectives as possible on the topic of research (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Yin, 2006).

It is suggested that qualitative researchers use a combination of data sources to obtain various types of data on the same problem. Corbin and Strauss (2008, p.29) give the example of the use of observation "to check if the persons interviewed do things differently from what they said or [whether] they are unable to articulate the subtleties of what they have in their mind". Afterwards, the researcher should check with the participants the meaning of behaviour observed by the researcher (Corbin &

Strauss, 2008). In this way, the interpretations of the participants' behaviour are validated by the participants (Cohen, et al., 2007).

The main research question "How do the pre-service English teachers implement the classroom language taught in the CD unit in their microteaching and practicum lessons?" requires documentation and naturalistic data. The documentation data include, for example, the printed curriculum for the CD unit, while the naturalistic data include audio recorded interviews with the PSETs as well as video recording of microteaching segments and live observation by the researcher (Yin, 2009).

The collection of the data started in Phase 1 of the research. Information was posted on the notice board of the English teacher education program at Pahlawan University by the administrative officer. The brochure invited the PSETs who were taking the CD unit and microteaching unit to take part in Phase 1 of this research. It also requested participation from the lecturers in charge of the CD unit and microteaching unit. As mentioned in Section 4.5, in the Academic Year 2008/2009, there were three classes of the CD unit taught by three lecturers, one of whom, Sinta, consented to take part in Phase 1 of the research. More than 20 PSETs contacted the researcher and sent their consent form, of whom eight were taught by Sinta. These PSETs became the research participants for Phase 1 of the research. However, later on, one PSET withdrew, leaving seven PSETs.

Background information on the PSETs was collected. Documents for the English teacher education program specifically included the program handbook, the syllabus for the CD unit and microteaching, and learning materials for the CD unit. During Phase 1, data in the form of written learning journals and the lecturer's teaching journals were also collected, together with video data of classroom language use in the microteaching lessons. The lecturer, Head of Department, and the PSETs were interviewed about the CD and microteaching sessions. This completed the data collection for Phase 1.

Phase 2 was started during the practicum. Data collected during the practicum included written learning journals and naturalistic data in the form of observations by the researcher of classroom language used in practicum lessons, which were recorded

in field notes. The supervising English teachers were interviewed after classroom observations. Finally, PSETs were interviewed about their learning journals and practicum lessons. All of the data collected throughout this research were expected to develop "converging lines of inquiry" for the main research question (Yin, 2006; 2009, p.115). How the data were collected is explained below along with a description of the development and use of the research instruments.

5.2 Instruments

Yin (2009, p.99) describes 'sources of evidence' such as "documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observation, participant observation, and physical artefacts". However, in this research the general term 'instruments' is used as an alternative to sources of evidence. According to Corbin and Strauss (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Strauss & Corbin, 1990), in qualitative research the researcher is free to decide the instruments to use as long as they are fit for the purpose of the research. Although the main instrument in qualitative research is the researcher himself (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008), it is not listed here because the researcher is present as writer of this thesis.

Table 5.1

Research instruments and participants

No	Instruments	Participants			
		PSETs	Lecturer of the CD and microteaching units	Head of English Department	Supervising English teachers
1	Questionnaire	x			
2	Learning and teaching journals	x	x		
3	Videotaping of microteaching	x			
4	Audiotaped interviews	x	x	x	x
5	Classroom observation	x			
6	Audiotaping of practicum lessons	x			

Table 5.1 above shows the instruments used in collecting the data for this case study and with whom they were used. They are the questionnaire, learning and teaching journals, videotaping of microteaching, audiotaped interviews, classroom observation and audiotaping of practicum lessons.

5.2.1 Questionnaire

A questionnaire at the beginning of the research gathered background information about the participants, including their names and batch or cohort, their previous experiences of learning English, particularly in English as a medium of instruction. This was inspired by Shen's (2005) background information questionnaire for researching students' learning strategies. This instrument was piloted with ten PSETs of the 2005 cohort who had already passed the CD unit and microteaching. According to their feedback, the questionnaire was revised. The questionnaire had two main areas, which was also informed by Schweers' (1999) questionnaire on the use of the target language. The first part, Part A, asked for the participants' English teaching experience and their use of either English or Indonesian when they teach. Part B of the questionnaire asked for the participants' past experience of being taught in English and whether their English teachers had used Indonesian and for what purpose. Eight PSETs in Sinta's classes completed and returned the revised background questionnaire to the researcher (see example in Appendix 4). A brief background of the PSETs has been given in Section 4.4.

5.2.2 Learning journals and teaching journals

Learning journals are commonly used in research on how pre-service teachers record their learning experience during their study (e.g., Almazra, 1996; Amobi, 2005; Dymoke & Harrison, 2008; Lee, 2007) and in research on learning strategies (Gass & Mackey, 2007, p.45). Learning journals were also used in Phases 1 and 2 of the research "to record their impressions or perceptions about" learning classroom language in the CD unit (Gass & Mackey, 2007, p.48) and on using it in the microteaching and practicum. Their perceptions are "different from the researchers' perspectives alone" (Gass & Mackey, 2007, p.48). Guiding questions and a format were given to the participants as advised by Gass and Mackey (2007), Lee (2007), Macaro (2001b), White, Schramm, and Chamot (2007), but no training was given to them. Dymoke and Harrison (2008) give advice to participant for keeping a journal in three ways. Firstly, they can write the critical moments in a few rather generated words which later added with a more detailed oral description. Secondly, the critical

moments are recounted in details including actions, feelings, and thoughts. Third, the critical moments are recorded as conversation, like talking in the head after the event.

The following guiding questions for both the CD and microteaching units were used:
1. What classroom language did you learn in today's session?
2. In what ways was the classroom language presented in today's session?
3. How did you make yourself learn that classroom language?
4. What were the problems you faced in learning?
5. How did you solve those problems?

The PSETs were informed that the above guides were not restrictive. They could choose other ways to write their learning journals during both units such as a more narrative style of reflection. Writing reflections catered for individual differences in writing styles (Halbach, 2000; Lee, 2007). They were expected to write in English as they were already in their third year of study and had sufficient English proficiency to be able to get into the English Education program, or 550 on the paper-based TOEFL. A sample of a completed learning journal entry for the CD unit can be found in Appendix 5 and a sample for microteaching in Appendix 6.

The PSETs were expected to write six journal entries for both units and send them to the researcher. The PSETs returned the six entries for the CD unit only at the end of the semester. However, they submitted only one entry each for the Microteaching unit. This happened because of a misunderstanding with the researcher in Australia.

The PSETs were also asked to write learning journals during their practicum at school as part of Phase 2 of the research. Because of PSETs' workload, they were asked to submit only four entries. The guiding questions were as follows:
1. What classroom language did you use in your lessons?
2. How did you use the classroom language in your lessons to provide opportunities for pupils to learn English?
3. How did your pupils respond to your classroom language?
4. Do you feel that you have used classroom language effectively during the practicum? Why do you think so?
5. How would you improve your use of classroom language during the practicum?

These questions were not piloted. Some of the PSETs complained that there were too many questions. At the last minute (in August 2009), I made some changes. The revised guiding questions are as follows:

1. How did you use classroom language in your lessons during PPL 2 to encourage pupils to learn English?

2. How did your pupils respond to your classroom language use?

3. Do you feel that you have used classroom language effectively during PPL 2? Please explain.

Again, the PSETs were informed that the guiding questions were not restrictive. They were also encouraged to write anything they wanted and to share with other participants if they were willing. Seven PSETs submitted four learning journal entries on their practicum lessons. A participant's sample of a completed learning journal entry for the practicum can be found in Appendix 9.

The lecturer for both the CD and microteaching units was also asked to write teaching journals for both units. However, at the end of the semester the lecturer only submitted one teaching journal for the Microteaching unit. The lecturer gave me the weekly syllabus for the CD and microteaching units. Because the PSETs and the lecturer all mentioned that the classroom language expressions were written in the handouts for the CD unit, the researcher asked for a copy. Thus, the handouts for the CD unit were also used as a source of data for this research. By collecting a range of data, I expected to be able to cross check what the participants wrote in their learning journals with what the lecturer was aiming at in that specific unit.

5.2.3 Videotaping and audiotaping

Videotapes of microteaching and audiotapes of practicum lessons provided data on classroom language use (Gass & Mackey, 2007). In Phase 1, each PSET was asked to submit one complete microteaching lesson video, from opening until the closing of a lesson. However, the group actually submitted eight microteaching videos. There was one video for each PSET's microteaching as one overall video of the stages of a lesson taught by different PSETs. PSETs provided a CD copy of their own video on

the CD. Each PSET only taught one of the stages of the lesson, either the opening, closing or main stage. This had been decided by the lecturer of the microteaching unit. As Sinta explained[13]:

> So during the simulation (microteaching), a lesson had three stages: opening, main, and closing. The opening stage included greeting, organising the class, checking the condition of the classroom and brainstorming. That is 'set induction' (getting pupils ready for the lesson), brainstorming, as part of opening session. In the main stage of the lesson the pre-service teachers did explaining the lesson, explaining skills, asking skills, language games could also be in the main activity. In the closing stage, only one teaching activity done, that is summarizing the lesson that day. Giving enrichment, such as giving homework is also there, and finally, the closing of the lesson itself. So, all of the eight to ten teaching skills are covered in those three stages. (Lecturer, Interview 2, my translation)

In the interview above, the lecturer explicitly stated that the opening stage covered two Basic Teaching Skills: Opening the lesson and Organising the class. The teaching skill Giving enrichment[14] and Ending the lesson are performed in the closing stage. The main stage of the microteaching lesson covered several teaching skills: Explaining the lesson, Asking questions and Varying stimuli. However, in the overall group microteaching video, the three main lesson stages were not used by the lecturer and PSETs, as is described below.

This microteaching lesson video contains one entire microteaching lesson comprising six *keterampilan dasar mengajar* (translation: basic teaching skills), namely: Opening the lesson (Greeting, Setting objectives), Presenting the topic of the lesson, Asking questions, Giving reinforcement, Leading small group discussion, Making a variety of stimuli, Closing the lesson (summary, homework, etc) (Tim UPTP4, 2008, 2009). Only those PSETs who were considered able to perform well in these basic teaching skills were assigned one role in this video by the lecturer of microteaching. The lecturer explained:

> Why did I choose only certain student teachers for certain teaching skills? That's an agreement between me and student teachers in Group Two. The selection was based on their score during the teaching practice before the faculty's videotaped microteaching and all other assignments during teaching simulation. And that's an agreement between me and them. (Lecturer, Interview 3, English translation)

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[13] Direct quotes from interview transcriptions and learning journals are written exactly as they were written or spoken by the participants, including the original writing errors and grammatical mistakes.
[14] Sinta often used this term instead of 'Giving reinforcement' as is written in her weekly syllabus of the CD unit.

In fact, only five PSETs (1, 2, 4, 5, and 6) were teaching in this video. In this video, the selected five taught the segments Explaining the lesson (PSET 2), Asking questions (PSET 6), Organising small group discussions (PSET 5), Varying stimuli (PSET 1) and Closing the lesson (PSET 4). As a result, only five out of seven participants taught in both individual and group videos. The PSET who taught opening the lesson did not participate in the practicum so these data have not been used. However, the numbering of the lines in the overall group video is based on the whole 'lesson'. Therefore, the line number for the transcription starts with line 197, which is after the opening stage.

All microteaching videos were used as data for this research. Moreover, for the purpose of this research the three lesson stages have been used in reporting the findings, as well as the intended teaching skills practised in the microteaching lessons. Table 5.2 summarises the microteaching data below.

Table 5.2

Microteaching, videotape sets, lesson stages, teaching skills and length

PSET	Micro-teaching	Videotape sets	Lesson stages	Intended teaching skills	Length (minutes)	Lesson segment #
1	1	Individual	Opening	Opening lesson	4.0	1
	2	Group	Main	Varying stimuli	8.3	2
2	1	Individual	Opening	Opening lesson	9.2	3
	2	Group	Main	Explaining lesson	8.9	4
3	1	Individual	Opening	Opening lesson	4.4	5
	2	Individual	Closing	Closing lesson	1.3	6
4	1	Individual	Opening	Opening lesson	3.8	7
	2	Individual	Closing	Closing lesson	2.2	8
	3	Group	Closing	Closing lesson	4.3	9
5	1	Individual	Main	Explaining lesson	9.5	10
	2	Group	Main	Organising small group discussion	6.3	11
6	1	Individual	Opening-Closing	Opening lesson and Closing lesson	4.2	12
	2	Individual	Main	Explaining lesson	5.3	13
	3	Group	Main	Asking questions	6.2	14
7	1	Individual	Main	Explaining lesson	9.7	15
	2	Individual	Main	Explaining lesson	1.3	16

Table 5.2 shows what lesson segments were taught by each of the seven PSETs. In total there were sixteen microteaching segments taught by seven PSETs. The lesson

segment numbering (1-16) was used for ease of reference and for distinguishing microteaching segments from whole lessons in the practicum. PSETs 1, 2, 3, 5 and 7 taught two microteaching lessons while PSET 4 and 6 taught three each. Table 5.2 also shows that four segments open the lesson while another three close the lesson. One PSET taught both opening and closing stages in one segment. Eight segments show the main lesson stage, in which PSETs 2, 5, 6, and 7 explain the lesson, while PSETs 1, 5, and 6 vary the stimuli, organise small group discussion and ask questions respectively. Thus, six teaching skills are demonstrated in the microteaching data. Finally, Table 5.2 also shows that the length of microteaching segments varies from 1.3 to 9.7 minutes.

Another source of classroom language data was the audiotaping of the practicum lesson. According to Gass and Mackey (2007, p.109), both audio and video tapes may be used in collecting "naturally occurring conversations, such as those that take place at school or in the workplace". In the context of Pahlawan University, however, it is not usual for a practicum lesson to be videotaped except for a research purpose like this. This means it was not practical for the PSETs to videotape practicum lessons and send the tapes to the researcher. Moreover, videotaping a lesson involving children under 18 would have ethical complications regarding privacy. I, therefore, chose to observe a sample lesson and audiotape it for each PSET. The main purpose of the audio taping was to record how the PSETs used classroom language during the practicum lesson. As an eyewitness, the researcher could give a description of the lesson which captures the atmosphere of the classroom and the tensions felt by the PSETs and the pupils, with the help of audiotaping and field notes.

There were seven practicum lessons recorded in this research. Unlike the numbering of lesson segments of the microteaching, these practicum lessons are given lesson data numbers 17 through 23 in Table 5.3 below.

Table 5.3

The audiotaped and observed practicum lessons

PSET	School types	Grade	Length (minutes)	Lesson data #
1	VHS	Year 10	42	17
2	VHS	Year 11	49.3	18
3	VHS	Year 11	62.7	19
4	SHS	Year 10	55.5	20
5	SHS	Year 10	49.8	21
6	SHS	Year 12	46.6	22
7	SHS	Year 12	52.1	23

The audiotaped lessons were then transcribed and used as stimulus to insights from the participants in the semi-structured interviews.

5.2.4 Interviews

The interview is "one of the essential sources of case study information", especially used to follow up the researcher's line of enquiry (Yin, 2009, p.106). According to Yin (2009), in a case study the interview should not be structured, but carried out in a conversational manner, keeping the line of inquiry while also allowing for questions being asked in an unbiased way. As the interview in this research followed up the data found in the background questionnaire, learning and teaching journals, the unit syllabus, the microteaching video and audio taped practicum lesson, it is able to "corroborate certain facts" already found in these data (Yin, 2009, p.107). As a result, the questions to ask in the interview should be "carefully worded", avoiding leading questions (Yin, 2009, p.107) and allowing the participants' views to be expressed (Gillham, 2000). Therefore, in this research, semi structured interviews were done to collect the data from the PSETs, the lecturer of the CD unit and microteaching, the Head of the English Department, and the supervising English teachers. These semi structured interviews, however, were not meant to explore the PSETs' cognitive processes *while* they were teaching in the microteaching and practicum. This would have involved stimulated recall procedures (Gass & Mackey, 2007), which would best cater for such a purpose. Rather, the semi structured interviews conducted in this research sought PSETs' clarification on the results of the initial analysis of their learning journals and microteaching videos, hence gaining the

trust of the PSETs. Such semi structured interviews can also be categorised as retrospective given that their purpose was to recall what they had written in their learning journals and what they had done in the microteaching. All the semi structured interviews with the participants were audiotaped to "provide an accurate rendition of the interview" (Yin, 2009, p.109) and for the purposes of transcribing them for the data analysis.

The semi structured interviews with the PSETs were conducted after the collection of all other data and were planned to take up only a short time for each PSET. The original interview questions can be found in Appendix 7. The interview questions sought clarification about what the participants had written in their learning journals and what they had done and said in the videotaped microteaching lessons. Hence they varied according to each PSET's prior input. For example, the questions asked of PSET 7 about his learning journals in the CD unit and microteaching were as follows:

1. Can you mention the kinds of classroom language expressions you learn in the classroom discourse unit?

2. In your learning journal of Classroom Discourse you mention about listening and trying to remember. Do you always do that?

3. Do you mean that in practice teaching on campus you plan and write every expression you will use?

4. I saw in the video that most of your friends didn't respond appropriately to your questions. They didn't support your learning to be teacher. What do you think about that?

5. In the Classroom Discourse unit, did you learn how to stimulate students to communicate?

The interviews with the PSETs often took place in more than one session. This happened as some of the PSETs were busy with their study so that they often had limited time. They often had to short cut the interviews and asked the researcher to come back another time to continue.

The lecturer of both the CD and microteaching units was also interviewed. The original interview questions for the lecturer are presented in Appendix 8. These interview questions were to be asked in one 15-minute interview, but in fact she had

to stop the first interview and asked to continue another time. In the end, the planned semi structured interview was extended into three short interviews.

The modified interview questions to the lecturer were as follows:

1. Please tell me the classroom language you teach to the pre-service English teachers in Classroom Discourse unit.
2. Please tell me how you train them to use classroom language to support pupils' learning.
3. Please tell me about the Microteaching unit.
4. How did the pre-service English teachers practise in microteaching?
5. What teaching skills did they practise?
6. In your opinion, have they used classroom language effectively to support students in using productive classroom language in microteaching lessons?

The information from the PSETs and the lecturer of the two units was sometimes in contradiction. Therefore, I conducted a semi structured interview for fifteen minutes with the Head of the English Department to get some clarification on policy for the CD unit, microteaching and practicum. Some of the main questions posed were:

1. How was the syllabus of Classroom Discourse decided?
2. How is the unit supervised?
3. What is the different emphasis of Classroom Discourse unit and Microteaching unit?
4. How has the implementation of videotaping of microteaching been this year?

A final semi structured interview with PSETs was carried out near the end of the practicum in schools. The purpose was to clarify observation field notes and lesson transcriptions. The original semi structured interview questions about the practicum can be found in Appendix 10.

However, as in Phase 1, these questions had to undergo development based on available data. As a result, the actual semi structured interview questions with the PSETs about their learning and use of classroom language in the practicum varied from one PSET to another. Some questions were as follows:

1. Please tell me what you learned from the practicum.

2. Tell me more about managing your class.

3. Tell me about the teaching skills you developed during the practicum.

4. Your learning journals show that you always use translation to your students. Why?

5. You tried very hard to make your pupils interact in the target language but they did not respond. How do you feel about this?

6. In your lesson, you dominated the classroom talk. Why did you do that?

7. Please explain the roles of the supervising teachers for your learning to use classroom language.

To complement the information obtained from the interviews with the PSETs during the practicum, semi structured interviews with their supervising English teachers at the placement schools were also conducted. The purpose of these interviews was to get information about the ways they had supported the PSETs under their supervision in learning and using classroom language during the practicum. The original interview questions for the supervising English teachers can be found in Appendix 11.

Although all the interviews were conducted mainly in English, there were occasions when the PSETs, the lecturer, the Head of Department, and the supervising English teachers answered in Indonesian to express their feelings. However, as English would be used in reporting the interviews, I translated the non English responses myself. Interviews with all university and school staff were intended to get comprehensive descriptions of how the pre-service English teachers learn and use classroom language, using an "emic" perspective (Davis, 1995, p.433), or from the insiders' perspectives, allowing for interpretive qualitative analysis of the data.

5.2.5 Classroom observation

Observation is one of the sources of "evidence in a case study" (Yin, 2009, p.109) and "one of the most commonly employed data collection procedures in classroom research, as they allow researchers to gather detailed data on the events, interactions, and patterns of language use within particular foreign and second language classroom contexts" (Gass & Mackey, 2007, p.165). As described previously, the purpose of

classroom observation was to get a first hand record of the classroom in the practicum lesson to complete what was not captured through the audio taping. This includes the atmosphere of the classroom and the tensions felt by the PSETs and the pupil. According to Yin (2009, p.109), observation can be formal or casual, i.e., following either an observation instrument or protocol to "assess the occurrence of certain types of behaviours." In this case study the observation was relatively casual.

As mentioned earlier, I as the researcher was present as a non-participant observer in one of the lessons taught by the PSETs (during the last weeks of the practicum). Lessons were chosen by each PSET to show him or herself in a favourable light and were audiotaped. Each audiotaped lesson took about one hour, which is shorter than the usual 80 minutes as it was in a fasting month. The focus was on the PSETs' classroom language use, not that of the school students. I sat at the back of the class taking notes about the classroom contexts and what was happening for pupils when the PSETs used classroom language in their teaching (Gass & Mackey, 2007). Other things noted were the situations in which the classroom language served a certain pedagogical function, or when the participants resorted to first language as a medium of instruction, and their pupils' responses to their classroom language use. The audiotaped practicum lessons were then transcribed and used for insights in the semi-structured interviews with the participants and the supervising English teachers.

The collection of practicum data was not without challenges. It was indeed a difficult arrangement given the time of the observation in that year happened to coincide with the fasting month of Ramadan, for Muslims in Indonesia. During the fasting month two weeks are allowed for Islamic teaching, which reduces the time for other subjects by half.

Another hindrance in doing observation was the geography of East Java province which made school visits difficult because of the distance between the towns where the schools were located. Figure 5.1 shows the locations of the five schools
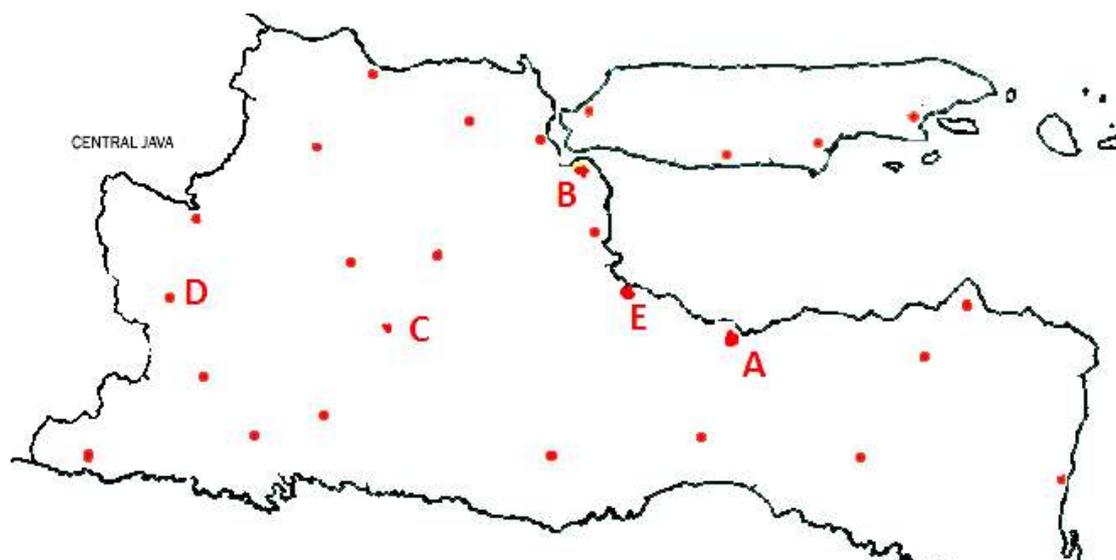
Figure 5.1. Locations of practicum schools (Modified map of East Java province[15])

As seen in Figure 5.1 above, the placement schools for the PSETs are widely spread through the East Java province. Town A, for example, is 100 kilometres south east of Town B, where Pahlawan University is located. Another town, Town C, is 125 kilometres south west of Town B. The farthest town is Town D, around 274 kilometres south west of Town B. During the observation time, I stayed in my hometown, Town E, located 60 kilometres south of Town B, only 39 kilometres to the west of Town A (Abadi, 2012). Thus, on one occasion, to reach the school in Town D where PSETs 6 and 7 were placed, I had to set out at 2 a.m. just to get to the first English lesson of that day at 7.30 am.

5.3 Procedures for data analysis

As this research took a case study design in a qualitative approach, the data in this research were analysed qualitatively. A qualitative data analysis is "a process of examining and interpreting data in order to elicit meaning, gain understanding, and develop empirical knowledge" (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p.1). Yin (2009) adds that the general analytic strategies for case study design can rely on theories, or develop descriptions of the case, or use both quantitative and qualitative data, or examine other explanations for the answers to the research questions (Yin, 2009). This means to start the analysis the researcher can use the research questions and match them with

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[15] Source: madura.blogdetik.com/files/2009/02/madura.png

the data to develop tentative answers to the questions and recheck the answers for further analysis until the researcher feels confident of the answers (Yin, 2006, 2009). Following Yin (2009), this research used the research questions as the starting point to analyse the data. The overarching research question, "How do the pre-service English teachers implement the classroom language taught in the CD unit in their microteaching and practicum lessons?" drew on all of the answers to Research Questions 1, 2, 3, and 4. This means that all the procedures for data analysis for each of the research questions were used to support each other, aiming at understanding the case study in this research and if possible helping the researcher to develop a logical model for this case study (Yin, 2009). The theoretical framework presented in Chapters 2 and 3 has been used to explain the findings of this case study. Through this model, it is possible to explain the role the CD unit has played in PSETs' learning to teach English. Since many of the data for the case study are interviews and audiotapes of lessons, there "must be transcription...which allows the sort of focused attention on minutiae of talk that promotes insights into technique and content" (Richards, 2003, p.81). This focussed attention is particularly useful in this thesis on classroom language.

The procedures for analysing the data for each of the research questions are outlined below.

5.3.1 Identification of categories in documents and interview transcripts

Research Question 1, "What is the nature of classroom language presented in the Classroom Discourse unit?" was used as the starting point to analyse the handbook of the teacher education program, syllabus and handouts of the unit, teaching journals, the learning journals, and the interviews with the PSETs, the lecturer and the Head of the English Department.

The analysis of these data was conducted in three steps. The first was to identify the categories of the nature of classroom language in several sources of data in the form of texts, i.e., handbook of the program, syllabus and handouts of the unit, and teaching journals respectively. According to Bazerman (2006), such identification of categories is a kind of analysis of what the texts represent, or a content analysis. This

was done by firstly reading through the documents systematically and "formally noting what seems important or salient" (Bazerman, 2006, p.79). These are phrases or sections of the texts in the documents which are evidence for classroom language that Pahlawan University wanted the PSETs to learn in the CD unit and use in the microteaching and practicum lessons. The handouts for the CD unit are in Appendix 12. In the second step, other data sources, namely, learning journals and interview transcripts were then systematically examined in the light of these categories. This analysis is called analysing texts in relation to other texts, with the purpose to look for points of connections between these texts (Bazerman, 2006). In this way, the researcher could find out whether all characteristics could be organized into a set of categories. It was expected that by the end of analysis of the data for Research Question 1, a working list of categories of classroom language and their relationships in the CD unit would be established. The third step was to interpret the nature of classroom language presented in the program.

Similarly, to answer Research Question 2, "How do the PSETs learn the classroom language in the Classroom Discourse unit?" the researcher firstly read through learning journals for the CD unit especially those answering the third guiding question, "How I make myself learn that classroom language". This was conducted to identify the categories of ways of learning classroom language. The resulting categories were then used to examine the interviews with the PSETs and the lecturer of the CD unit in the light of these categories. A sample of analysis for learning journals for the CD unit can be found in Appendix 15.

To analyse the contents of interviews, these have to be transcribed (Richards, 2003), "in complete written form" such as by "writing down everything, including the main questions you ask, and the prompts and probes" (Gillham, 2000, p.62). According to Richards (2003, p.81), the transcription system for "interviews does not need to be sophisticated…it should aim for maximum readability without sacrificing essential features". The system should at least be able to show pauses, overlap, emphasis, fillers, intonation, problematic features and non verbal features (Richards, 2003).

The transcription of the interviews in this research was made by modifying Richards' (2003) suggestion. The transcription of the interviews with the PSETs, lecturer, Head

of Department and each supervising English teacher in this research were put in tables with three columns. The table contains the transcriptions in the first column, the categories in the second column, and comments/crosscheck in the third column. The transcriptions are identified by the PSET's number and the interview number. A sample of analysis of transcriptions of interviews with the lecturer is presented in Appendix 19 and a sample of analysis of interviews with the PSETs is presented in Appendix 20.

The PSETs' interview transcripts were then highlighted for the categories of classroom language, which were matched with learning journals and microteaching. The lecturer interview transcripts and her journal were highlighted for the categories of classroom language and how it was presented to the PSETs. The results of this were matched with the syllabus and learning journals. The Head of Department's interview transcript was also highlighted for the categories of classroom language and compared with the handbook of the English teacher education program.

The resulting categories for each of the interviews with the PSETs, lecturer and Head of the Department were put in the second column of each transcription table (Richards, 2003). Following Gillham's (2000) suggestion, the transcripts had to be reread and the highlighted categories rechecked, and comments, if applicable, were made in the third column. In this way, the researcher could tell whether the other data could be organized into the same categories. It was expected that by the end of analysis of the data for Research Questions 1 and 2, a working list of the nature of classroom language taught in the CD unit and the ways the PSETs learned it in the CD unit could be established. The final step was to interpret the working list by relating it to the process of data collection and the other data sources to make sense of them (Richards, 2003) and "to bring [them] to life" (Gillham, 2000, p.66).

5.3.2 Transcriptions, AS-units and BTSs

Research Question 3 asks "To what extent do PSETs implement classroom language learned in the Classroom Discourse unit in their microteaching and practicum lessons?" The first step to answer this question was to transcribe all the microteaching and practicum lessons. The transcription was made at a "craft level" not "a theoretical

level of analysis", following the suggestion by Westgate (1988, p.148) on the kind of transcriptions used for teacher training. The idea is that the teaching in the transcriptions "was seen in a straightforward perspective of human interaction" (Westgate, 1988, p.148), using the PSETs' interpretation of the events presented to them in the CD unit and based on the expressions written in the handouts of the CD unit.

The next step to answer Research Question 3 was to quantify the language in the transcription of microteaching and practicum lessons. It is common for applied linguistic studies to use quantification as one way to allow comparisons with other studies and enable generalizations to be made (Chaudron, 1988). In fact, many studies in applied linguistics employ descriptive statistics, which means that the end purpose is still a qualitative data analysis rather than statistically proving or disproving a hypothesis (Lazaraton, 1995). The quantification in this research was to find out:

1. to what extent classroom language expressing the Basic Teaching Skills (hereafter, BTSs) as promoted in the CD unit, was implemented by the PSETs
2. the proportion of teachers' classroom language in relation to pupils' language
3. how much English was used as the medium of instruction in the microteaching and practicum lessons.

Despite the craft level of transcription, there was a need for a guide to quantify the classroom language used by the PSETs in microteaching and practicum lessons. To serve this purpose, the Analysis of Speech Unit (AS-unit) (Foster, et al., 2000) was used. An AS-unit is "a single speaker's utterance consisting of an independent clause, or sub-clausal unit, together with any subordinate clause(s) associated with either" (Foster, et al., 2000, p.365) so that it can be used to analyse more than a clause. An example of one AS-unit is

│You go to the main street of Twickenham│
(Foster, et al., 2000, p.365).

More guidelines for deeming an utterance to be an AS-unit are presented in Appendix 13.

After the number of AS-units in each of the videotaped microteaching and audio taped practicum lessons was obtained, the AS-units produced by the PSETs were organised according to BTSs and sub teaching skills (following the findings of

Research Question 1). This used the sequence of BTSs as a frame, namely: opening the lesson, organising the class, explaining the lesson, asking questions, giving reinforcement, varying stimuli, organising small group discussion, and closing the lesson. The change between BTSs could easily be marked from the change of classroom language expressions used by the PSETs. An example for the change of BTSs is presented in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4

Marking the change of BTS in lesson segment #1

lines	Lesson transcript	BTS
	T:OK student. OK. Now. well. The class is very clean but oh come on. Who get the picket today?	Opening the lesson
25	OK Guys come to clean it come on.	
	(A student cleaned the board)	
	OK. while Intan clean the white board, now I gonna ask you. Oh, have some of you got some job? Usually job, any job?	Explaining the lesson
	P1: No	

Table 5.4 shows PSET 1 changed from BTS opening the lesson to BTS Explaining the lesson. When PSET 1 says "OK. while Intan clean the white board, now I gonna ask you", he marks the beginning of the BTS Explaining the lesson. In this case PSET 1 started to talk about the topic of the lesson, which was writing a resume for a job application.

To give an example of how the AS-unit was used to count the classroom language for a certain BTS, the following coding was done. The AS-units produced by T (PSET 1) in lines 16-22 below matched the BTS Opening the lesson and were used for sub teaching skill 'Checking pupils' attendance', which is put in brackets.

Table 5.5

AS-units and BTSs in lesson segment #1

AS-unit	lines	Lesson transcript	BTS
1		│{OK. OK,}2 Now who is absent today? │	Opening the lesson
1		Ps: │Shobi│	(Checking attendance)
1		T: │Shobi? │	
2		P2: │*Shobi itu nakal pak. Ia bolos pulang ke Jogja*│	
		(Tran.: Shobi is naughty. He went home to Jogja)	
1	*20*	T: │{OK,} {So.} Yayuk absent too, why? │	
		Ps: │She is going with Shobi, Sir│	
2		T: │Oh my God. │ │That's not very nice│	

Table 5.5 shows how AS-units were identified in the lesson transcripts as suggested by Foster et al. (2000). The table shows the number of AS-units in each line, the two-bar marker (|**..**|) of AS-unit, the bracket marker ({..}) of fillers which were not considered as part of the AS-unit, and the identified BTS for that AS-unit. In this way, the total number of AS-units for the identified BTS in classroom language used by the PSETs in their microteaching lessons could be calculated.

In Table 5.5 there are some expressions in italics. As a guide, any stretch of language other than English was italicised to distinguish it from the target language used by the PSETs and pupils. This is called the "base code" of classroom interaction by Bonacina and Gafaranga (2011, p.322). Its application can be seen in line 19, where 2 AS-units were Indonesian sentences (the researcher's translation into English follows immediately). In certain cases where there was only one word or phrase different from the main language, the rule of thumb followed was to deem the AS-unit to be in the main language. This can be exemplified in the following transcript.

Table 5.6

English words in Indonesian sentences in lesson segment #5

AS-unit	*lines*	Lesson transcript	BTS
1	*30*	P7: ⎜*Ma'am* color-*nya bisa dibandingkan ga?*[16] ⎜	Explaining the lesson
1		T: ⎜Pardon? ⎜	
1		P7: ⎜Color-*nya bisa dibandingkan ga?* ⎜	
2		T: ⎜Yes. But {now we, but} now we are learn about comparison ⎜	

In Table 5.6, one word "color" is said in English, within an Indonesian utterance by Pupil 7, so the AS-unit was considered as spoken Indonesian language. Secondly, the researcher checked if other language words or phrases could be counted as a clause, as in the example below.

Table 5.7

Indonesian words in an English sentence in lesson data #17

AS-unit	*lines*	Lesson transcript	BTS
1		⎜{OK} for formal call we usually use, for example, good morning, good afternoon or good evening or there is time. ⎜	Explaining the lesson
1	*160*	⎜ So if you call public service such as police station like that, *anda tak perlu*, 'Hello, good morning.' ⎜	
3		⎜How are you? ⎜ ⎜ Fine. ⎜ ⎜How do you do? ⎜ (Ps laughing)	

Table 5.7 gives an example of an Indonesian utterance within an English sentence. In lines 160-161, PSET 1 said, "So if you call public service such as police station like that, *anda tidak perlu*[17], hello good morning" as part of his explanation about telephone greetings. The Indonesian words *"anda tidak perlu"* became part of the explanation sentence in English. This makes the sentence 1 AS-unit spoken in English.

These guidelines or rules of thumb for identifying the words or phrases of language other than the main language do not reflect the four classifications of language switch (L1, L1c, Mix, L2, L2c) used in Duff and Polio (1990) and Kim and Elder (2005).

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[16] Translation: Maam, can we compare their colors?
[17] Translation: You do not need [to say].

The main reason for this choice is that the purpose of the present research was not to find out the proportion of language switch, but to investigate the implementation of classroom language expressions taught to the PSETs in the CD unit in microteaching and practicum lessons. Moreover, this method can also be used to show which language was chosen and how much that language was used by the PSETs and their pupils to demonstrate particular BTSs.

After all the AS-units had been identified according to the BTSs, sub teaching skills and language, the number of AS-units for each language spoken by the PSETs and pupils could then be calculated. The calculation could be used to tell the proportion of the teacher's contribution to the total classroom language use and the proportion of languages other than English to the English classroom language use by both the teacher and pupils. A sample of analysis of a lesson using these descriptions is presented in Appendix 14. Examples of lesson data from microteaching and practicum lessons are in Appendix 22.

The transcripts of microteaching and practicum lessons were also scrutinised for the idiomatic expressions written in the handouts of the CD unit. This was intended to find out which expressions had been implemented by the PSETs in microteaching and the practicum. The search for these expressions began with entering the transcripts of the lessons into Microsoft Office Word 2007. Then each of the expressions in the handouts was keyed into the search facility, called Find (Ctrl+F). Terms and text that were exactly the same or similar were then identified and their locations in the lessons were noted down. These expressions used in the lessons were then put into a table as seen in Appendix 18. These descriptions of classroom language use were used in the analysis of the data for Research Question 3.

5.3.3 Next turn proof procedures

Research Question 4 asks "What kinds of scaffolding are represented in classroom language used in the microteaching and practicum?" Answers to this question were based on findings to Research Question 3. First, the pedagogical aspects of classroom language use were identified in the transcripts of microteaching and practicum lessons. The identification was based on my *own judgement* according to the

language used by PSETs. This judgement followed Johnson's (1990) descriptions of pedagogical intentions, namely, whether the PSETs wanted to give information about the subject matter (informative); whether they wanted to interact with pupils (interactive); and whether they wanted to give direction or orders to the pupils (operational) (Johnson, 1990). In this way, the number of AS-units for the judged intentions can be identified and placed in an additional column to the ones in Table 5.7. The new Table 5.8 was thus formed:

Table 5.8

Pedagogical aspects of classroom language in lesson segment #2

AS-unit	*lines*	Lesson transcript	BTS	Pedagogical aspects
1		T: │ {Well, then,} now I want you to divide yourselves into several groups, {OK.}? │	Organising small group discussion	Operational
1		│ I will count up to ten and all must have been divided │ (Ps dividing themselves quickly)		
1	*215*	│ {OK, } Have you done class? {OK.}. │		
1		│ Now each group please send one of the representatives to come forward. │ (Ps pointing at each other)		

As suggested by Walsh (2006a), scaffolding is one of the features of interactions between teacher and pupils, which he calls modes, or "the relationships between language use and pedagogic purpose in specific classroom micro-context" (p. 140). According to Walsh (2006), scaffolding may be present during interactions as materials, skills and system, and classroom context modes. In the materials mode, the pedagogic purpose of classroom language is focused "on the use of texts, tape or other materials" and in the skills and systems mode, the "main focus is on particular language items, vocabulary or a specific skill", while the classroom context mode is focused on "eliciting feelings, attitudes and emotions of learners" (Walsh, 2006a, p.140). Informed by these modes, scaffolding in the transcripts is likely to be found in the segments grouped under four of the eight BTSs in particular (namely, Explaining the lesson, Asking questions, Giving feedback and Varying stimuli) and which express two intentions (informative and interactive).

Following the identification of these segments in the transcripts, analysis was conducted to find out whether these AS-units provided scaffolding. This analysis used

Forman's (2008) notions of priming, prompting, and dialoguing and Walsh's (2006a) descriptions of reformulation, extension and modelling. Such analysis used "the next turn proof procedure in relation to the pedagogical focus" as suggested by Seedhouse (2004, p.188). In other words, the response of pupils in the next turn proves or disproves the intention of the teacher. From this, the researcher might also judge the extent of supportive value, between least supportive and most supportive, as suggested by Sharpe (2001), on the conditions that clear criteria are developed. The judgement for such values could be confirmed by the use of supporting data from the researcher's classroom observation notes and interviews with the PSETs. In fact, the question of scaffolding arose from lesson data and was not asked about at the time of interviews. Additionally, views on their intentions expressed in learner journals were used as triangulation for the analysis of the lesson transcripts (Davis, 1995; Yin, 2009). An example of analysis of a learning journal entry in microteaching is presented in Appendix 16, while a sample analysis of a learning journal in a practicum lesson is presented in Appendix 17. This analysis from the four data sources revealed the existence of scaffolding in microteaching and practicum lessons.

5.4 Attempts to maintain validity and reliability of research

According to Richards (2003, p.284), validity and reliability have been controversial issues for qualitative studies, as there is a "confluence of positivist concepts and naturalistic concerns". While maintaining the term validity and reliability in qualitative research in TESOL areas, Richards (2003) also suggests that there is an alternative term to this, namely trustworthiness. Trustworthiness includes "relevant naturalistic criteria" in line with positivist concepts, namely "credibility for internal validity, transferability for external validity and dependability for reliability, and confirmability for objectivity" (Richards, 2003, p.286). Following Richards (2003), the terms validity and reliability are used in this research, because both qualitative and quantitative analyses have been carried out.

Validity is a matter of "how we can be sure that our representations correspond to the phenomena we have encountered", while reliability asks "how we can be sure that our representations of the data are consistent" (Richards, 2003, p.285). To check validity, Richards (2003, p.287) suggests that the researcher ask for the validations

from team members in the research, or make "constant comparison" of the previously found coding or categories with other coding or categories, and try to find new relationships among the emerging categories, or even use the contrasting evidence in the data. Quoting Maxwell, Richards (2003, p.286) suggests that reliability of qualitative research can be "assessed in terms of the documentation of research design, data, analysis, reflection, and so on". By asking peer researchers, for example to check the documentation, "the researchers' decisions are open to others" (Richards, 2003, p.286). He adds, "any method that challenges or checks the robustness of the data or the process of analysis and interpretation in a new ways is worthy of consideration" (Richards, 2003, p.287).

Following Richards' (2003, p.287) suggestions, this research had made some efforts to maintain validity before data and during data collection as well as during data analysis. As explained in the previous section, there was piloting for the background information questionnaire. After that, during the data collection, there were attempts to triangulate data. For example, the interview questions for the PSETs in Phase 1of the research were based on the data obtained in the learning journals and in the microteaching videos. Similarly, the semi structured interview questions for the lecturer and Head of Department were based on the handbook of the English teacher education program, the syllabus of the unit, teaching journals and PSETs' learning journals. Similar attempts to do triangulation were also made with the interviews in Phase 2. For example, the semi structured interview questions for the PSETs about their practicum were based on the data obtained in the learning journals written during the practicum as well as on observation of their practicum lessons. Similarly, the semi structured interview questions for the supervising English teachers were based on the PSETs' learning journals, the researcher's observation notes, and semi structured interviews with the PSETs.

In addition to these measures to maintain validity, the PSETs were also asked to check the transcriptions of the Microteaching lessons and those of the practicum lesson. A similar check was also made of the transcriptions of the semi structured interviews with all of the participants (Gillham, 2000). This means that the validity of the transcriptions was evident in   the confirmation by the participants, as suggested

by Richards (2003). All of these measures were intended to maintain the validity of the research to make the analysis rigorous (Gillham, 2000).

During the data analysis, attempts to maintain validity and reliability were also made. For example, as was made clear in the sections above, most of the data analysis was sequential. That means each of the data analysis procedures depended on the results of a previous data analysis. All these attempts were made to allow for the confirmation of the results of each data analysis procedure, so that readers can see that the data collection procedures correspond with the research questions, data analysis and conclusion. This is what is called the internal validity of this research or the credibility of this research (Richards, 2003).

In order to maintain the reliability of the research, there were attempts, described in the previous section, to make the instruments clear and accessible so that other researchers could replicate the procedures of data collection. Moreover, the kinds of data collected were made clear and the data analysis procedures have been documented in detail. It is hoped that other researchers who are interested in conducting similar studies can use or improve both the procedures of data collection and data analysis (Richards, 2003). If this hope is achieved, the researcher has also added external validity in this research.

5.5 Chapter summary

This chapter has presented in detail how the data were collected and analysed. The research used multiple sources of data (documentation and naturalistic data). These data were collected in two research Phases. Multiple instruments (questionnaire, learning and teaching journals, videotaping and audiotaping, classroom observation) were used to collect the data. Section three has explained how the data for each of the research questions were analysed. The data analysis was mainly qualitative. A justification of the use of some quantitative analysis through the use of AS-units has been made. AS-units were mainly used to show PSETs' classroom language for a particular BTS and the proportion of classroom language use between teachers and pupils. Guidelines for transcriptions of lessons, identification of AS-units and identification of languages spoken in lessons were also presented in Section Three.

Section Four outlines attempts to maintain the validity and reliability of this qualitative research and has demonstrated that the use of different instruments and data analysis procedures was necessary for obtaining correct data and conducting a sound analysis. All of these are expected to provide validity and reliability to this research.

The following four chapters present findings to the research questions of this research.

Chapter 6
Learning Classroom Language in the Classroom Discourse Unit

This chapter principally answers Research Question 1, "What is the nature of classroom language taught in the Classroom Discourse (CD) unit?" and Research Question 2 "How do the PSETs learn classroom language in the CD unit?" It firstly presents the findings about the nature of classroom language taught to the PSETs in the CD unit of the English teacher education program at Pahlawan University. It then outlines how the PSETs learned classroom language in that unit. Classroom language is analysed according to categories found in the data. The ways PSETs learned classroom language in the CD unit are analysed through categories found in their learning journals and in interviews with them and with the lecturer of the unit.

6.1 Classroom language in the CD unit

An identification of categories of classroom language presented in the program started with the analysis of documents of the CD unit, namely, the handbook for the English teacher education program, the syllabus and handouts for the CD unit written by the lecturer. Following Bazerman's (2006) suggestion, the identification of categories was done by firstly reading through the documents systematically, noting and highlighting "what seems important or salient" (p.79) phrases or sections of the texts in the documents . These sections of texts represent kinds of evidence for the nature of classroom language that Pahlawan University wanted the PSETs to learn in the CD unit. The key terms salient in data were highlighted and compared.

The handbook for the English teacher education program of the 2006 cohort contains the unit names and weightings required to complete the English teacher education program. One of the unit names is Classroom Discourse, which has been described in the handbook in the following ways[18],

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[18] See Appendix 2 for the original description of the CD unit in the handbook of the program.

08414216 Classroom Discourse

Lecturer in-charge: [Name]

Description

Competency or skill in using scaffolding talk during the teaching and learning process of English lesson in the classroom.

Compulsory readings

Depdiknas. 2004. Kurikulum 2004. Standar Kompetensi Mata Pelajaran Bahasa Inggris SMA dan MA, SMP dan MTs. Jakarta: Depdiknas.

Dirdasmen. 2004. Ungkapan-ungkapan Bahasa Inggris untuk Tujuan Pengajaran. Jakarta: Depdiknas.

(Pahlawan University, 2006, p.226, my translation)

The description above shows that the CD unit is intended to develop PSETs' skills in 'scaffolding talk' during the teaching and learning process in the classroom. This objective was then made as the first category of classroom language taught to the PSETs in the CD unit. To achieve that objective, the handbook also recommends that PSETs read two readings. The first text is the English curriculum for general Senior High School (SHS) and Junior High School (JHS) level and the second one is an article, titled *"Ungkapan-ungkapan Bahasa Inggris untuk Tujuan Pengajaran"* (English expressions for teaching purposes) published by Dirdasmen (2004).

The handbook, does not, however, provide any definition of 'scaffolding talk'. Analysis of the syllabus and handouts of the CD unit, found that these documents did not contain 'scaffolding talk' either. The syllabus is quoted as follows:

Classroom Discourse

Objectives:

1. students are able to understand and identify eight basic teaching skills
2. students are able to identify and mention the expressions used in implementing the eight basic teaching skills
3. students are able to implement/do teaching practice in simulation using all the expressions

Compulsory readings:

Willis, Jane. 1981. Teaching English through English. Harlow: Essex: Longman Group Ltd.

Other References: Microteaching (PPL) VCDs of the 2005 cohort—Groups 2 and 10 (Sinta, 2009c, my translation).

In the lecturer-made syllabus above, the CD unit has three objectives, all aimed towards developing eight Basic Teaching Skills (BTSs). The first objective of the CD unit aims at PSETs' understanding and identification of the eight BTSs. The second objective is identifying and mentioning the expressions used for performing the eight BTSs. The third objective is the implementation of the eight BTSs in simulation. These objectives in the syllabus clearly contain a different category of classroom language from the previously identified. Thus, the second category of classroom language is 'expressions used in conducting eight BTSs'.

When Sinta, the lecturer, was asked how scaffolding talk had become the eight BTSs, she explained that it was an agreement made between the three lecturers in charge of the CD unit. Sinta said,

> It was because there are 8 teaching skills, mainly. We, the lecturers in-charge of the CD unit, had a meeting, and discussed the CD unit. It was agreed. It (the CD unit) was the theory before microteaching and practicum. The microteaching is the place for applying what the PSET learn in the CD unit. So, we gave them the theories in the forms of classroom language expressions commonly used in teaching. Teaching consists of many skills; these teaching skills are eight.
> (Lecturer, Interview 2, my translation)

The Head of Department confirmed Sinta's explanation above. She added that,

> Classroom Discourse is given before PPL 1[19]. OK, at the same time as PPL 1. And then when they have to do the simulation in PPL 1, they have to apply the classroom discourse. So it is something that is very connected. What is studied and learned in classroom discourse should be applied in PPL 1 and the students have to do it as a practice to use it. And the objective of PPL 1 is to prepare before they go to the real teaching practice.
> (Head of Department, Interview, original English text)

In the interviews above, the lecturer of the CD unit and Head of Department did not refer to scaffolding talk at all. Instead, they agreed that the classroom language taught in the CD unit was based on the basic teaching skills in the Microteaching unit.

To confirm this combination, the description of the Microteaching unit in the handbook of the English teacher education program (see Appendix 3), was scrutinised. Its description, however, does not include anything related to classroom language. The handbook states that the microteaching unit is for introducing the

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[19] i.e. the microteaching. See Section 1.3 for details.

PSETs to teaching experience through classroom observation, orientation, and application of classroom management skills in a peer teaching session. A booklet containing guidelines for the Microteaching, which was published by the placement unit (Tim UPTP4, 2008, p.41; 2009, p.41), does contain *keterampilan dasar mengajar*[20] (or BTSs). The placement unit states that one of the objectives of microteaching is for the PSETs to understand and practise the BTSs, namely:

1. in opening and closing the lesson skills
2. skill in managing class
3. explaining skill
4. questioning skill
5. skill in giving reinforcement
6. skill in varying stimuli
7. skill in leading small group discussion
8. clinical supervision and remedial teaching (Tim UPTP4, 2008, p.41; 2009, p.41, my translation)

In fact, the handouts of the CD unit, which were given to the PSETs for use in the class, contain similar names of BTSs. Table 6.1 copies the format of the handouts and provides examples of expressions for performing the eight BTSs.

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[20] Translation: Basic teaching skills

Table 6.1

BTSs and their expressions in the handouts of the CD unit

No	Basic Teaching Skills	Subteaching skills	Language expressions	
			Teacher	Students' responses
1	Opening the lesson	Greeting	Good morning, everybody. How are you?	Good morning Mr Short. Fine thanks, and you?
		Checking attendance	Right! I'm going to call the roll.	Yes, Miss White
		Stimulating students' motivation to learn something	Who can remember what we talked about last lesson?	Me, Sir. We talked about…
2	Organising the class	Checking physical conditions in the classroom	It's rather hot in this room, isn't it?	Yes it is
		Getting organised: blackboard, seating, and books	Now, please could someone clean the blackboard?	Yes I will.
		Control and discipline	OK, everyone, quiet now and no more talking.	
3	Explaining the lesson	Talking about lesson	First, we are going to practise this.	
4	Asking questions		Who can answer question number 1?	Me, Mam/Sir.
5	Giving reinforcement	Giving appraisal	Well done! Good.	
6	Varying stimuli	Applying language games, role play or singing a song		
		Displaying or setting visual or/and audio teaching media	Could someone fix this picture up on the wall?	Me, Mam/Sir.
		Clearing up the teaching media	Would someone take them down now and put them back in the drawer?	Me, Sir.
7	Organising small group discussion		Now, I'll divide you into half.	
8	Closing the lesson	Ending the lesson	Well, everyone. Finish the sentence you are writing. Then put your pens down. It's time to clear up…come on finish now. Ok?	
		Setting homework	At home do the exercise on page 9.	

(Sinta, 2009b)

Table 6.1 provides a list of the eight BTSs, sub teaching skills, and the examples of idiomatic expressions in English to be used in the teaching process from opening the lesson to closing it, for both the teacher and pupils. The numbering of the eight BTSs in Table 6.1 will be used for the rest of the chapters.

Table 6.1 also shows that the BTS no 3 (Asking questions) and the BTS no 7 (Organising small group discussion) do not have sub teaching skills. For the BTS no 1 (Opening the lesson), there are three sub teaching skills, namely: Greeting, Checking attendance and Stimulating students' motivation to learn. There are also three sub teaching skills for the BTS no 2 (Organising the class), namely Checking physical conditions in the classroom, Getting the blackboard, seating, and books organised, and Control and discipline. The BTS no 3 (Explaining the lesson), also has one sub teaching skill, Talking about lesson. Similar to the BTS no 3, BTS no 5 (Giving reinforcement) has also been dubbed as Giving appraisal. The BTS no 6 (Varying stimuli) has three sub teaching skills, namely Applying language games, Role play or singing a song, Displaying or setting visual and audio teaching media, and Clearing up the teaching media. Finally, the BTS no 8 (Closing the lesson) has two sub teaching skills, namely, Ending the lesson and Setting homework.

The idiomatic expressions in English in Table 6.1 are based on the 13 sub teaching skills listed in the third column. These expressions are used in a kind of interaction between teachers and pupils although many of them are only for teachers' use. The examples of expressions used in interaction are for Greeting, Checking attendance, Stimulating students' motivation to learn, Checking physical conditions, Getting the blackboard organised, Asking questions, Displaying or setting visual and audio teaching media, and Clearing and up teaching media. In these examples, pupils' responses are relatively short, such as: "Yes it is", "Yes, I will", and "Me, Sir", while teacher's expressions are relatively long, ranging from a few sentences long (such as the one for Ending the lesson) to one-word expressions (such as the one for Giving appraisal).

The expressions in Table 6.1 are mostly ones used for daily routines. The routines in the opening of lesson include saying greetings, checking the attendance of the pupils, checking the classroom situation and cleanliness. Other routines probe the pupils' conditions and readiness for the lesson. A routine is also used for closing the lessons by saying "it's time to clear up...come on finish now". All of these will be followed by giving homework.

The eight BTSs in Table 6.1 above do not include one basic teaching skill called *supervisi klinis dan remedial teaching*[21] as part of the BTSs in the booklet of the Microteaching unit (Tim UPTP4, 2008, p.41; 2009, p.41). To maintain eight, however, the BTS Opening and Closing the lesson was separated into two different BTSs in the CD unit (the BTSs no 1 and no 8). Hence, the eight BTSs to be learned by the PSETs in the CD unit are listed below:

1. Opening the lesson, including: Greeting, Checking the attendance, and Stimulating the students' motivation to learn

2. Organising the class, including: Checking the physical conditions in the classroom, Control and discipline, and Getting blackboard, seating, and books organised.

3. Explaining the lesson, including: Talking about the lesson

4. Asking questions

5. Giving reinforcement, including: Giving appraisal

6. Varying stimuli, including: Applying language games, Role play or singing a song, Displaying or setting visual or/and audio teaching media and Cleaning up the teaching media

7. Organising the small group discussion

8. Closing the lesson, including: Ending the lesson and Setting homework

Using the list of BTSs and their expressions taught in the CD unit, it is reasonable to add a word 'English' to the expressions in the second category of classroom language. Thus, the second category of classroom language becomes 'English expressions used in practising eight BTSs'. Moreover, it can also subdivided into eight subcategories. For instance, a subcategory of classroom language can be made following the first BTS, that is, 'expressions used in opening the lesson in English'. This subcategory of classroom language is manifested in the teacher's statement for checking attendance like "Right, I'm going to call the roll" and students' expected response, like "Yes, Miss White". A similar derivation can be made for other BTSs.

Thus, so far two categories of classroom language have been found in the related data sources. These are:

1) Scaffolding talk during the teaching and learning process

2) English expressions used in practising eight BTSs, including:

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[21] Translation: clinical supervision and remedial teaching

- English expressions used in opening the lesson
- English expressions used in organising the class
- English expressions used in explaining the lesson
- English expressions used in asking questions
- English expressions used in giving reinforcement
- English expressions used in varying stimuli
- English expressions used in organising small group discussion
- English expressions used in closing the lesson

When the two categories of classroom language were systematically used to examine the unit guide (presented in Table 6.2), no *exact* match for both categories of classroom language was found. Instead, the unit guide only listed the BTSs, which the lecturer wanted to teach in the second and third weeks of the semester.

Table 6.2

Unit guide for the CD unit

Meeting/ Week	Lecture materials
1.	BCO Review: explanation about Classroom Discourse unit
2.	Explanation about basic teaching skills
3.	Explanation about basic teaching skills
4.	Playing Microteaching VCD (2)
5.	Playing Microteaching VCD Group 10
6.	Teaching practice (simulation) individually/representative of groups
7.	Teaching practice (simulation) individually/representative of groups
8.	Group Presentation (Group I-II), Results of observing school teacher
9.	Group Presentation (Group III-IV), Results of observing school teacher
10.	Group Presentation (Group V-VI), Results of observing school teacher
11.	Group Presentation (Group VII-VIII), Results of observing school teacher
12.	Group Presentation (Group IX-X), Results of observing school teacher
13.	Mid semester test (written test)
14.	Teaching practice I (small groups—consisting of 10 PSETs)

(Sinta, 2009a)

Table 6.2 shows that the lecturer explained what the CD unit is in the first week of the semester. She also explained what the eight BTSs were in the second and third weeks of semester. She then set the fourth and fifth week for showing microteaching lessons

conducted by the previous cohorts (prior to the 2006 cohort) to be watched by the PSETs. Afterwards, the PSETs did teaching simulations. All this shows that the CD unit guide (up to week seven) has supported the second category of classroom language (English expressions used in practising eight BTSs).

In light of the two emerging categories of classroom language, PSETs' learning journals for the CD unit were examined. It was found that the second category of classroom language emerged in the first two of six entries of each of the PSETs' learning journals. The other four entries focused on the observation of microteaching videos of the previous cohorts, observation of real teachers, and presentation of their observation reports. For example, in the following entry, PSET 5 wrote that the classroom language she learned that day was the expression used for Opening the lesson and Checking pupils' attendance.

> The Classroom language I learned in today's session:
> - Opening a lesson: "Greeting (*Assalamualaikum Wr.Wb*. Good morning students)
> - Checking attendance (Has everybody here? Who is absent?)
> (PSET 5, the CD unit learning journals, entry 1)

In the journal entry above, PSET 5 mentioned non English expressions for Greeting in the opening of lesson, *"Assalamualaikum"*. *"*Wr Wb*"* stands for *Warahmatullahi Wabarakaatuh*. It is an Islamic greeting used on almost all occasions in Indonesia. English greeting, "Good morning students" was also reported to be learned that day. The expression "Has [sic] everybody here?" used for checking attendance should actually be written "Is everybody here?"

Another learning journal entry below also equates classroom language and the eight BTSs.

> The Classroom language I learned in today's session:
> - Eight basic teaching skills (opening the lesson, organising the class, explaining the lesson, asking questions, giving reinforcement, varying stimuli, organising small group discussion, closing the lesson)
> (PSET 2, the CD unit learning journals, entry 1)

In the learning journal entry above, PSET 2 mentioned that the classroom language he learnt in the CD unit was the eight BTSs although he listed only seven BTSs. All this

shows that the learning journals of the CD unit contained the second category of classroom language, i.e. English expressions for performing the eight BTSs.

Further interviews with the Head of Department, the lecturer of the CD unit and with the PSETs have also confirmed the second category of classroom language. The Head of Department pointed out that,

> The students who take the classroom discourse should practise to use all the statements or all the expressions provided in the book, especially the book Teaching English through English.
> (Head of Department, Interview, original English text)

From the interview above, the Head of Department explicitly stated that the English expressions taught to the PSETs in the CD unit were taken from a book titled *Teaching English through English* (Willis, 1981). She also emphasised the importance of learning classroom language expressions during the CD unit as follows.

> It is very important for the students actually if they don't know how to call the students and then check their attendance list and how to assess student why they come late or not. It's a skill that must be achieved by all of the students of the English department especially for the education program. (Head of Department, Interview, original English text)

As can be seen from the interview above, the Head of Department mentioned some of the subteaching skills in the BTSs such as how to call students, check the attendance list and handle latecomers, stressing these as important skills for PSETs. Thus, the interviews with the Head of Department have confirmed the second category of classroom language, 'English expressions used in practising the eight BTSs'.

Similarly, interviews with the lecturer of the CD unit and with the seven PSETs have supported the second category of classroom language. In fact, the lecturer of the CD unit reiterated this category in most of the interviews. For example, Sinta said,

> [In] Classroom Discourse, we focused on language expressions, which should be in line with the corresponding teaching skills such as for opening the lesson, closing etc. For opening [the PSETs] have to use appropriate language expressions for opening. [This also applies to] closing [the lesson]… What is combined? The teaching skills and the language use. [The language used] should be in line with the teaching skills at that time.
> (Lecturer, Interview 2, my translation)

Interviews with most of the PSETs have supported the category of classroom language 'English expressions used in practising the eight BTSs'. Three out of seven PSETs in the CD unit stated that they had learned 'expressions used in practising the eight BTSs in English. One of the strongest statements was made by PSET 6, who stated that classroom language should be in English, not in Indonesian or Javanese, as in the following interview.

> Classroom Discourse is the language that [sic] used by classroom teachers in teaching and learning process, in my mind classroom language is of course English, not Indonesian or maybe Javanese, so I think classroom language is all about English when I present materials to the students. Classroom language is the expressions used by teachers and based on the basic teaching skills, like opening or in the main.
> (PSET 6, Interview 1, original English text)

An interview with PSET 7 also revealed that the CD unit was all about classroom English.

> According to the course I take, I take, what I understand about classroom language is how to use a language in teaching class, in English I mean, not in Bahasa Indonesia.
> (PSET 7, Interview 1, original English text)

These PSETs have also emphasised that classroom language learned in the CD unit was the language for controlling the class. This is clearly seen in two interviews below.

> Mostly about how to greet and how to handle when someone get trouble. For example, when a student make mistake, when a student in trouble, how should we use expressions to handle the problem. (PSET 7, Interview 1, original English text)

> They way to operate or to control the class, maybe to open the class and how to recheck the condition of the class, and check the attendance list, what language I use in checking the students, they present or not, how to control if they are noisy or trouble maker students in the class and how to close the meeting at that class. (PSET 5, Interview 1, original English text)

Despite confirming the second category of classroom language, a relatively small number of interviews with the lecturer and three PSETs also state that the CD unit is a 'theory of using language'. Sinta explained that the CD unit is:

> [T]he theory before they practise their teaching in the class, the theory of using the language.
> (Lecturer, Interview 1, original English text)

Similarly, interviews with three PSETs also contain a statement that the CD unit is a 'theory of teaching'. PSET 2 described this below.

> I got the theory, I got the basic, but the application is a different matter.
> (PSET 2, Interview 1, original English text)

PSET 1 gave an explanation about the notion of theory versus practice in learning classroom language in the following interview.

> My lecturer sometimes said that the application in the real teaching is sometimes can be very far from what I learn in the classroom in my college so sometimes my lecturer said it is better for you to ask your senior may be my previous grade I mean my previous senior to tell them how they used the language for their *PPL* (practicum) last year.
> (PSET 1, Interview 1, original English text)

PSET 5 added to that description as follows:

> Actually, because it's different condition in class, in Classroom Discourse class and in the fact because, so I have to imagine what will happen in my class in [Name of School 5]. [I'm] Not too confident. (PSET 5, Interview 1, original English text)

It is clear in the interviews above that 'theory' was understood by the lecturer and the PSETs not as 'underlying theory' in its full sense, but it was referred to what the PSETs learned in the CD unit versus what they would do in practicum. This is clearly stated by PSET 6 as follows:

> I think Classroom Discourse helps me to know the steps how to open lesson, but I think in the reality is not very useful for us because yeah like what I said the students ability especially in here of course not the same with my friend. Because most of students here doesn't [sic] do not really like when teachers use English for explain the materials.
> (PSET 6, Interview 1, original English text)

As indicated in interviews above, the PSETs had foreseen that what they learned in the CD unit would have been different "in application" in practicum. This will be confirmed from the findings of the implementation of classroom language for practising the BTSs and the expressions actually used by the PSETs to conduct these BTSs in practicum lessons presented in Chapters 7 and 8.

The categories of classroom language in the data sources previously mentioned can be summarised in Table 6.3 below.

Table 6.3

A final list of categories of classroom language and the data sources

| Categories of classroom language | Data sources | | | | | | | |
	Handbook	Syllabus	Handouts	Teaching journal	Learning journals	Interviews with Head of Department	Interviews with Lecturer	Interviews with PSETs
- Scaffolding talk during the teaching and learning process	√							
- English expressions used in practising eight BTSs		√	√	√	√	√	√	√

Table 6.3 displays the two main categories of classroom language and their place in the data sources. The first category 'Scaffolding talk during teaching and learning process' was found only in the handbook of the English teacher education program in the context of this study. However, the second category 'English expressions used in practising eight basic teaching skills in English' has been confirmed in most of the data sources, except in the handbook of the program. Hence, although the intention of the unit was for the PSETs to learn to use scaffolding talk, the classroom language actually presented in the CD unit is the expressions used for performing the eight BTS in English. All this means that the documentation and interviews have confirmed 'English expressions used in practising eight BTSs' to be the most prominent category of classroom language taught in the CD unit. This is the nature of classroom language taught in the CD unit. How the PSETs learned this classroom language in the CD unit is described in the following section.

6.2 Ways of learning classroom language

Having found that the classroom language taught in the CD unit is English expressions used by teachers in performing eight BTSs, this section presents briefly how the PSETs learned these expressions. The identification of categories for the ways of learning classroom language was done by highlighting the salient phrases or sentences related to, "How I make myself learn that classroom language". Confirmation of the emerging categories in the interviews with the PSETs was sought

to get the converging line of evidence of ways of learning classroom language. After the confirmation process, three main categories for ways of learning classroom language have been found. They are learning the classroom language by doing it, learning it by observing other people use it, and learning it by memorising the BTSs and their expressions. Each of these is described below.

6.2.1 Learning by practice

All of the PSETs remarked that they learned classroom language by practising the classroom language expressions for the eight BTSs. This was expressed in words such as 'act and practice', which came up as a response to the lecturer asking the PSETs to practise the classroom language she had explained. She recounted this as follows:

> And then after I give explanation to them [sic] and then I ask some of them to practice in front of the class to be a teacher. And then the others are students.
>
> (Lecturer, Interview 1, Original English text)

It was not surprising that all of the PSETs described that they practised using the expressions in their learning journal of the CD unit. For example, PSET 3 and 6 wrote,

> The lecturer asks some volunteers to come forward and practice basic teaching skills. We do not make preparation before, so practicing is done spontaneously. When some students become the teacher, the rest students act as the students.
>
> (PSET 3 and PSET 6, the CD unit learning journals, entry 2)

The journal entries of the CD unit by PSET 3 and 6 above show that the practice was requested by the lecturer and that some PSETs acted as teacher and the rest as the pupils. In fact, three out of seven PSETs reported in their learning journals that they learned the classroom language in the CD unit by acting as teachers. They also used the English expressions in the handouts of the CD unit for teaching practice in front of their peers. This is described by PSET 5 as follows,

> I forced myself to practice what have been explained by my lecturer in front of the class. I pretended as a teacher that teaching the students.
>
> (PSET 5, the CD learning journals, entry 2)

In addition to acting as teachers, two PSETs described how they learned classroom language expressions by taking roles as pupils. PSET 3 and 6 wrote,

> I act as student. (PSET 3 and 6, the CD learning journal, entry 2)

The practice teaching in front of the classroom using particular classroom language expressions as requested by the lecturer was recorded in the first two entries of the CD unit learning journals, which corresponded to the guiding unit of the CD unit shown in Table 6.2. The practice was then followed by discussions about the performance. This was described by the PSETs in all of their journal entries. For example, PSET 7 wrote,

> After the performance, the lecture conducts discussion to evaluate the performance.
> (PSET 7, the CD unit learning journals, entry 3)

Learning by practice as a category for ways of learning classroom language was used to highlight the transcription of the interviews with the PSETs. This category was confirmed in the first interviews with the PSETs. PSETs 1, 2 and 6 all reported that they voluntarily practised using the classroom language as teachers. For example, PSET 2 recounted,

> I practice by presenting a lesson in the classroom and then my lecturer gave me a task teaching and the students are my friends, at that time for example, a lesson about giving suggestion.
> (PSET 2, Interview 1, original English text)

PSETs 3 and 6, who recorded that they learned classroom language by acting as pupils, however, did not confirm that in the interviews. Instead, PSET 6 who mentioned she acted as a pupil also finally volunteered herself to practise in front of the class. She commented,

> Yes sometimes [I practised in front of the class], when students do not want to come forward to...yeah... I make myself as example. (PSET 2, Interview 1, original English text)

This means that the data in the learning journals of the CD unit and the transcriptions of interviews have supported the category 'learning by practice', or by using classroom language expressions in teaching for learning classroom language in the CD unit.

Two other categories for ways of learning classroom language were mainly found in the entries number 3 to number 6 of the PSETs' learning journals. They are presented in the following sections.

6.2.2 Learning by observation

Learning classroom language by observing other people teach English was recorded in the third to the sixth entries of the CD unit learning journals. The PSETs recorded that they observed the following people:

1. Their peers doing practice teaching in front of the class
2. The PSETs of past year cohorts doing microteaching, and
3. Real English teachers doing an English lesson in the classroom.

Observation of these kinds of teacher was recorded by all PSETs in their learning journal and by the lecturer in the unit guide in Table 6.2. Those PSETs who reported that they observed their peers teaching were usually those who did not volunteer themselves for teaching using the classroom language expressions in the CD unit. For example, PSET 4 reported that he learned the classroom language expressions by paying attention to the practice of his peers in the following ways,

> I paid attention to the student who practice the teaching skills and tried to analysis whether they applied all the teaching skills or not. (PSET 4, the CD learning journals, entry 2)

Observation of other PSETs of previous cohorts (the 2005 students) was recorded in the third entries of the CD unit learning journals of most PSETs. The PSETs wrote for the third guide question that they watched the microteaching videos of the previous cohort. As seen in Table 6.2, a task of watching the past microteaching video was planned by the lecturer for two sessions in the unit especially for the fourth and fifth weeks of the semester. As recorded in the following learning journals, the lecturer also assigned the PSETs to learn from what the PSETs did in the old microteaching videos.

> The lecture plays a videotaped about teaching practice (video of microteaching) and ask us to observe the way the language used by the teacher, surpluses and weaknesses.
> (PSET 3, the CD unit learning journals, entry 3; PSET 7, the CD unit learning journals, entry 3)

In response to this task, six PSETs recorded this category as the way for learning classroom language expressions in the CD unit. Two of the most descriptive entries about learning classroom language by watching the microteaching of the previous cohort were written by PSET 3, PSET 6, and PSET 1 as follows,

> I watched the video and observe the way and language used by the teacher in that video. I also discuss it with my friend beside me.
> (PSET 3 and PSET 6, the CD unit learning journals, entry 3)

> I watched the video and tried to analyse the teaching skills that are used by the teacher. I also took some notes for important notice and some errors occur.
> (PSET 1, the CD unit learning journals, entry 3)

From the quoted journal entries above, the category of learning classroom language by observing other people teach using the classroom language according to the BTSs was the salient category for learning classroom language.

This category was also emphasised in the last three entries of the CD unit learning journals, which recorded the PSETs learning classroom language by observing real English teachers in classroom. This entry was in response to the observation task in groups of three PSETs assigned by the lecturer of the CD unit especially during the 8th to14th sessions of the semester. The lecturer explained this task and its objective as follows,

> Every pre-service teacher had to conduct a classroom observation in groups of three. The observation results should be reported to the class. What to observe [are]: basic teaching skills conducted by the English teachers at schools. The school levels may vary from primary to senior high schools. (Lecturer, Interview 1, my translation)

All of the PSETs wrote in their learning journals that they learned classroom language by observing real English teachers use classroom language. Two of the journal entries described this way as follows,

> We observe the way and language used by him whether he uses the whole parts of basic teaching skills. And our observation result was so satisfied [sic]. The teacher applies whole parts of basic teaching skills. His language is good with enthusiastic and powerful tone. His students' respond [sic] is highly positive. But unfortunately the teacher does not pay attention to the students in back row that seem lack of interest to teacher's explanation.
> (PSET 3 and 6, the CD learning journals, entry 5)

Every group had to do observation in school. They had to report the teachers' way in teaching in their class (whether they applied eight basic teaching skills or not).

(PSET 5, the CD unit learning journals, entry 4)

When the transcription of interviews with the PSETs was highlighted for this category, it was confirmed. Interviews with PSET 4 and 5 mentioned learning by watching the past microteaching video. PSET 4 pointed out,

I also learn it from the video, previous video of micro teaching. From another year, and then I just watch it and then learn it how to speak up in the class how to explain the materials for example just like that. (PSET 4, Interview 1, original English text)

PSET 5 also confirmed that she could make a comparison between the teachers in the microteaching videos that she watched. She could then learn the ways the teachers used classroom language related to some teaching acts. She stated,

I watch two videos, from the first video and second video I can compare. How to explain well, because sometime there are [sic] I forget the name sometimes explain quickly and not so clear. And in the first video I watch she can explain well and use the language how to use the language and how to use the board well. So from the videos I can compare how to teach well, how to explain, and how to control in good discussion.

(PSET 5, Interview 1, original English text)

PSET 5's statement that "So from the videos I can compare how to teach well, how to explain, and how to control in good discussion" implicitly reveals that the microteaching videos were being checked by students for the completion of the BTSs. In other words, the PSETs were asked to match what the English teachers did and said with the eight BTSs taught in the CD unit. This was confirmed in the interview with PSET 1 below.

We were asked to see how the teacher in that school give the real expressions so from the expression we reported in the classroom I mean report it to my lecturer this is the teacher of elementary school this is the teacher in junior high school show the expressions in opening, explanation, and ending their class, so that from that observation we learn how to express, I mean how to show the expressions of opening and etc.

(PSET 1, Interview 1, original English text)

While it is explicit in the interview above that the observation was only for matching what the English teachers did and said with the eight BTS promoted in the CD unit, some PSETs suggested in the interviews that they also learned how to implement the

classroom language expressions. For example, PSET 2 suggested that he learned how the classroom language was used without referring to the BTSs as follows,

> I mean it will make us know how the teacher implement [sic] the classroom language.
> (PSET 2, Interview 1, original English text)

In addition, PSET 5 also noticed that the use of English classroom language in a real classroom was sometimes forced by the teacher without considering the pupils' comprehension of his or her classroom language use. She recalled,

> From the observation, maybe because the real teacher know [sic] that we observe him. So he used English at all the time even though the students understand or not he used English at all but yeah I think the expression that he used as yeah based on basic teaching skills opening and the expressions use. (PSET 5, Interview 1, original English text)

PSET 5 also admitted that she became aware of the mistakes that the teacher had made in teaching English as well as learning to offer solutions for such mistakes. She expressed that she became aware,

> …that many mistakes has been done by the teachers from some schools in [Town B], I can improve, I have mention that I will be teachers and if I am a teacher I will give this. So I think teachers in [Town B] I think not too perfect…sometime they too often use Bahasa Indonesia mother tongue, and they have not appropriate way in teaching for explain just explain it's just *monoton* (monotonous). (PSET 5, Interview 1, original English text)

The classroom observation was followed by writing an observation report. Although the researcher did not ask the PSETs to submit their observation report as requested in the explanatory statement of the research, they voluntarily showed samples of their observation reports. It is apparent that the PSETs used two different ways for reporting. One of the observation reports was written like an account of a description, starting with the list of BTSs, followed by the moment to moment descriptions of how the teacher performed each BTS, and ending with conclusions about the lesson, stating whether the teacher had taught using the BTS well. However, the widely used format (written by PSET 2, PSET 3, PSET 6 and PSET 7) was in a table form, which contains the eight BTSs, activities, teacher expression and student expression, and comments from the observers. Table 6.4 below copies the format and the first BTS written in the observation report submitted by PSET 3 and her group to the lecturer of the CD unit.

Table 6.4

Classroom observation report format written by PSET 3 and her group

No	Basic Teaching Skills	Activities	Teacher responses	Students' responses	Comments
1	Opening the lesson	Greeting	Good afternoon everybody?	Good afternoon mom!	Teacher used personal greeting expression to make the situation of class more intimate.
		Checking the attendance	Calling the students' name.	Yes, Mom.	
		Stimulating the students' motivation to learn something	Do you still remember what we discussed in the last meeting?	Yes, it was about noun, adjective clause.	It is done in the first of the lesson

Table 6.4 shows that the focus of classroom observation was how the eight BTSs were practised by the real English teachers at schools. In the sample observation report above, the comments made by the PSETs are related to the kinds of expressions and when they were used by the teacher in the lesson. However, the PSETs did not comment on whether the classroom language expressions had been used effectively by the teacher to serve the purpose of opening the lesson. Rather, the observation task report above was only for checking if the BTSs were performed by the teacher in a real English lesson, which is in line with what the lecturer had instructed them to do.

The PSETs were also assigned to give an oral presentation of their observation report. As seen in Table 6.2, the presentations were planned for the 8th to 14th sessions of the semester. The presentations became part of learning classroom language by observing other people teach English. Most of the journal entries recorded that the PSETs were doing oral presentations of their classroom observation report. Some of the journal entries are copied below.

> The lecturer asked two groups to present what they have observed in front of the class and asked other students to pay attention and asked questions.
> (PSET 2, the CD unit learning journals, entries 4-6; PSET 6, the CD unit learning journals, entries 4-6)

> I and my team got the turn to present the observation I had done some days before and I did my best to present the whole materials I had got from the observation.
> (PSET 1, the CD learning journals, entry 6)

Although the contents of the presentation were not clearly recorded in the learning journals, the PSETs consistently stated that they had learned from what the teacher did in the lessons, especially in relation to their language use and some general teaching skills. The interviews with the PSETs revealed a piece of what was discussed and learned from the presentation of classroom observation report.

> …. we reported in the classroom I mean report it to my lecturer this is the teacher of elementary school this is the teacher in junior high school show the expressions in opening, explanation, and ending their class, so that from that observation we learn how to express, I mean how to show the expressions of opening and etc.
> (PSET 1, Interview 1, original English text)

In her presentation of observation report, PSET 2 discussed the solution to the problems they saw in the lesson they observed. He stated,

> Yes of course, we discuss the best solution, the best alternative away...what it should be and in the reality is most of the teachers did not use full in English, and then sometimes they ignore the classroom language, they skip some expression [sic].
> (PSET 2, Interview 1, original English text)

All this shows that the data in the learning journals of the CD unit and interviews with the PSETs supported the second category, learning by observation, as the main way of learning classroom language.

6.2.3 Learning through memorisation

The third category of ways for learning classroom language found in the data is learning the classroom language by memorisation. This category was found in the learning journals of the CD unit written by four PSETs and interviews with two PSETs. Two of the four PSETs initially wrote in their learning journal that they tried to memorise the BTSs although later they realised that it was not necessary. PSET 1 and PSET 4 reported about this as follows,

> I read and tried to remember eight basic teaching skills from the textbook.
> (PSET 1 and PSET 4, the CD unit learning journals, entry 1)

PSET 1 helped his memorisation technique by noting down the BTSs. He explained,

> I read the book and took some notes as the simple summary in my mobile phone so that I could read and memorize it anytime anywhere.
>
> (PSET 1, the CD unit learning journals, entry 1)

However, PSET 1 also realised that he did not have to memorise the classroom language expressions for the BTS as follows:

> As the expressions used in basic teaching skills can be learned by rehearsal, we can remember them spontaneously.
>
> (PSET 1, the CD unit learning journals, entry 1)

Other PSETs, PSET 3 and PSET 6, clearly rejected the need to memorise the sequence of the BTSs as follows:

> As what I asked my lecture, the sequence of basic teaching skills can be changed (interchangeable). So, I do not need to remember the sequence of basic teaching skills.
>
> (PSET 3 and PSET 6, the CD unit learning journals, entry 1)

Interviews with PSETs 1 and 4 confirmed that memorisation was also used as a way for learning classroom language. PSET 4 explained,

> Actually I didn't. I never speak at home. I just read the guide book and then the classroom language and then some expressions that can be used in the class and then I tried to remember, what is it, the sequence, from opening the lesson until closing.
>
> (PSET 4, Interview 1, original English text)

PSET 7, who wrote that he learned classroom language by talking in his mind, also confirmed that memorisation was his way of learning classroom language. He answered,

> Yes, that's my technique to learn something by listening and remembering.
>
> (PSET 7, Interview 1, original English text)

All this means that the category of ways of learning classroom language by memorisation is a minor one, which was only confirmed by one PSET who wrote that category in his learning journals. The emerging categories of classroom language and their location in the data can be summarised below.

Table 6.5

Categories for ways of learning classroom language and the data sources

No	Categories	Data sources		
		The CD unit learning journal	Interviews with	
1	learning by practice	5 entries	the lecturer	4 PSETs
2	learning by observation	13 entries	the lecturer	4 PSETs
3	learning by memorisation	5 entries	NA	2 PSETs

Table 6.4 shows that the first category was found in the five entries of the learning journals of the CD unit and interviews with the lecturer of the CD unit and with four PSETs. Learning by observing others teach using the classroom language expression as a category for ways of learning classroom language was found in all 13 entries of the learning journals of the CD unit, interview with the lecturer and with four PSETs. Finally, learning by memorisation was found in five entries of the learning journals of the CD unit, and at interview with two PSETs. Table 6.5 has shown that the major way for the PSETs to learn classroom language expression is by observing other people, namely, their peers, other PSETs of the previous (2005) cohort and real English teachers. However, as the data have shown, what the PSETs learned from their observation was only the presence and absence of the eight BTSs and their corresponding classroom language expressions.

6.3 Chapter summary

This chapter has presented the nature of classroom language presented to the PSETs in the CD unit in this study. Two main categories of classroom language taught in the CD unit have been found. The first is scaffolding talk during the teaching and learning process and the second is English expressions used for practising eight BTSs. These BTSs were taken from the handbook of the microteaching and practicum, combined with the expressions proposed in Willis'(1981) book. This second category has been confirmed in many data sources, which makes it the dominating feature of classroom language taught in the CD unit to the PSETs. However, this is different from the stated objective of the CD unit, which is scaffolding.

To learn these English expressions in the CD unit, the PSETs practised using them, observed other people teach, and memorised the names of the BTSs and their corresponding expressions. Observation of either other PSETs in the videotapes or real teachers teaching English in classrooms was the most mentioned way for learning classroom language. The findings presented in this chapter will be discussed in Chapter 10. The next two chapters will present the findings of how the PSETs implemented the classroom language taught in the CD unit in their microteaching and the practicum.

Chapter 7

Implementation in Microteaching and Practicum Lessons

This chapter presents the findings for Research Question 3 "To what extent do PSETs implement classroom language learned in the Classroom Discourse unit in their microteaching and practicum lessons?" These are based on the spoken language of seven PSETs and their pupils in microteaching and practicum lessons.

The first section presents the English expressions used by the PSETs for performing the eight BTSs in microteaching lessons. It starts with their use according to each of the eight BTSs and sub teaching skills using Analysis of Speech (AS) units. It then presents which of the taught English expressions written in the handouts of the CD unit were used in microteaching lessons. This is followed by the presentation of language choice by the PSETs and pupils in microteaching lessons.

In a similar way, the second section presents the overall use of classroom language expressions in practicum lessons, which was also organized according to the eight BTSs and sub teaching skills. The frequency of use of particular expressions is documented. The choice of languages by the PSETs in practicum lessons is presented at the end of Section Two.

7.1 Classroom language implementation in microteaching lessons

In order to present the implementation of classroom language in microteaching, it is important to overview the microteaching lessons in terms of their objectives as well as the amount of classroom language produced by the teachers and pupils. It should be noted that the stated objective of each microteaching lesson was obtained mostly from PSETs' statements in the lesson transcripts. The overview of classroom language produced in microteaching lessons is presented in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1

Microteaching lessons, objectives, and amount of classroom language

Lesson segment #	Objective	PSET	Classroom language produced (AS-units)			Length (minutes)
			T	Ps	Total	
1	Introducing how to write a resume	1	42	16	58	4
2	Describing people through a language game	1	56	20	76	8.3
3	Introducing how to express likes and dislikes	2	91	42	133	9.2
4	Explaining features of a descriptive text	2	64	16	80	8.9
5	Introducing how to make comparative adjectives	3	28	16	44	4.4
6	Closing a lesson on how to make comparative adjectives	3	8	4	12	1.3
7	Introducing how to talk about experience	4	39	19	58	3.8
8	Closing a lesson on how to talk about experience	4	19	10	29	2.2
9	Closing a reading lesson	4	48	38	86	4.3
10	Giving a task for describing procedures for preparing foods	5	44	42	86	9.5
11	Giving a task for practising describing people	5	44	21	65	6.3
12	Introducing other people	6	42	18	60	4.2
13	Teaching how to give suggestion	6	40	27	67	5.3
14	Assessing pupils' knowledge about descriptive texts	6	53	20	73	6.2
15	Explaining how to apply for a job	7	66	23	89	9.7
16	Giving a task about making requests	7	21	16	37	1.3
	Averages		44	21.7	65.4	5.5

Notes:
PSET/T: Pre-service English teacher participants
Ps: Pupils/other PSETs

Table 7.1 describes 16 microteaching lessons in terms of objectives, amount of classroom language produced by the teacher and pupils and length of microteaching lessons. The objectives of the microteaching lessons were mostly teaching oral skills such as expressing likes/dislikes, talking about experience, describing procedures, giving suggestions, describing people in the group, doing a language game and closing the lesson. In addition, in some microteaching lessons, the PSETs also introduced how to write a resume, taught grammar, and explained features of a descriptive text.

Most PSETs taught two microteaching lessons, but both PSET 4 and PSET 6 taught three microteaching lessons. Table 7.1 further shows that the average AS-units produced by the teachers are more than twice as many as AS-units produced by the pupils, except in lesson segments #9 and #10. On average, the microteaching lessons contained 65.4 AS-units in 5.5 minutes of their average length. The table indicates that the PSETs were very active producers of classroom language in microteaching lessons.

How PSETs implemented the English expressions for performing the eight BTSs and sub teaching skills in the microteaching lessons is presented in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2

Implementation of BTSs and subteaching skills in microteaching lessons

No	BTS	Sub teaching skills	Users (PSETs)	Classroom language produced (AS-units) in lesson segment #									Total AS-units/ BTS
				#1, #3, #5, #7, #10, #12, #15			#2, #4, #6, #8, #11, #13, #16			#9, #14			
				T	Ps	(Total)	T	Ps	(Total)	T	Ps	(Total)	
1	Opening lesson	Greeting	1, 2, 3, 4, 6	12	11	(23)	0	0	(0)	0	0	(0)	
		Checking attendance	1, 2, 3, 4, 6	36	22	(58)	0	0	(0)	0	0	(0)	(136)
		Stimulating students' motivation to learn something	1, 2, 4, 6	40	15	(55)	0	0	(0)	0	0	(0)	
2	Organising class	Checking physical conditions in the classroom	1, 2, 3, 4, 6	22	2	(24)	0	0	(0)	0	0	(0)	
		Getting organised: blackboard, seating, and books	1, 4, 6	6	4	(10)	0	0	(0)	0	0	(0)	(89)
		Control and discipline	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	13	4	(17)	19	6	(25)	13	0	(13)	
3	Explaining lesson	Talking about lesson	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7	153	76	(229)	105	49	(154)	22	5	(27)	(280)
4	Asking questions	-	2, 3, 4, 5, 6	5	4	(9)	18	11	(29)	47	40	(87)	(125)
5	Giving reinforcement	Giving appraisal	1, 2, 4, 5	2	1	(3)	25	10	(35)	0	0	(0)	(38)
6	Varying stimuli	Applying language games, role play or singing a song	1, 2	28	10	(38)	39	12	(51)	0	0	(0)	(89)
7	Organising small group discussion	-	1, 5	17	6	(23)	26	13	(39)	0	0	(0)	(23)
8	Closing lesson	Ending lesson	1, 3, 4, 5, 6	13	26	(39)	13	8	(21)	7	7	(14)	
		Setting homework	3, 4, 6	5	2	(7)	1	1	(2)	12	6	(18)	(46)

Notes: T: Teacher/PSETs: Pre-service English Teachers
Ps: Pupils/other PSETs
Total: AS-units for T+ AS-units for Ps

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Table 7.2 presents how much classroom language was used by the teachers and pupils for performing the eight BTSs and subteaching skills in microteaching lessons. This is shown in total AS-units for the implemented BTSs and subteaching skills in the same lesson segment. The table shows that all the eight BTSs and 11 out of 13 subteaching skills in the handouts of the CD unit were implemented in microteaching lessons. The 'users' column, however, shows that not all PSETs implemented all the eight BTSs within one microteaching lesson. For example PSET 1 did not implement the BTS no 4, while PSET 7 only implemented the BTS no 3.

It can also be seen in Table 7.2 that the compositions of the implemented BTSs and sub teaching skills vary across lesson data. PSETs 4 and 5 implemented the most BTSs (6 BTSs) but with different combinations (i.e. BTSs nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8 and BTSs nos. 2, 3, 4, 5, 7 and 8 respectively). Moreover, the table shows that the BTS no. 3 (Explaining the lesson) was implemented by all PSETs in microteaching lessons, while the BTSs nos. 6 and 7 were only implemented by two PSETs each.

In line with the most implemented BTS in microteaching lessons, the PSETs used the largest AS-unit (totalling 280) for implementing the BTS Explaining lessons, the second largest (totalling 136) was for performing the BTS Opening lesson, and the third was for performing BTS Asking questions (totalling 125 AS-units).

Based on the number of PSETs implementing the BTSs, five BTSs were favoured, namely, Explaining the lesson (7 PSETs), Organising the class (6 PSETs), Opening the lesson (5 PSETs), Asking questions (5 PSETs), and Closing the lesson (5 PSETs). In line with this, the subteaching skills implemented by most of the PSETs were Talking about the lesson (7 PSETs), Control and discipline (6 PSETs), Greeting (5 PSETs), Checking attendance (5 PSETs), Checking physical conditions in the classroom (5 PSETs), and Ending the lesson (5 PSETs).

Another important aspect to note in the implementation of the taught classroom language in microteaching lessons is which English expressions out of those written in the handout of the CD unit were actually implemented in microteaching lessons. This information was obtained from the analysis of the transcriptions of microteaching lessons. As explained in Chapter 5, each English expression in the

handouts of the CD unit was used as a keyword for searching its implementation in the transcriptions. The search has found that 18 expressions out of those in the handouts were implemented by the PSETs in microteaching lessons. These expressions include:

1. Good morning, everybody.
2. Good afternoon, class.
3. How are you all today?
4. Is anybody absent?
5. Is everybody here?
6. Let's see who is absent?
7. You were absent last week, weren't you?
8. Can anyone tell me what we learned last time?
9. What a nice warm/cool/tidy classroom.
10. Can you clean the white board?
11. Now, please could someone clean the blackboard?
12. OK everyone, quiet now and no more talking.
13. Who can tell the content of the first paragraph?
14. Who can answer question number 1?
15. Good. Very good. Excellent.
16. Now to do this, I want you in pairs. In twos with your neighbours.
17. You've all done that very well. We stop now.
18. For homework, I want you to do exercises on page 9 and we will discuss it next week.

Not all of these expressions, however, were used exactly as they were written in the handouts of the CD unit. Instead, the PSETs used only some parts of them. In other words, the PSETs modified these 18 expressions in the microteaching lessons. The following table gives samples of the English expressions used by the PSETs in microteaching lessons referring to the 18 expressions above.

Table 7.3

Samples of classroom language expressions in microteaching lessons

No	BTS	Subteaching skills	Expressions	Users (PSET)
1	Opening the lesson	Greeting	Good morning class. Good afternoon, class.	1, 2, 3, 4, 6
			How are you today class?	
		Checking attendance	OK, I think everyone is here. Anybody is absent today?	1, 2, 3, 4
			You weren't here last weekend? So, where were you?	
2	Organising the class	Checking physical conditions in the classroom	OK, this class is clean. Oh, so who are in charge this day?	1, 2, 3, 4
			Who get the *piket* today? OK, guys come to clean it.	
			And I think the floor is so clean. Oh the white board is so dirty. (Pupil 1) would you mind to clean it for me?	
		Getting organised: blackboard, seating, and books	The whiteboard is not clean, so clean the whiteboard please. OK (pupil 2) please.	3, 6
			OK, thank you. OK, who wants to clean the blackboard?	
		Control and discipline	Silence, silence. Keep silent please.	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6,
3	Asking questions	-	What is the aim of the text actually?	2, 3, 4, 5
			OK, any questions? Any questions?	
4	Giving reinforcement	Giving appraisal	Good job. Very impressive.	2, 3, 5
5	Organising small group discussion	-	Well, then, now I want you to divide yourselves into several groups, OK? I will count up to ten and all must have been divided.	1, 5
6	Closing the lesson	Ending lesson	I think all of you have done everything well, so give applause for yourselves.	5, 6
		Setting homework	OK. For the next lesson, I will give you homework.	3, 4

Table 7.3 presents samples of classroom language expressions implemented by the PSETs in microteaching lessons. As seen in the table, these expressions refer to the taught expressions written in the handouts of the CD unit under the six BTSs (Opening the lesson, Organising the class, Asking questions, Giving reinforcement,

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and Closing the lessons) and six subteaching skills (Greeting, Checking attendance, checking physical conditions in the classroom, Getting organised, Control and discipline, Giving appraisal, Ending the lesson and Setting homework).

Table 7.3 also shows that the implemented expressions for the same subteaching skills are not identically implemented. For example, the expression for Greeting 'Good morning, everybody' (no. 1 in the previous list) was implemented by PSETs 1, 2, 3, 4 and 6 into "Good morning class". Other example is the expression for checking attendance "Is anybody absent?" which was implemented thus:

> OK. I think everyone is here. Anybody is absent today?
>
> (PSET 4, Lesson segment #7)
>
> Now who is absent today? (PSET 1, Lesson segment #1)
>
> So who's absent today, class? (PSET 3, Lesson segment #5)
>
> You weren't here last weekend? So where were you? (PSET 2, Lesson segment #3)

These implemented expressions were slightly different from those written in the handouts of the CD unit.

A different way for implementing the taught expressions can also be seen for the expressions for Checking physical conditions of the class "What a nice warm/cool/tidy classroom" (no. 9 in the previous list). The PSETs modified that expression as follows:

> OK, this class is clean. Oh, so who are in charge this day? (PSET 2, Lesson segment #3)
>
> Who get the *piket* (roster for cleaning) today? OK, guys come to clean it (PSET 1, Lesson segment #1)

Moreover, the taught expression "OK everyone, quiet now and no more talking" (no. 12 in the previous list) for Control and discipline was also implemented variously by the PSETs. The PSETs also implemented the taught expressions for giving reinforcement such as "Good" and "Excellent" in their microteaching lessons.

More examples of different implementation of the written expressions in the handout of the CD unit in microteaching were found for the BTS Explaining the lesson "Who can tell the content of the first paragraph?" (no. 13 in the previous list). The PSETs implemented this expression with the following modifications:

> What is the aim of the text actually? (PSET 2, Lesson segment #4)

Does anybody know what kinds of text is that? (PSET 4, Lesson segment #9)

These two expressions show different implementation from those written in the handout of the CD unit. However, they could be intended to be the implementation of the taught expression in the CD unit for the BTS no. 3 asking question, "Who can answer question number 1?" (no. 14 in the previous list). This taught expression was implemented in different ways as follows:

OK, any questions? Any questions?
(PSET 5, Lesson segment #10; PSET 3, Lesson segment #6)
Are [*sic*] you understand? (PSET 4, Lesson segment #4)

A completely different way of implementing the written expressions is found for Organising small group discussion, "Now to do this, I want you in pairs. In twos with your neighbours." (no. 16 in the previous list). This expression was implemented in the following expressions:

Well, then, now I want you to divide yourselves into several groups, OK? I will count up to ten and all must have been divided. (PSET 1, Lesson segment #2)
You've to work in group. How many students in this class? Thank you Tania because there are twelve students here, there will be two group[sic], each group consists of six students. (PSET 5, Lesson segment #11)

These different ways of implementing the written expressions in the handout of the CD unit in microteaching lessons could be grouped in to three: exact reproduction, modified implementation and creating own expressions. All of these ways are in line with the PSETs' statement presented in Chapter 6, which opined that what the PSETs learned in the CD unit in teaching could be different in application.

7.1.1 Exact reproduction

The first way of implementing classroom language was that the PSETs used the taught classroom language expressions exactly as they are written in the handout of the CD unit. In particular, the exactly implemented expressions are those related to the routines of teaching activities in Indonesian school contexts such as the greeting. Table 7.3 has very limited examples of this kind of implementation such as "Good afternoon, class" which was implemented by PSETs 2 and 3 in their microteaching lessons.

Exact reproduction was possible because both the CD and Microteaching units were conducted in the same semester and presented by the same lecturer. Moreover, both units are closely related as the findings of Chapter 6 have shown. The lecturer intended that the CD unit would prepare the PSETs for the Microteaching unit. In other words, Microteaching was regarded as the place for practising the expressions taught in the CD unit. The exact reproduction of expressions was also possible as the PSETs also used memorisation as one of the ways for learning classroom language in the CD unit.

7.1.2 Modification

The PSETs implemented many of the classroom language expressions in the microteaching lesson by making a range of modifications to the written expressions in the handouts of the CD unit. A number of instances of this modification are found in Table 7.3 for the expressions for Greeting and Giving appraisal. For example, a greeting expression "Good morning everybody" was implemented by changing "everybody" with "class" by PSET 6 in lesson segment #12. "How are you all today?" was implemented by the PSETs into "How are you today?" by removing the word "all". These examples show minor modifications in the taught expression.

However, there were occasions when the PSETs used quite different words or phrases from the taught expressions. These expressions contain the same meaning as the ones written in handouts of CD unit. Instances of such modification are found in Table 7.3 for almost all BTSs, such as Asking questions, Organising small group discussion, and Closing the lesson presented previously. For example, the expression "For homework, I want you to do exercises on page 9 and we will discuss it next week" (no 18 on the previous list) was modified by PSET 4 into,

> So now I will give you a [sic] homework. You need to write your experience about your
> unforgettable experience. Maybe at least 100 words and you need to collect it next week. OK.
> (Lesson segment #8)

In this example, PSET 4 kept only one word 'homework' from the written words in the handout of the CD unit. He then used it in completely different sentences which function to describe the homework for the pupils.

Modification to the taught classroom language expressions was acknowledged in the interviews with the PSETs. One of the PSETs expressed her efforts to adapt the classroom language to the context of microteaching, as follows:

> I adapted (the expressions) to the pupils' context. For example, when I taught satisfaction and dissatisfaction expressions yesterday in the social programs I tried to use the expressions they had already known so that they would understand. I saw that when I used a ball containing situations for them to express they became interested in the task. They came to understand what the expressions mean. That was not possible to implement on campus.
>
> (PSET 6, Interview 2, my translation)

All this shows that the PSETs adapted the written expressions in the actual teaching contexts of microteaching lessons.

7.1.3 Creating own expressions

The third way the PSETs implemented the taught classroom language expressions in the microteaching lessons was by creating their own classroom language expressions. This implementation occurred when there was no word from the written expressions in the handout of the CD unit which were used by the PSETs. In other words, they did not use those written in the handouts of CD unit although based on the meaning of their expressions, the PSETs oriented these expressions to the eight BTSs taught in the CD unit. In fact, the PSETs created their own expressions, especially for Explaining the lesson, Asking question as well as for Checking attendance, Stimulating students' motivation to learn, Checking physical conditions of the classroom, Getting organised, Applying language games and Ending the lesson.

Table 7.4 presents examples of the created classroom language expressions by the PSETs in the microteaching lessons.

Table 7.4

Samples of classroom language expressions created in microteaching lessons

No	BTS	Subteaching skills	Samples of creatively made expressions in the microteaching lessons	Users (PSET)
1	Opening lesson	Checking attendance	Alright, I'll check the attendance list. So Yayuk you are here?	2, 3, 4, 6
			I'm going to check your attendance list first.	
		Stimulating students' motivation to learn	OK, you look tired. Come on stand up. Please stand up.	1, 2, 4, 6
			OK, it's a very nice today? It wasn't rain today, isn't it?	
2	Organising class	Checking physical condition of the classroom	Turn down and now look at under your desk. Put the rubbish and then put it in the rubbish bin. Ok. Take it under your desk.	6
		Control and discipline	OK, all of you pay attention to me.	7
			Now, be focused on my voice.	
3	Explaining the lesson	Talking about lesson	OK, so the topic for today, we'll talk about resume and how to make it.	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7
			So today we are going to learn about likes and dislikes.	
4	Varying stimuli	Applying language games	Now what I want you to do is try to find the person or your friend. I will instruct you to try someone who someone who for example ehm like reading, find someone who likes reading books, sorry, ask your partner, ask your friend to find someone who likes reading books and give tick on the, on the pictures. Alright?	1,2
5	Closing lesson	Ending the lesson	Thanks you for your attention. *wassalamualaikum warahmatullahi wabarakatuh*	1, 3, 4

Table 7.4 shows that the PSETs created their own classroom language expressions for performing the five BTS and seven subteaching skills in microteaching lessons. Most of the PSETs created their own expressions for the subteaching skills of Opening the lesson and Explaining the lesson. The PSETs also created their own expression for implementing the three BTSs: Organising the class, Varying stimuli and Closing the lesson. This happened as they were usually responsive to the lesson objectives and the immediate classroom contexts. The expressions created for Opening the lesson included those for Checking attendance and Stimulating students' motivation to learn. Some of the examples are:

Alright, I'll check the attendance list. So Yayuk you are here? (PSET 2, lesson segment #3)

OK, I'll check the attendance list. (PSET 3, Lesson segment #5)

I'm going to check your attendance list first. (PSET 4, Lesson segment #7)

> OK, I am gonna check the attendance list today. OK, Ayu, Ika, OK. Where is Afif? (PSET 6, Lesson segment #12)

All of these expressions above do not contain any word in the written expressions for Checking attendance in the handouts of the CD unit. In other words, these PSETs did not use expressions such as, "OK! I'll call your names. Is anybody absent? Is everybody here?" etc. The PSET created expressions as follows:

> Turn down and now look at under your desk. Put the rubbish and then put it in the rubbish bin. Ok. Take it under your desk. (PSET 6, Lesson segment #12)

These expressions were created by the PSETs because the classroom was untidy. Unlike this reality, the written expression in the handouts of the CD unit for Checking conditions of the classroom referred only to when the classroom is tidy, as in "What a nice warm/cool/tidy classroom."

Other different expressions created and used in microteaching lessons were the expressions for Control and discipline, Talking about the lesson and Applying language games. As the written expressions in the handouts of the CD unit for Control and discipline only served to make the pupils quiet, the PSETs created expressions to draw pupils' attention to the teacher. In place of the expressions in handouts of the CD unit for talking about the lesson, all the PSETs used expressions to state lesson objectives such as "we will learn about…" For example, PSET 1 in lesson segment #1 used

> OK so the topic for today we'll talk about resume and how to make it.

Similarly PSET 2 in lesson segment #3 said,

> So today we are going to learn about likes and dislikes.

PSET 3 in lesson segment #5 also used

> Now we are learn about comparison and degree.

while PSET 4 said in lesson segment #7,

> Today we are going to learn recount text.

Because the handouts of the CD unit do not contain any examples of expressions for applying the language games, PSETs 1 and 2, who gave language games created their

own expressions. In Table 7.4, PSET 2 used his own expressions to explain the procedures of the games as follows.

> Now what I want you to do is try to find the person or your friend. I will instruct you to try someone who someone who for example ehm like reading, find someone who likes reading books, sorry, ask your partner, ask your friend to find someone who likes reading books and give tick on the, on the pictures. Alright? (Lesson segment # 3)

Finally, for Ending the lesson, the PSETs also created their own expressions. They used "thanks" and Islamic greetings. PSET 3 ended her microteaching saying "Thanks you for your attention. *Wassalamualaikum warahmatullahi wabarakatuh*". Similarly, PSET 4 used his expression "OK. That's all for today thank you and see you."

7.1.4 Use of English, Indonesian and Javanese

As seen in Table 7.3 and Table 7.4 most of the expressions implemented by the PSETs in microteaching lessons are in English. However, microteaching lessons also contain languages other than English, i.e. Indonesian and Javanese. The percentages of languages used in microteaching lesson by the PSETs and pupils are presented in Table 7.5 below.

Table 7.5

Languages spoken in microteaching lessons

Lesson		English		Indonesian		Javanese	
segment #	PSET	T	Ps	T	Ps	T	Ps
1	1	100	81	0	19	0	0
2	1	100	85	0	10	0	5
3	2	100	95	0	5	0	0
4	2	100	72	0	38	0	0
5	3	96	44	4	44	2	12
6	3	100	100	0	0	0	0
7	4	100	100	0	0	0	0
8	4	100	100	0	0	0	0
9	4	100	66	0	29	0	15
10	5	98	79	2	17	0	4
11	5	100	86	0	10	0	4
12	6	100	94	0	0	0	6
13	6	100	85	0	11	0	4
14	6	100	85	0	10	0	5
15	7	100	94	0	3	0	3
16	7	100	94	0	6	0	0
	Average	99.62	85	0.37	12.62	0.12	3.62

Notes*:* T: Teacher/PSET
Ps: Pupil/Other PSETs

Table 7.5 shows the percentages of English, Indonesian, and Javanese used by the PSETs and pupils in microteaching lessons. English was used by the PSETs up to 100% in fourteen microteaching lessons, except in lesson segments # 5 and #10. In fact, the average use of English as the main language in the microteaching lesson is 99.62%. This also signifies a low use of Indonesian and Javanese, less than 1% on average in microteaching lessons. Only PSET 3 and PSET 5 used Indonesian 4% and 2% respectively. The example of Indonesian is,

> "Er, that's now she can't come here today, but I don't know. *Kemarin (Student name) ijin saya*." (Yesterday (Student) asked my permission) (Lesson segment # 5)

PSET 5 also used Indonesian to say,"*Ga pa-pa*" (It's OK) in lesson segment #10).

The pupils used English 85% on average in the microteaching lessons and 12.62%. Indonesian. However, in some microteaching lessons, Indonesian was never used by the pupils. The maximum use of Indonesian by the pupils was 44% in the

microteaching lesson taught by PSET 3. The minimum use of Indonesian by the pupils (3%) was found in the microteaching lesson taught by PSET 7. Similar to pupils' use of Indonesian, Javanese was used by the pupils to a limited extent (maximum 15%) in seven microteaching lessons. In contrast, Javanese was not used at all by the PSETs in the microteaching lessons.

The use of English by the PSETs in microteaching lessons confirms the nature of classroom language presented and taught to the PSETs in the CD unit as 'English expressions used for performing the eight BTSs' presented in Chapter 6.

7.2 Classroom language implementation in practicum lessons

Following the presentation of classroom language implementation in microteaching lessons, the implementation of classroom language in practicum lessons also begins with the overview of the amount of classroom language produced in microteaching lessons. Afterwards, how much classroom language was used by the PSETs to conduct the eight BTSs and sub teaching skills is presented. At the end of this section, how the written classroom language expressions in the handout of the CD unit were actually implemented in practicum lessons is presented.

As explained in Chapter 5, the researcher observed and audiotaped one practicum lesson of one-hour length, taught by each PSET. The following table presents practicum lesson data, including the objectives, school types, class size, classroom language produced and their length. It should be noted that the lesson objectives were based on PSETs' statements in the transcripts of practicum lessons.

Table 7.6

Practicum lessons, objectives, and amount of classroom language

Lesson data #	Objectives	School types	PSET	Number of pupils	Classroom language produced (AS-units)			Length (minutes)
					T	Ps	Total	
17	Making a phone call in English	VHS	1	31	481	63	544	42
18	Explaining how to describe objects	VHS	2	18	648	170	818	49.3
19	Taking telephone messages	VHS	3	20	179	87	266	62.7
20	Explaining how to accept and decline invitation or appointment	SHS	4	36	499	96	595	55.5
21	Telling stories prepared in groups	SHS	5	32	314	80	394	49.8
22	Explaining how to propose and give instructions to other people	SHS	6	40	447	60	507	46.6
23	Explaining how to make complaints and respond to complaints	SHS	7	40	281	51	332	52.1
			Average	31	407	86.7	493.7	51.1

Notes:
T: Teacher/PSET participants   SHS: General High School
Ps: Pupils in placement schools   VHS: Vocational High School

Table 7.6 presents practicum lessons in terms of their objectives, school types, number of pupils. It also presents the number of AS-units produced by the PSETs and pupils and length. As can be seen in the table, the objectives of the seven practicum lessons were mostly developing oral skills such as making a phone call, describing objects, taking telephone messages, and telling stories. Table 7.6 also shows an almost equal number of practicum lessons in VHS and SHS while their class size varies between 40 and 18 pupils in the classroom, with 31 pupils on average.

The classroom language produced by the PSETs in practicum lessons was 407 AS-units on average, while the pupils produced 86.7 AS-units. The practicum lesson taught by PSET 2 had the largest number of AS-units (648 by teacher and 170 by the pupils), whereas the practicum lesson taught by PSET 3 had the smallest (266 AS-units). The pupils in practicum lesson by PSET 7 produced the least classroom language (51 AS-units). The average length of the practicum lessons is 51 minutes. PSET 3 taught the longest lesson (62.7 minutes) while PSET 1 taught the shortest lesson (42 minutes).

How the PSETs used their classroom language (in AS-units) to implement the eight BTSs and their subteaching skills are presented in Table 7.7.

Table 7.7

Implementation of BTSs and subteaching skills in practicum lessons

No	BTS	Subteaching skills	Users (PSET)	AS-units		
				T	Ps	Total
1	Opening lesson	Greeting	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7	23	22	45
		Checking attendance	2, 3, 4	38	25	63
		Stimulating students' motivation to learn	1, 2, 4, 5, 7	128	42	170
		Handling late comers*	1, 4, 5	19	5	24
2	Organising class	Checking the physical conditions in the classroom	1, 2	31	5	36
		Getting organised: blackboard, seating, books	3	2	3	5
		Control and discipline	1, 2, 4, 5	96	29	125
3	Explaining lesson	Talking about lesson	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7	1781	338	2119
4	Asking questions		3, 4, 6, 7	302	62	364
5	Giving reinforcement	Giving appraisal	1	3	0	3
6	Varying stimuli	Applying language games	5	124	16	140
7	Organising small group discussion		1, 3, 4	195	31	226
8	Closing lesson	Ending lesson	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7	77	17	94

Notes: T: Teachers/PSETs
Ps: Pupils in placement schools
*: Not taught in the CD unit

Table 7.7 presents how much classroom language was used for implementing the eight BTSs and subteaching skills in practicum lessons. As seen in the table, the PSETs implemented different numbers of BTSs and subteaching skills in the practicum lessons. All the seven PSETs used their classroom language for implementing three BTSs (Opening the lesson, Explaining the lesson and Closing the lesson). While three PSETs used classroom language for Organising small group discussion, four PSETs used their classroom language for Asking questions. In addition to the BTSs, five PSETs used their classroom language for subteaching skill of Stimulating students' motivation to learn and four PSETs used their classroom language for Control and discipline. Only one PSET used classroom language for Getting organised, Giving appraisal and Applying a language game in the practicum lesson.

Table 7.7 also shows that most PSETs used most of their classroom language (1781 AS-units) for implementing the BTS Explaining the lesson. The second largest number of AS-units (302 AS-units) was used for implementing the BTS Asking questions. A large number of AS-units were also devoted by the PSETs to implementing the BTSs Organising small group discussion (195 AS-units), and Varying stimuli (124 AS-units). In addition, the subteaching skill of Stimulating students' motivation to learn was implemented by the PSETs using 128 AS-units. Other subteaching skills given a large number of AS-units by the PSETs were Control and discipline (96 AS-units) and Ending the lesson (77 AS-units). The least number of AS-units were used by the PSETs for implementing subteaching skills Getting organized and Giving appraisal.

Similar to PSETs' classroom language use patterns, the pupils used their largest amount of classroom language (338 AS-units) during the implementation of the BTS Explaining the lesson. The second largest number of AS-unit (62 AS-units) was produced by the pupils during the implementation of the BTS Asking questions.

Information about which written expressions in the handout of the CD unit were implemented by the PSETs in practicum lessons was found by using similar procedures used for finding the implementation of classroom language expressions in microteaching lessons. This means that the 18 expressions listed in Section 7.1 were used as keywords for searching the transcripts of practicum lessons.

After the search was completed, it turned out that only seven expressions out of the 18 expressions were actually implemented in practicum lessons. These expressions are:

1. Good morning, everybody.
2. How are you all today?
3. OK, everyone, quite now and no more talking.
4. Who can answer question number 1?
5. Excellent.
6. Now to do this, I want you in pairs. In twos with your neighbours.
7. For homework, I want you to do exercises on page 9 and we will discuss it next week.

The implementation of these expressions in practicum lessons by the PSETs is presented in Table 7.8 below.

Table 7.8

Samples of classroom language expressions in practicum lessons

No	BTS	Subteaching skills	Expressions	Users (PSET)
1	Opening the lesson	Greeting	Good morning everybody.	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
2	Organising the class	Control and discipline	Others please listen to your friend. Keep silent please.	5
3	Asking questions	-	OK, I have questions for you. *Saya punya pertanyaan*. Ya? My question now is, *pertanyaan saya sekarang adalah. OK yang dibelakang. Pertanyaan saya sekarang adalah*, what is the Adjective? adjective? adjective *itu semua kan adjective kan? Kata sifat.*	2, 3, 4, 6, 7
4	Giving reinforcement	Giving appraisal	Excellent ya, *bagus ya.*	3
5	Organising small group discussion	-	So now, directly to the exercise. *Jadi langsung praktik saja. Sekarang saya minta pair work, berpasangan.*	1

As seen in Table 7.8, these samples of implemented expressions were similar to those written in the list of seven expressions previously. These expressions were for implementing five BTSs and three subteaching skills, Greeting, Control and discipline, and Giving appraisal. Table 7.8 also shows that the expressions for performing two BTSs (Asking question and Opening the lesson) were implemented by most PSETs in practicum lessons, while expressions for BTSs Organising the class, Giving reinforcement and Organising small group discussions were implemented by one PSET each.

Despite the limited number of the implemented expressions in Table 7.8, they also represent the ways of implementation as do those in microteaching lessons. In other words, the PSETs also implemented the classroom language expressions in the handout of the CD unit by using exact reproduction, with modification and creating their own expressions in practicum lessons. The details of the implementation are presented below.

7.2.1 Exact reproduction

Implementation of the taught expression by exact reproduction in practicum lessons was very much limited to the implementation of Greeting "Good morning everybody". PSET 1 used this exact expression in lesson data #17. This is no surprise as many PSETs acknowledged that the taught classroom language expressions were only workable for the Greeting. PSET 6 supported this implementation as follows,

> I used English for opening the lesson like greeting, checking the attendance list and closing session as usual.
>
> (PSET 6, Practicum learning journals, entries 3 and 4)

7.2.2 Modification

The PSETs implemented the taught classroom language expressions in practicum lessons by modifying the written expressions in the handout of the CD unit. It was done by changing one or two words in them. For example, the expressions for greeting "Good morning everybody" was implemented in practicum lessons by substituting the word 'everybody' with other terms of address. This results in greeting expressions such as "Good morning, students", "Good morning, class". Another example is the expression "How are you all today". Another example is the expression for asking questions "Who can answer question number 1?" This expression was modified by PSET 2 in lesson data #18 into,

> OK, I have questions for you. Saya punya pertanyaan. Ya? My question now is, pertanyaan saya sekarang adalah, OK yang dibelakang, pertanyaan saya sekarang adalah, what is the Adjective? adjective?

In the example above, the PSETs also modified the English expressions by adding an Indonesian translation for their own words. Another example of implementation with this kind of modification was the expression of Giving appraisal, "Excellent", which was implemented in lesson data #18 by PSET 2 in the form "Excellent *ya*, *bagus ya*."

In other examples, the modification was also done by using a synonym of the words written in the handouts of the CD unit. For example, to keep the control over the pupils, the classroom language expression for control and discipline "OK, everyone,

quiet now and no more talking" was modified by replacing the word "quiet" with "silent" in lesson data #21 as follows:

> Others please listen to your friend. Keep silent please.

7.2.3 Creating own expressions

As explained in the microteaching lessons previously, creating own expressions was identified when no word or phrases have been taken from the written expressions in the handout of the CD unit. An example of this way of implementation in Table 7.8 is,

> *Sekarang saya minta pair work, berpasangan* (Translation: Now, I'd like a pair work, work in pairs please). (Lesson data #18)

This expression was meant to refer to the taught expression for dividing the class into groups for group work. But in this example, it was implemented towards pair work and spoken in Indonesian. In a similar way, PSET 6 asked a question in English followed by Indonesian in,

> What is the purpose make in [sic] making proposal? Who can help? Making proposal? Proposal? You don't know? Proposal. The purpose. *Tujuannya. Tujuan bikin proposal*? (Lesson data #22)

Many other expressions of this kind are not found in Table 7.8. The Islamic greeting in closing the lesson,

> *Ok Terimakasih. Wassalamualaikum warahmatullahi wabarakatuh*. (Lesson data #23)

for example, was not listed in the handouts of the CD unit.

Since expressions such as these as English equivalents were not provided in the CD unit, the PSETs resorted to Indonesian despite the clear intention of the CD unit to promote the use of English as the language of instruction.

Many more classroom language expressions created by the PSETs in their practicum lessons are presented in Table 7.9. The expressions in Table 7.9 use the BTSs and subteaching skills as reference.

Table 7.9

Samples of created classroom language expressions in practicum lessons

No	BTS	Subteaching skills	Created expressions	Users (PSET)
1.	Opening the lesson	Greeting	*Assalamualaikum warahmatullahi wabarakatuh*	1, 5, 7
		Checking attendance	OK listen to me. I'd like to check the attendance, please.	2, 3, 4
		Stimulating students' motivation to learn	Well, that's not spiritful today. This is still in morning. *Kok ga semangat ya kaya kemarin kaya kemarin, harus menghemat energi ya*?	1, 5, 7
		Handling late comer*	OK. Come in. What's your name?	4, 5
2.	Organising the class	Checking physical condition in the classroom	*Wah, wah* OK. Now take a look at under your desk. *Lihat lihat, dibawah mejamu lihat.* Oh it's dirty. Come on take, take, *ambil ambil*, take the rubbish and put the garbage. Take the garbage.	2
		Getting organised: blackboard, seating, books	OK before we start, I don't want Indonesia become er the behind country. *Saya tidak ingin Indonesia menjadi negara yang terbelakang. Jadi saya minta yang depan diisi dulu.*OK. You three. You sit, OK one of you sit here. We won't start before the front table is seated. OK.	1, 2
		Control and discipline	*Tutup dulu, tutup-tutup.*	4
3.	Explaining the lesson	Talking about lesson	Now the material is about taking short message. Please open your book.	1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7
4.	Varying stimuli	Applying language games	*Tapi sekarang peraturannya berbeda, misalnya saya kasih kamu,* I give it to you. *Kamu lempar ke yang lain berarti yang menangkap terakhir itu bisa menunjuk temannya. Jadi berusahalah untuk* catch this ball ok? Are you ready? Are you ready class? *OK, berusahlah untuk menangkap bola itu.* OK. Any questions? *Misalnya gini ya, ini dilempar dilempar dilempar berhenti disini berarti kamu bisa menunjuk temanmu untuk maju. OK. Siap. OK.*	5, 6
5.	Organising small group discussion	-	Now please open your book please open your book page 18 and I need two students volunteers to come forward to practise the dialog. Boys and girls I want to practise the dialog. One boy and one girl to come forward. You and you.	1, 3, 4
6.	Closing the lesson	Ending lesson	The time's up OK. *Waktunya habis ga?* Wow. So quick. *Cepat sekali ya?*	1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7

*: not taught in the CD unit

Table 7.9 presents samples of the created expressions by the PSETs in practicum

lessons. As seen in Table 7.9, the created expressions were used for implementing six

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BTSs and some of their subteaching skills, namely: Greeting, Checking attendance, Stimulating students' motivation to learn, Checking physical condition in the classroom, Getting organised: books, seating, control and discipline, Applying language games, Organising small group discussion and Ending the lesson. The table also shows that many PSETs created their own expressions for performing BTSs nos 3 and 8.

It should also be noted that Table 7.9 also contains expressions created by the PSETs in practicum lessons without referring to the sub teaching skills listed in the handouts of the CD unit. Handling late comers is not listed as a sub teaching skill in the handout of the CD unit. Similarly, the expression

     I'd like to check the attendance. (Lesson data #18)

was created to replace the expression "OK I'll call your names" written in the handout of the CD unit. This could be attributed to their highly contextualised use so that they could not find an appropriate utterance in the written expressions in the handout of the CD unit.

7.2.4 Use of English, Indonesian, and Javanese

One characteristic of the created expressions in the practicum lessons is the use of English and Indonesian language within the expressions. This means the extent of the use of target language in practicum lessons can reveal how much the PSETs deviated from the taught classroom language expressions. The following table provides the percentages of languages spoken in practicum lessons.

Table 7.10

Percentages of languages used in practicum lessons

Lesson data #	PSET	Languages					
		English		Indonesian		Javanese	
		T	Ps	T	Ps	T	Ps
17	1	55	41	45	56	0	3
18	2	52	40	48	51	0	9
19	3	86	43	14	40	0	16
20	4	78	65	22	34	0	0
21	5	31	22.5	69	75	0	2.5
22	6	81	72	19	28	0	0
23	7	54	53	43	45	2.5	2
	Average	62.43	48.07	37.14	47	0.36	4.64

Notes:
T: Teacher/PSETs
Ps: Pupils in placement schools

Table 7.10 presents the percentages of English, Indonesian and Javanese in the classroom language expressions spoken by the PSETs and pupils in practicum lessons. As seen in Table 7.10, English has been used by the PSETs on average more than half of their classroom language use while Indonesian was used for about one third of utterances, and Javanese was very rarely used. Table 7.10 also shows that three PSETs used English more than the average percentages in practicum lessons, but four PSETs used Indonesian more than the average percentage of use of Indonesian. The table also shows that Javanese was used only by PSET 7 for up to 2.5% of his language in practicum lessons.

Unlike their teachers, the pupils in practicum lessons used English and Indonesian for almost half of their average language production during the lessons, while their use of Javanese was relatively low. However, not all practicum lessons have low English use by the pupils. The highest percentage of pupils' use of English was in the practicum lesson taught by PSET 6. Where English was used to a small extent by the pupils, use of Indonesian and Javanese had replaced it. In the practicum lessons, pupils taught by PSET 5 used the highest percentage of Indonesian while in the class taught by PSET 3, Javanese one sixth of the pupils' classroom language.

The examples of classroom language expressions spoken by the PSETs in English in the practicum lessons can be easily found in Table 7.8, while those spoken in English and/or Indonesian can be found in Table 7.9. The example of English expressions in Table 7.9 is "OK. Come in. What's your name?" (lesson data #20), while expressions spoken in Indonesian are *"Ya, belum ada dispen. Ini surat ga ada"* (lesson data #21). Similarly, the expressions for Stimulating students' motivation in the practicum lessons were in English such as the expression "Well. That's not spiritful today, this is still in morning" (lesson data #17) and in Indonesian such as *"Kok ga semangat ya kaya kemarin kaya kemarin, harus menghemat energi ya?"* (lesson data #21). These examples show exclusive use of English and Indonesian.

In addition to the exclusive use of either English or Indonesian, sometimes the PSETs created English expressions and their equivalent Indonesian expressions one after the other. In the example below, PSET 2 created expressions for checking the physical conditions of the classroom below in English (underlined) and gave their Indonesian translation afterwards (underlined italics).

> *Wah, wah* OK. <u>Now take a look at under your desk.</u> <u>*Lihat lihat. Dibawah mejamu lihat.*</u> Oh it's dirty. <u>Come on take, take. A</u><u>*mbil ambil.*</u> Take the rubbish and put the garbage. Take the garbage. (Lesson data #18)

Expressions "*Lihat lihat. Dibawah mejamu lihat.*" are the translation of "Now take a look at your desk". These expressions were created by PSET 2 for responding to the untidy condition of the classroom. The reference expressions written in the handouts of the CD unit is "What a nice/warm/cool/tidy classroom," which is only used for responding to a good condition in the classroom.

In a similar way, PSET 1 created expressions to organise seating in English followed by their Indonesian translation as follows,

> OK before we start, <u>I don't want Indonesia become er the behind [sic] country.</u> <u>*Saya tidak ingin Indonesia menjadi negara yang terbelakang.*</u> *Jadi saya minta yang depan diisi dulu, OK.* You three. You sit, OK, one of you, sit here. We won't start before the front table is seated. OK. (lesson data #17)

Indonesian immediately followed by English translation can also be found in the practicum lessons. As can be seen below, one PSET was indicating the procedure for

doing the games in Indonesian followed by English within the expressions (in-sentence switch).

> *Harus mau. Ya hampir sama kaya kemarin.* <u>*Ada perbedaan*</u> different form of the rule, the the last rule. *Kalau kemarin kan yang mendapat* the ball from here you are the victim, *korbannya.*
> *Korbannya ini, misalnya, itu yang dulu. Tapi sekarang peraturannya berbeda, misalnya* <u>*saya*</u>
> <u>*kasih kamu,*</u> I give it to you. *Kamu lempar ke yang lain berarti yang menangkap terakhir itu bisa menunjuk temannya. Jadi berusahalah untuk* catch this ball ok? Are you ready? Are you ready class? *OK, berusahalah untuk menangkap bola itu.*
> (PSET 5, Lesson data #21)

The underlined words in the example above are Indonesian followed by their English translation.

In one practicum lesson, there was also a mix between Indonesian and Javanese. In such examples, the Javanese words (underlined) are inserted into Indonesian sentences as demonstrated by PSET 7 below:

> *Hmm? Oke gini aja* <u>*wis langsung ae*</u>. *Ini maksudnya kemungkinan.* Possibility *itu maksudnya digunakan jika kalian ingin menjawab keluhan. Misalnya kalau hape kalian, gini kalian jual hape yang beli tadi komplen, mbak* <u>*batereine kok cepet*</u> drop? *Nah kalian kan bisa anu, nah kalian bisa buat hipotesis seperti ini. Mungkin belum* <u>*sampeyan*</u> *ches mbak. Nah, itu namanya kemungkinan.* (Lesson data #23)

The expression *"wis langsung ae"* above is a Javanese expression, which means "Let's get to the point". This expression is part of the longer expressions spoken in Indonesia, in which PSET 7 gave a context where the expressions of possibility could be used. The words *batereine kok cepet* (translation: why does battery quickly drop?) and *sampeyan* (translation: you -with respect) are also Javanese words.

In the following example, Javanese (underlined italics) is used independently. It is then followed by an Indonesian sentence (bold italics), which is translated into English in the next sentence (normal font).

> OK <u>*ngono lho*</u>. **Hari ini kita akan belajar bagaimana cara mengungkapkan keluhan dalam bahasa Inggris.** We're going to learn about how to express the complain something. (PSET 7, Lesson data #23)

The underlined expression in this example is in Javanese (meaning 'That's it'). The rest of the expressions are in Indonesian followed by the English translation. These

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expressions were used by the teacher to state the objective of his lesson. They show that the uses of English, Indonesian and Javanese in practicum lessons are related to each other.

7.3 Chapter summary

This chapter has presented the use of the classroom language taught in the CD unit in microteaching and practicum lessons. In microteaching lessons, the individual PSETs used their classroom language for between 6 BTSs at most and at least 1 BTS. Each PSET used a different combination of BTSs out of the eight in their microteaching. Most of the PSETs (except PSET 7) implemented the BTS Explaining the lesson and the BTS Opening the lesson (especially subteaching skill Control and discipline) in microteaching lessons. The largest AS-unit produced by the PSETs was for the BTS Explaining the lesson.

In microteaching lessons, the PSETs also implemented 18 expressions out of those written in the handout of the CD unit. These expressions are listed under 6 BTSs, excluding the BTSs Explaining the lesson and Varying stimuli. These 18 expressions were implemented in three ways: exact reproduction, modification of the expressions, and creating own expressions. There is a limited number of exact reproduction, while a lot of examples of modification were found in the microteaching lessons. The PSETs created their own expressions, especially for Checking attendance, Stimulating students' motivation to learn, Checking physical conditions of the classroom, Getting organised, Talking about the lesson, Asking questions, Applying language games and Ending the lesson. For all these functions, the PSETs used English almost entirely (99.6%) with a very limited use of Indonesian (0.4%). This indicates that the classroom language expressions in microteaching lessons correspond with the classroom language taught to the PSETs in the CD unit, that is, English expressions used for practising the eight BTSs.

In practicum lessons, individual PSETs used classroom language for between six BTSs at most and one BTS at least. Although the combinations of BTSs were different for each PSET, all PSETs used their classroom language for performing the following three: Opening the lesson (Greeting), Explaining the lesson and Closing the

lesson. Moreover, most of their classroom language was used for the BTS Explaining the lesson and the BTS Asking questions, respectively.

Referring to the 18 expressions implemented in microteaching lessons, the PSETs only used seven of these in practicum lessons. As in microteaching, the seven expressions were also implemented in three ways: exact reproduction, modification, and creating own expressions. There were a limited number of samples of exact reproduction and modification in practicum lessons. A great deal of the classroom language used in practicum lessons was in fact created by the PSETs by themselves. These expressions were used for implementing the following subteaching skills: Greeting, Checking attendance, Stimulating students' motivation to learn, Checking physical conditions in the classroom, Getting books and seating organised, Control and discipline, Applying language games, Organising small group discussion and Ending the lesson.

The PSETs' average percentage of English use was 62.43% during the practicum lessons. Indonesian was 37.14%, and Javanese 0.36%. PSETs varied in their use of English. The lowest percentage of English use was 35% by PSET 5. PSETs generally spoke much more than pupils (82.5% of the total classroom language). The pupils in practicum lessons used 48.07% on average in English, 47% Indonesian, and 4.64% Javanese. A great deal of use of Indonesian by the PSETs was found in the created (or self invented) classroom language expressions. Following the counting guidelines in Chapter 5, English and Indonesian were both used by the PSETs. A frequently occurring translation pattern was found, either English expressions immediately followed by their Indonesian translation or Indonesian expressions immediately followed by their English translation. This indicates that the implementation of classroom language expressions in practicum lessons is not fully in line with the nature of classroom language presented to the PSETs in the CD unit.

A comparison of classroom language found in microteaching and practicum lessons follows in Chapter 8.

Chapter 8
Comparison of Implementation in Microteaching and the Practicum

This chapter compares the actual classroom language used for the BTSs and subteaching skills in microteaching and practicum lessons. The similarities and differences are highlighted in Section One. Section Two then compares the creation of own expressions in the microteaching with that in the practicum lessons. Section Three compares the frequency of use of the three in the microteaching with the frequency in the practicum lessons, and considers PSETs' reasons for choosing English, Indonesian or Javanese in microteaching and practicum lessons.

8.1 Commonly implemented BTSs and subteaching skills

Using information in Tables 7.1 and 7.6 previously, a comparison of the classroom language produced in the microteaching and practicum lessons was made. Table 8.1 presents the number of classroom language AS units produced in microteaching and practicum lessons along with their average lengths.

Table 8.1

AS-units and lengths of microteaching and practicum lessons

No	Aspects	Microteaching lessons	Practicum lessons
1	Average length	5.5 minutes	51.1 minutes
2	Average AS-units		
	- by PSETs	44 AS-units	407 AS-units
	- by pupils	21.7 AS-units	86.7 AS-units

As seen in Table 8.1, microteaching and practicum lessons are completely different in length and in the amount of classroom language produced. The average length of microteaching lessons is 5.5 minutes while that of practicum lessons is ten times longer, at 51.1 minutes. In microteaching lessons, the PSETs produced 44 AS-units of classroom language on average, while their pupils produced 21.7 AS-units on average per microteaching lesson. In comparison, the PSETs produced 407 AS-units on average and the pupils produced 86.7 AS-units on average in the practicum lessons. This shows that the number of AS-units produced by teachers per minute in microteaching lessons is relatively similar to that in practicum lessons. In contrast, the rate of pupils' classroom language production in the practicum lessons is relatively

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lower than that of classroom language production in the microteaching lessons. This shows that the real pupils in the placement schools contributed less to the classroom talk than the 'fake' pupils in the microteaching lessons did. In other words, peer PSETs were active talkers in microteaching lessons.

The classroom language for implementing the eight BTSs in the microteaching and practicum lessons is presented in Table 8.2 below.

Table 8.2

Number of BTSs and their prioritisation in microteaching and practicum lessons

PSET	Total BTSs				Prioritised BTSs based on the largest number of AS-units			
	Microteaching /Lesson segment			Practicum/ Lesson data	Microteaching			Practicum
	#1, #3, #5, #7, #10, #12, #15	#2, #4, #6, #8, #11, #13, #16	#9, #14	#17, #18, #19, #20, #21, #22, #23	#1, #3, #5, #7, #10, #12, #15	#2, #4, #6, #8, #11, #13, #16	#9, #14	#17, #18, #19, #20, #21, #22, #23
1	3 BTSs (Nos. 1, 2, 3)	5 BTSs (Nos. 2, 5, 6, 7, 8)	-	6 BTS (Nos. 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 8)	BTS no. 3	BTS no. 6	-	BTS no. 3
2	4 BTSs (Nos. 1, 2, 3, 6)	3 BTSs (Nos. 3, 4, 5)	-	4 BTSs (Nos. 1, 2, 3, 8)	BTS no. 3	BTS no. 3	-	BTS no. 3
3	3 BTSs (Nos. 1, 2, 3)	3 BTSs (Nos. 2 ,4, 8)	-	6 BTS (Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8)	BTS no. 7	BTS no. 2	-	BTS no. 3
4	3 BTSs (Nos. 1, 2, 3)	4 BTSs (Nos. 2, 4, 5, 8)	3 BTSs (Nos. 2, 4, 8)	6 BTSs (Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8)	BTS no. 1	BTS no. 5	BTS no. 4	BTS no. 7
5	6 BTSs (Nos. 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8)	5 BTSs (Nos. 2, 3, 5, 7, 8)	-	5 BTSs (Nos. 1, 2, 3, 6, 8)	BTS no. 7	BTS no. 7	-	BTS no. 3
6	4 BTSs (Nos. 1, 2, 3, 8)	2 BTSs (Nos. 2, 3)	3 BTSs (Nos. 2, 3, 4)	4 BTSs (Nos. 1, 3, 4, 8)	BTS no. 1	BTS no. 3	BTS no. 3	BTS no. 3
7	1 BTS (No. 3)	1 BTS (No. 3)	-	4 BTSs (Nos. 1, 3, 4, 8)	BTS no. 3	BTS no. 3	-	BTS no. 3

Notes:
BTS no. 1 Opening the lesson
BTS no. 2 Organising the class
BTS no. 3 Explaining the lesson
BTS no. 4 Asking questions
BTS no. 5 Giving reinforcement
BTS no. 6 Varying stimuli
BTS no. 7 Organising small group discussion
BTS no. 8 Closing the lesson

Table 8.2 compares the number of BTSs implemented in microteaching and practicum lessons. It also shows which BTSs have been given priority in microteaching and practicum lessons. As seen in Table 8.2, the PSETs used their classroom language for implementing different numbers and compositions of BTSs in the microteaching and practicum lessons. The PSETs commonly used their classroom language for performing at least 3 BTS in microteaching lessons, with the BTS no.3, Explaining the lesson, being implemented by all. In the practicum lesson, however, the PSETs commonly implemented 4 and 6 BTSs equally with almost similar composition, such as BTSs nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, 7 and 8. Among these BTSs, BTS no. 3 (Explaining the lesson) has been prioritised by the PSETs in the practicum lessons.

Table 8.2 also shows that the PSETs have referred to the taught BTSs in all microteaching and practicum lessons. While the highest number of the implementation of BTSs is six in both microteaching and practicum lesson, it seems that there are five common BTSs implemented in both microteaching and practicum lessons, namely, BTSs nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, and 8. In other words, the common lesson structure in the implementation of classroom language in microteaching and practicum lessons is:

1. Opening the lesson
2. Organising the class
3. Explaining the lesson
4. Asking questions
5. Closing the lesson.

This structure shows that the PSETs have skipped one to three BTSs. This decision is described by PSET 2 below.

> The difference is, OK, I can say that in microteaching OK PPL 1 I can use my classroom
> language in sequence, in sequence. And also the practice in Classroom Discourse I could use
> my language in sequence and then with a good response. But in the real context in PPL 2,
> especially in music, sometimes I skip some of the classroom languages because of the students.
> Because to kill the time. To kill the time. No sequence anymore.
> (PSET 2, Interview 3, original English text)

In the interview above, PSET 2 skipped the respective sequence of BTSs, which he felt was only applicable in microteaching lessons. As he skipped some BTSs in the

practicum, the sequence was completely changed. PSET 5 below clearly stated that she skipped the BTS no 6 (Varying stimuli) in her practicum lesson.

> At campus? Yes, in PPL 1, my lecturer said that, "OK, opening," my lecturer ask [sic] to my friends, "Have you done it?" OK opening is good, "OK, discussion?" Something like that. We have to [sic] systematically, but I think at that time I thought that, is it possible if I apply that theory in my school? Because I think it's very impossible, because now depends on the situations, I think. We cannot force, we cannot force our students to play a game if they don't want to do that. (PSET 5, Interview 3, original English text)

As described in the interview, PSET 5 did not give a language game so that she did not implement classroom language expressions for the BTS Varying stimuli in her practicum lesson.

Table 8.3

Five BTSs and their subteaching skills in microteaching and practicum lessons

No	BTS	Subteaching skills	Classroom language produced (AS-units)							
			Microteaching lessons				Practicum lessons			
			#PSET	T	Ps	Total	#PSET	T	Ps	Total
1	Opening the lesson	Greeting	5	12	11	(23)	7	23	22	(45)
		Checking attendance	5	36	22	(58)	3	38	25	(63)
		Stimulating the students' motivation to learn something	4	40	15	(55)	5	128	42	(170)
		Handling late comers*	0	0	0	(0)	3	19	5	(24)
2	Organising the class	Checking physical conditions in the classroom	5	22	2	(24)	2	31	5	(36)
		Getting organised: blackboard, seating, and books	3	6	4	(10)	1	2	3	(5)
		Control and discipline	6	45	10	(55)	4	96	29	(125)
3	Explaining the lesson	Talking about lesson	7	280	130	(410)	7	1781	338	(2119)
4	Asking questions	-	5	70	55	(125)	4	302	62	(364)
5	Closing the lesson	Ending lesson	5	33	41	(74)	7	77	17	(94)
		Setting homework	3	18	9	(27)	0	0	0	(0)

Notes:
PSET: number of PSETs using classroom language for particular BTSs and subteaching skills

Table 8.3 breaks down the five BTSs and their sub teaching skills commonly implemented in microteaching and practicum lessons based on the number of PSETs and AS-units. As seen in Table 8.3, the use of classroom language for implementing five of the BTSs in microteaching was slightly different from that in practicum lessons. Regarding the BTS, Organising the class, far fewer PSETs implemented Checking physical condition and getting organised in practicum lessons than in microteaching lessons. This shows that the PSETs did not prioritise Organising the class in the practicum lessons. For other BTSs, an almost equal number of PSETs implemented them in microteaching and practicum lessons.

The obvious similarity between microteaching and practicum lesson is the implementation of the BTS, Explaining the lesson. The only difference is in the implementation of the subteaching skills of Setting homework – which was implemented only in microteaching lessons – and Handling late comers – implemented only in practicum lessons.

Table 8.3 also shows that all the PSETs used the largest total AS-units for explaining the lesson in microteaching (totalling 280 AS-units) and practicum lessons (totalling 1781 AS-units) and the second largest was for Asking question. This trend was confirmed by the PSETs in interviews. For example, PSET 4 stated that explanation was needed after giving probing questions in the beginning of his practicum lessons. This PSET had done this because he followed his lecturer's suggestion in the CD unit. PSET 4 pointed out,

> I think it is the same [in implementation of microteaching and practicum lessons]. Because in Classroom English class, the lecturer told us to start the class with the critique [sic] and then explaining the lesson. Now, I did that. I did those activities in the class. I always teach those activities. (PSET 4, Interview 2, original English text)

A similar statement was also made by PSET 5, who explained that in any kind of lesson there should be an explanation, even for a listening activity.

> Yes (I have to give explanation). For example, I taught about hobbies. I hadn't explained it yet the other day, so I had to explain it today before I gave the actual listening activities in session two. (PSET 5, Interview 2, my translation)

The PSETs were quite aware that they had given much explanation to the pupils in their microteaching and practicum lessons. The peers in PSET 1's microteaching lessons warned him that he gave too much explanation. PSET 1 said,

> Myself, I ask my friends how is my performance [sic]. So you waste too much time, something like that. You waste too much time. And you keep talking too much, something like that. So for the next practice I try to control it. (PSET 1, Interview 2, original English text)

Similar to PSET 1, PSET 7 gave excessive explanation in practicum lessons as follows:

> I think this time I was too active. I explained too much. The teacher give [sic] me advice to ask them some question so the student could understand by themselves.
> (PSET 7, Practicum learning journals, entry 3)

Because of the amount of explanation, pupils in PSET 6's lesson only listened to her explanation, and did not speak back to the teacher. PSET 6 described her pupils' activities as follows.

> Because most of the time I always explain, I was [sic] speak and then they only listen to me to my explanation and my students not yeah maybe they not they don't want to ask something maybe give comment. I just speak, they only listen to me, I think, most of the lesson is like listening yeah and then maybe sometimes reading the text and they answer the question?
> (PSET 6, Interview 2, original English text)

In order to have the pupils listen to their explanation, many PSETs used classroom language for Control and discipline as the most implemented in microteaching and practicum lessons. PSET 6 below emphasised that she had learned to use classroom language for Controlling the class.

> So the performance only emphasise in controlling the class. In second chance, I perform the opening and closing session. In this turn, I learn how to open the lesson and also how to close the lesson. From my performance I also learn to overcome problem in class. For example, one of my students asks me a question. Unfortunately I don't know the answer, then I ask another students to answer the question. Because all of the student [sic] are not sure with the answer, I ask them to open their dictionary (the question is about vocabulary). No one brings dictionary and then I ask them to find the answer and we will check it in the next meeting.
> (PSET 6, Microteaching learning journal)

According to PSET 1, he learned to use language for controlling the class in microteaching lessons because of his pupils (other PSETs). The microteaching was in his view conditioned for him to use that language. He described this as follows:

Especially to control the class because at that time two students will have the turn to perform and the other will be the fake students. And the fake students will act as if they are the real students. They keep noisy. They do something wrong. I mean they are very crowded or something, and that will make, that will give some exercise for those who perform to know, I mean to try how to control them. (PSET 1, Interview 2, original English text)

In fact, Sinta, the lecturer of the CD unit and microteaching also confirmed that the PSETs learned how to control the class through their classroom language. She said,

(They learned) how to control the class, also (learning) to use the language, but the emphasis is on controlling the class. About the language, I often said that maybe teacher's language could be inappropriate. (Lecturer, Interview 2, my translation)

To support the lesson structure reflected in Table 8.3, the following PSET has described a sequence of BTSs implementation in his practicum lessons as follows.

In this meeting, I felt that the students were more silent than usual. But they were still active to respond my words. They replied my greeting by saying "Good morning. I'm fine. Thank you. And you?" And when I did the brainstorming, one of the students answered my question in doubt. She said "Uhm… I will say 'Would you come to…'" After that, when I explained the material about the difference in making an invitation and appointment, the students could understand it because when we entered the "Asking questions" session, they could answer all of the questions. For example when I asked them to practice some dialogues, I asked them what expressions they can find in the dialogues. And then they answered "This sentence is the expression of making invitation. And this sentence is the expressions of making appointment." Then I asked "How do you know that?" and they answered "Because in this sentence there is no specific time, and there is a specific time in this sentence." After giving questions, I asked them to make a dialogue in group of 3-5 students. But there was a student said "*6 boleh pak?*" and the other said "*Waktunya hampir habis.*" Some students looked lazy to make a group because the time was almost over, so I had to force them to discuss and make a dialogue. After that, because the time was almost over, I asked them to stop the discussion and back to their sit. Then, I asked them if they had questions about today's lesson, but they said "No, sir." So I closed the meeting and they replied "See you."
(PSET 4, Practicum learning journals, entry 3)

In the journal above, PSET 4 implemented 5 BTSs, namely, Opening lesson, Explaining lesson, Asking questions, Organising group discussion, and Closing the lesson. This sequence means that he skipped some of the eight BTSs, a common practice in practicum lessons. Skipping BTS no 7 was done by PSET 5 to prevent pupils from getting bored. She recounted this decision as follows.

I thought it was very boring if I practiced every theory about classroom language (opening until closing). Sometimes I didn't use discussion session etc. It depend [sic] on the situation. (PSET 5, Practicum learning journals, entry 1)

8.2 Modification of classroom language expressions

As presented in Chapter 7, the use of classroom language expressions in microteaching and practicum lessons have been related to the list of written expressions in the handout of the CD unit. Eighteen among these were identified in use in microteaching and seven of them in practicum lessons. As presented in Sections 7.1.2 and 7.2.2, there were a few examples of implementation with modification to the written expressions in microteaching and practicum lessons while there were many examples of expressions created in the microteaching and practicum lessons (see Sections 7.1.3 and 7.2.3). However, the number of created expressions in practicum lessons was greater than in microteaching lessons. Some of the created expressions which were intended to implement the BTSs in microteaching and practicum lessons are presented in Table 8.4.

Table 8.4

Created expressions in microteaching and practicum lessons

No	Subteaching skills	Samples of created expressions	
		Microteaching	Practicum
1	Checking attendance	Alright, I'll check the attendance list. So Yayuk you are here? I'm going to check your attendance list first.	OK listen to me. I'd like to check the attendance, please.
2	Checking physical condition of classroom	Turn down and now look at under your desk. Put the rubbish and then put it in the rubbish bin. Ok. Take it under your desk.	*Wah, wah* OK. Now take a look at under your desk. *Lihat lihat, dibawah mejamu lihat.* Oh it's dirty. Come on take, take, *ambil ambil*, take the rubbish and put the garbage. Take the garbage.
3	Stimulating students' motivation to learn	OK, you look tired. Come on stand up. Please stand up. OK, it's a very nice today? It wasn't rain today, isn't it?	Well, that's not spiritful today. This is still in morning.
4	Talking about lesson	OK, so the topic for today, we'll talk about resume and how to make it.	Now the material is about taking short message. Please open your book.
5	Applying language games	Now what I want you to do is try to find the person or your friend. I will instruct you to try someone who someone who for example ehm like reading, find someone who likes reading books, sorry, ask your partner, ask your friend to find someone who likes reading books and give tick on the, on the pictures. Alright?	*Tapi sekarang peraturannya berbeda, misalnya saya kasih kamu,* I give it to you. *Kamu lempar ke yang lain berarti yang menangkap terakhir itu bisa menunjuk temannya. Jadi berusahalah untuk* catch this ball ok? Are you ready? Are you ready class? *OK, berusahlah untuk menangkap bola itu. OK. Any questions? Misalnya gini ya, ini dilempar dilempar dilempar berhenti disini berarti kamu bisa menunjuk temanmu untuk maju. OK. Siap. OK.*
6	Ending lesson	Thanks you for your attention. *wassalamualaikum warahmatullahi wabarakatuh*	The time's up OK. *Waktunya habis ga?* Wow. So quick. *Cepat sekali ya?*

Table 8.4 compares the created expressions for six subteaching skills implemented in microteaching and practicum lessons, namely: Checking attendance, Checking the physical condition of classroom, Stimulating students' motivation to learn, Talking about the lesson, Applying language games and Ending the lesson. As seen in the table, the created classroom language expressions in microteaching closely resemble those in practicum lessons. Although their specific contents might be different, these expressions contain similar words and phrases written under the same subteaching skills in the handbook of the CD unit. For example for Checking attendance, the core phrase is "Check the attendance (list)" but it was implemented with different additional phrases in microteaching and practicum lessons. For Checking physical

conditions of classroom, the core expressions took the form of verbal instructions such as "Put the rubbish" or "Take the rubbish" in microteaching and practicum lessons. In addition, the core phrase for Talking about the lesson is "The topic or material today is…" Although the expressions for Stimulating motivation in microteaching lesson are not the same as the one in practicum lessons, both expressions have the same intention to cheer up the pupils.

Despite these similarities, Table 8.4 also shows differences between the created expressions in microteaching and practicum lessons. Many of the created classroom language expressions in practicum lessons are in English and Indonesian, with a sequence of English words followed by their Indonesian equivalents. The comparison of percentages of use of English, Indonesian and Javanese by the PSETs in microteaching and practicum lessons is presented in the next section.

8.3 Monolingual microteaching lessons and trilingual practicum lessons

As seen described in the summary of Chapter 7 previously, three languages were spoken by the PSETs and pupils in microteaching and practicum lessons: English, Indonesian and Javanese. A comparison of the percentages of these languages is presented in Table 8.5 below.

Table 8.5

Languages used in microteaching and practicum lessons

PSET	English		Indonesian		Javanese	
	Micro-teaching	Practicum	Micro-teaching	Practicum	Micro-teaching	Practicum
1	100	55	0	45	0	0
2	100	52	0	48	0	0
3	98	86	4	14	2	0
4	100	78	0	22	0	0
5	99	31	2	69	0	0
6	100	81	0	19	0	0
7	100	54	0	43	0	2.5
Average	99.6	62.4	0.9	37.1	0.3	0.4

Table 8.5 shows that the average percentages of languages used by the PSETs in microteaching and practicum lessons are different. The average percentage of use of English in microteaching lessons was higher than that in practicum lessons. In contrast, the average percentage of use of Indonesian in practicum lessons is higher than that in microteaching lessons. The use of Javanese in both microteaching and practicum lessons was relatively the same.

It can be seen in Table 8.5 that the PSETs preferred to use English as a medium of instruction in the microteaching lessons. However, they used languages other than English (Indonesian and Javanese) in practicum lessons. The use of these languages can be seen in the created classroom language expressions in practicum lessons described previously. As previously described, the PSETs used a combination of English and Indonesian sentences in most of their created classroom language expressions. For example, for drawing pupils' attention in a lengthy beginning of their practicum lessons, some PSETs made up a story mostly in Indonesian language. This can be seen in the extract below.

line	**(In lesson data #17)**
100	T: OK anyone of you have ever spoken with an institution or a company? Or public service?*Apa anda pernah nelpon sama public service, sama polisi atau sama McD? Ada yang pesen makanan McD. Empat belas kosong empat dua?* P2: *Lima belas kosong empat lima pak* T: *Ada yang pernah*? I heard a story from my friends who try to call McD
105	*empat belas kosong empat lima*, that's right.*Empat belas kosong empat lima. Tapi saat itu teman saya ada di puncak gunung. Ada di puncak gunung kalau tidak salah di Lamongan sana.Ada di puncaknya dia telpon. OK, McD? Wow bener McD.* What can I help you. *Misalnya, bahasa Indonesianya, Ada yang bisa saya bantu? Iya mbak saya pesen?* <u>*Heh pesen opo rek?*</u>
110	*Burger? Pesen McD, sudah pesen semuanya. Ya pak, posisinya dimana Pak? Ini di puncak gunung Lamongan.* (Ps laughing) *Maaf pak. Tolong jangan bercanda. Ini beneran di puncak gunung. Ya kalau gitu mohon maaf yang sebesar-besarnya kalau di puncak gunung kami*
115	*ndak bisa.Oh kamu itu sembarangan. Ternyata McD* doesn't have Helicopter to deliver the cake to the mountain. *Jadi tak punya helicopter untuk membawa anunya kesana.Jangan-jangan kalau saya di tengah laut saya pesen makanan. Wah ga tahu*
120	Ps: Krabby patty [burger in SpongeBob SquarePants cartoon] T: *OK. Mungkin credy petty. Mungkin ada yang pernah nelpon public service? Ayo, telpon jasa marga atau telpon sekolahan atau.. Ada yang pernah?* Ps: *Tak pernah pak*

In that excerpt of a practicum lesson, PSET 1 was introducing the topic of the lesson that day, 'how to make a phone call'. He asked the pupils if they had ever made a phone call. His questions were given one after the other in English immediately followed by Indonesian although he also used Javanese (underlined italics, line 109). When one pupil gave response in line 103, PSET 1 kept on asking similar questions and continued giving explanations about the topic and made up a story about somebody ordering take away food on the phone. Regardless of his long efforts to get the pupils engaged into the lessons, one or two-word responses in both Indonesian and English was all he received.

Many other beginnings of practicum lessons contained a series of questions in English and Indonesian and were mixed with teachers' explanations, but this resulted in limited pupils' responses, a well known phenomenon in practicum lessons. The PSETs admitted that the pupils did not listen to the PSETs' explanations in practicum lessons. PSET 4 who also had long sequence of explanations in his practicum, for example, confirmed that.

> I think the main reason that they didn't listen to my explanation is I use English too much I think and the students in the back rows didn't understand what I mean sometimes because when I talk to them in break time they just said that I used English too much and they didn't know what I mean. They said like that. (PSET 4, Interview 2, original English text)

Use of Indonesian by the PSETs in practicum lessons can also be seen in the use of *Assalamualaikum*, an Islamic greeting which has become an Indonesian greeting expression. The PSETs used it in addition to English greetings such as "Good morning or good afternoon" Greeting the pupils with *Assalamualaikum* is the daily practice in all secondary schools in Indonesia. In addition to this common practice, one PSET also created a special greeting. She explained,

> I think depend [sic] on the students situation, because we have to attention to the time, their mood, if I came and say good morning, "ma'am ma'am you always say that". I have to make something else, for example, I have to think "*semangka, semangat kawan*", I think it's different. (PSET 5, Interview 3, original English text)

The results of interviews reveal that PSETs' use of Indonesian and Javanese in addition to English in practicum lessons was mainly due to pupils' English proficiency. The PSETs stated that a difference in English proficiency between the

pupils in microteaching lessons and those in practicum lessons made them use different extents of English. Their peers' good English proficiency supported PSETs' maximal use of English in the microteaching lesson. This can be seen in the statement below.

> We practised on campus with our friends whose English proficiency is above that of senior high school pupils. It seems that when we practised on campus, we did microteaching with our friends as pupils. So it's different. We hadn't had any idea what the senior high school pupils' proficiency in English was like. So our friends had better proficiency in English. If the pupils had the same level of proficiency, the situation wouldn't have been so difficult like this. (PSET 6, Interview 2, my translation)

Another kind of support for the maximum use of English in microteaching was the pre-planned lesson scripts, which were written in English. As acknowledged by the PSETs and the lecturer of microteaching, the PSETs were asked by the lecturer to prepare lesson scenarios in English to help them use English as medium of instruction. With lesson scripts in English, the PSETs stated that they found it easier to use English maximally in microteaching lessons as follows:

> Well of course they are very different. I mean when I am here, when I am preparing here, they just based on a script. And of course I can. I mean I can prepare the strategy even though they are so noisy in here. I mean the preparation at my campus, my students at campus are very noisy, but with a simple strategy I can give them, I can make them right.
> (PSET 1, Interview 3, original English text)

Another PSET has described how he and his friends had spent a lot of their time and energy to produce lesson plans for microteaching lessons in English, by translating them from Indonesian to English. PSET 7 stated,

> We had difficulty in writing lesson plans in English. We were worried that in the practicum we would be asked to write lesson plans in English so that we translated our lesson plan from Indonesian into English. (PSET 7, Interview 2, my translation)

Real secondary schools are clearly different from microteaching. For example, the real pupils in secondary schools did not have enough proficiency for everyday English communication. This was seen by the PSETs as a hindrance to their full use of English in practicum lessons. From the PSETs' observation, the pupils had difficulty in understanding English, let alone producing English utterances on their own. However, during the researchers' classroom observation, it was found that most

of the pupils understood what the PSETs talked about and said to them. Despite this comprehension, the pupils contributed little to classroom talk in the practicum, as the observation of practicum lessons showed. This could be an indication that the pupils had limited productive skills in English.

Another trigger for PSETs' using Indonesian and Javanese in addition to English in practicum is the green light given by the lecturer of the CD unit and microteaching and the five supervising English teachers. As a rule of thumb, the lecturer gave a green light for the use of Indonesian in microteaching and practicum lessons. The lecturer made the following statements.

> OK. Some of my students ever ask question like that. And then I answered if one of your students do not understand what your instruction you can switch the language into your native language. But if there is students have understood all of your instruction, just say it in the target language.   (Lecturer, Interview 1, original English expression)

In the interview above, using Indonesian in teaching was allowed when the pupils did not understand the teacher's English.

In a similar vein, most of the supervising English teachers also allowed the PSETs to use Indonesian to some extent although the emphasis remained on the use of the target language. One supervising English teacher even suggested to PSET 1 who used a high percentage of English in the practicum lesson, that he use Indonesian as follows:

> Of course, first maybe (PSET 1) should teach English not totally in English, should be combined so maybe if there is some difficult words of course (PSET 1) should translate it into Indonesian in order that the students can understand well because it is not useful if the teacher speak in English totally meanwhile the students don't understand. (Interview, Supervising English teacher 1)

The supervising English teacher for PSET 4 reiterated this suggestion when she was supervising English teacher 1. She also suggested that PSET 4 not use English all the time as follows,

> I said to him you may use Indonesian but not all of the time you teach in Indonesian. (Interview, Supervising English teacher 3, my translation)

The supervising English teachers made such statements because they were also present in the observed practicum lessons (except for lesson data #17 and #21). With these supporting statements, the PSETs were not at all hesitant in using Indonesian and Javanese in addition to their English in practicum lessons, especially when pupils seemed not to have comprehended what they had said in English. This is described by PSET 5 below who was explaining the Indonesian equivalent for the English 'attendance list' to her pupils. This shows that the pupils lacked knowledge of even daily words.

> When we check their attendance list, theoretically we have to say this. But practically sometimes I said only OK, *sekarang* where is your attendance list. I ask that, they not response. *Apa ma'am, ngomong apa ma'am?* They don't know attendance list. What is attendance list? *Absen, absen cah. Jadi kadang kita ga bisa memaksakan pas mengabsen mengatakan ini, ga bisa, jadi OK sekarang diabsen dulu ya?*
> (PSET 5, Interview 3, Original English and Indonesian text)

Pupils' lack of understanding of English was claimed by the PSETs to be the main hindrance for teaching exclusively in English in practicum lessons. In the experience of PSET 2, the pupils did not do what he wanted them to do in the class. He recounted his experience below.

> When I wanted to do something they denied, they refuse. And then, *'oh gak, oh gak pak'* (translation: No Sir, no Sir) something like that in bahasa Indonesia. They denied when I gave them homework they didn't do my homework. And then when I ask them to come forward to do the exercise, they didn't want to go.
> (PSET 2, Interview 3, original English text)

While the interview above shows pupils' refusal, it also shows that the pupils understood what was said to them in English. This has made it unclear if pupils' lack of understanding English was the main factor for PSETs' using Indonesian. In fact, according to PSET 4, the pupils themselves asked him to use Indonesian as a medium of instruction. He said,

> Maybe the first time I asked them to make a group. I asked them in English 'Please make a group in two' and one of them raised her hand and said that 'Sir, please use *pakai* bahasa Indonesia'. *Terus ya saya bilang 'buat kelompok berdua-dua'. Mungkin* my accent to spell the

word 'd' (in the word *dua-dua*) is *medhok*[22] for them and they just laughing me. They still [sic] laughing at me[23]. What can I do?

(PSET 4, Interview 2, original English text)

The PSET 4 finally figured out the reason why the pupils refused to do what he assigned them to do in the English lesson,

Because maybe some of them think that I am not a real teacher I think. Maybe they think like that, I am not a real teacher and maybe they don't want to listen to me or another reason maybe my explanation isn't clear enough for them. Yeah maybe the two reasons are the maybe, maybe it's hard because they consider those two reasons I think.

(PSET 4, Interview 2, original English text)

In the interviews above, the issue of authority in the classroom was seen by the PSET as a key factor for his pupils' resistance to his efforts for teaching English through English.

Due to these difficulties, the PSETs have seen translations either from English to Indonesian or Indonesian to English as a viable means to get their meaning across to the pupils. As seen in the examples of the created expressions in Table 8.4 and in the quoted practicum lessons previously, translation was mostly implemented when the PSETs were giving explanations about the learning materials or a task. PSET 2 explained his decision to use translation from English to Indonesian in this way,

With the limited vocabulary they have, I get difficulty if I use the target language all the time. By using bahasa Indonesia, I feel that they understand what I explain to them.

(PSET 2, Practicum learning journals, entry 2)

In a similar tone, PSET 6 described in her journals how she used translation with pupils.

I tried to explain the material by using English then I translated into Bahasa Indonesia directly. But I translated the difficult words only. Like in this meeting when I taught adjective clause as continuity of narrative text, for example, "An adjective clause is a dependent clause *klausa bebas* which takes the place *berkedudukan* of an adjective *sebagai kata sifat* in another clause or phrase". (PSET 6, Practicum learning journals, entry 4)

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[22] It means idiosyncrasy, as PSET 4 sounds like having a Mandarin accent.
[23] As it is rare to find a Chinese descendant teaching at public schools, the pupils made fun of PSET 4's way of speaking.

The underlined words in the interview above are English-Indonesian translations. In addition to English to Indonesian translations, Chapter 7 (see page 157) has presented another translation pattern (Indonesian into English) in the practicum lessons. One of the PSETs explains the context in which he translated Indonesian into English below.

> Maybe if the game is over they have something to ask I let them to ask it in English. But if they cannot ask it in English, I didn't ask them in Indonesia, but, when they ask in Indonesia I will translate in English. And I ask them to repeat the question in English. Like that. (PSET 1, Interview 3, original English text)

The interview above shows that PSET 1 translated what the pupils asked in Indonesian into English in order that the pupils would ask him again in English. In other practicum lessons, the pupils asked the PSETs to provide the English words. This can be seen in the practicum lesson taught by PSET 5 (lesson data #21) presented below.

> T: Five thirty *ga pa pa*.pakai five thirty. Any question?
> P8: *Berangkat*
> T: *Berangkat? Misalnya kamu pergi meninggalkan mana itu,*
> 60 *bisa pake* leave, left
> P7: Maam thank you
> T: OK, you're welcome. I leave *misalnya kamu perginya*
> *dari mana?*
> P8: *Dari sekolahan*
> 65 T: *Sekolahan* I leave school at *berapa gitu*. He left school,
> P8: *Jadi itu bahasa Inggrisnya apa ya?*
> T: So,
> P8: So that
> T: *So saja ga pa-pa, kalau* so that *itu karena itu.*

In the extract of practicum lesson above, Pupil 8 asked the teacher (PSET 5) to give her the English words for *berangkat* and *jadi*. In response to this, PSET 5 firstly used Indonesian in line 59 to explain its English equivalent and finally gave "leave" as its English translation. Another request was given by the same pupil and the teacher responded in the same way.

However, not all PSETs gave English or Indonesian translations directly. PSET 2, for example, waited to give the translation until other means of communicating verbally and nonverbally, like gestures, did not work. PSET 2 explained,

Because it's difficult. It's so difficult to manage the class. It's so difficult to make them understand what I mean even though I speak slowly and I spell the words they didn't understand. So I use translation. At first to explain something, to explain a word in Bahasa Indonesia. I use gestures, gestures and descriptions. And then if using the ones it didn't work, it didn't work so I use translation. But in Tari one it's a little it works.
(PSET 2, Interview 3, original English text)

In a similar way, PSET 1 attempted to give commands in English first, and resorted to Indonesian when he failed to get the pupils' attention.

I give some English games of course it's to increase their English skills so I have to give firstly I have to give the instruction and also the command is in English. Only if they think they don't understand. Then I give the translation. But, if they understand I keep going. So, the classroom language is of course because this is English, I always use English firstly.
(PSET 1, Interview 3, original English text)

The interview above shows that PSET 1 intentionally switched English to Indonesian, although his priority was to use English only. PSET 2 even realised this contradiction between the use of Indonesian and the provision of an optimum amount of exposure to English for pupils. This is reflected in the following descriptions.

I feel that my students respond very positively to my classroom language because they feel easier to understand if I use the way of translation. They would not think the words in *Bahasa Indonesia* because I provide the translation. Even though I realize that it is not good for the students to make the English environment, I still do it because through this way my students will be very happy and not reluctant to study English.
(PSET 2, Practicum learning journals, entry 1)

In the interview above, PSET 2 wanted to get pupils engaged in the lessons through the use of translation. In relation to this intention, the pupils responded to their teacher's use of translation positively. PSET 5 described her pupils' responses below.

Their respond were not too bad compared to the previous meeting. Some of them asked questions to me. Especially in reading session I trained them to be independent by giving them chance to understand the text by theirself (*coba bacaannya dibaca sendiri dan ditanyakan kesulitan yang kalian temukan....Ada lagi yang sulit*?). They asked the difficult words enthusiastically. (PSET 5, Practicum learning journals, entry 2)

From similar pupils' responses, PSET 6 saw a change in pupils' responses after she used translation from English to Indonesian and even Javanese.

> Students gave better respond when I used simple English and sometimes translated into *Bahasa Indonesia* and even *Bahasa Jawa* than I used English all the time when I explained material and I used complicated words. My students also tried to answer my question in English not in *Bahasa Indonesia* anymore even though they did not use whole English, they still used *Bahasa Indonesia* in some words. (PSET 6, Practicum learning journals, entry 2)

All these accounts show that the PSETs switched language by using translation from English to Indonesian, and vice versa during the practicum lessons. The functions of the use of translation in the practicum lessons are discussed in Chapter 10.

8.4 Chapter summary

This chapter has compared classroom language use in microteaching and practicum lessons. Section has compared the number of BTSs implemented in microteaching and practicum lessons. The PSETs as a group were found to refer to the eight BTSs taught in the CD unit. There are five commonly implemented BTSs in both microteaching and practicum lessons, namely, Opening the lesson, Organising the class, Explaining the lesson, Asking questions, and Closing the lesson. BTS Explaining the lesson was the most frequently used.

Section Two has compared PSETs' created expressions in the microteaching and practicum lessons for five BTSs and three subteaching skills. It was found that the created classroom language expressions were mostly for Stimulating students' motivation to learn and for Talking about the lesson. There were differences in language choice between the created expressions in the microteaching and those in the practicum. The created expressions in practicum lessons were in English, Indonesian, and English to Indonesian translations and vice versa. However, the created expressions in microteaching lessons were mostly in English. This is related to the extensive use of English in the microteaching lessons.

The language choices in monolingual microteaching and trilingual practicum lessons are explained in Section Three. It is clear that the PSETs used English almost all the time in microteaching lessons, as the pupils were their peers, who had a relatively good command of English. This language choice was supported by the use of lesson scripts (where all teacher talk is predicted) and lesson plans written completely in

English. However, these English scripts and plans were not found in the practicum lessons. School pupils' lack of understanding of everyday English was given as a reason by the PSETs for switching to other language/s in the practicum lessons. The PSETs were also allowed to resort to Indonesian in practicum lessons by the microteaching lecturer and supervising English teachers in schools.

The discussion of these findings appears in Chapter 10.

Chapter 9

Scaffolding in Microteaching and Practicum Lessons

This chapter answers Research Question 4 "What kinds of scaffolding are represented in classroom language used in microteaching and the practicum?" As defined in Chapter 3, scaffolding includes six features of teacher classroom language. Three of these are priming, prompting and dialoguing as suggested in Forman's (2008) study. They also include teachers' reformulation and extension of a pupil's contribution, and modelling a correct piece of language as suggested by Walsh (2006a). This chapter documents the presence of three kinds of scaffolding, namely, prompting, extension and modelling, in microteaching and practicum lessons. Each kind of scaffolding is accompanied by examples in selected extracts of microteaching and practicum lessons.

9.1 Kinds of scaffolding attempted in microteaching and practicum lessons

As presented in Chapters 7 and 8, the PSETs used a large number of AS-units in the microteaching and practicum lessons to perform the BTSs Explaining the lesson and Asking questions. They also used a large number of AS-units for performing the subteaching skill of Stimulating pupils' motivation to learn and Checking attendance. In practising these BTSs and subteaching skills, the PSETs and pupils were involved in either two-way or one-way interaction. As discussed in the literature review, "point-of-need" scaffolding (Sharpe, 2001, p.32) involves interactions between teacher and pupils (Forman, 200; Walsh, 2006a), and even pupil-and-pupil interactions ("collective scaffolding") according to Gibbons (2002, p.20). The likelihood of finding scaffolding in microteaching and practicum lessons, therefore, could be enhanced by looking at the percentages of classroom language used by the PSETs to inform and to interact with pupils.

Table 9.1 below follows Johnson's (1990) classification of teachers' intentions in their use of classroom language (interactive and informative). Organisational intentions are not included since these are not scaffolding.

Table 9.1

Teachers' apparent pedagogical intentions in the lessons by group

No	Lessons (AS-units)	To interact		To inform	
		AS-units	%	AS-unit	%
1	Microteaching (705)	270	38.30	89	12.62
2	Practicum (2849)	1186	41.63	731	25.66
	All lessons (3554)	1456	40.97	820	23.07

Table 9.1 compares the percentages of apparent interactive and informative intentions in microteaching and practicum lessons. As can be seen in the table, the amount of classroom language used to interact with pupils is proportionately higher than language with the informative intentions across the data. While the percentage of utterances with interactive intention in microteaching lessons is almost as high as that in practicum lessons, the percentage with informative intention in microteaching lessons is only half as much as that in practicum lessons. As scaffolding involves interaction, based on the percentages of interactive intention, the practicum lessons were more likely to contain teachers' scaffolding.

Which PSETs were likely to offer scaffolding in their lessons could be deduced from their use of classroom language to interact and to inform the pupils in their lessons. This information in presented in Table 9.2 below.

Table 9.2

Apparent pedagogical intentions in the lessons by individual PSETs

PSET No.	Lessons (AS-units)	To interact		To inform	
		AS-units	%	AS-unit	%
1	Microteaching* (98)	45	45.92	10	10.20
	Practicum (481)	106	22.04	278	57.80
2	Microteaching (155)	46	29.68	43	27.74
	Practicum (648)	334	51.54	215	33.18
3	Microteaching (36)	5	13.89	7	19.44
	Practicum (179)	39	21.79	59	32.96
4	Microteaching (106)	54	50.94	6	5.66
	Practicum (499)	165	33.07	96	19.24
5	Microteaching (88)	5	5.68	16	18.18
	Practicum (314)	105	33.44	48	15.29
6	Microteaching (135)	49	36.30	7	5.19
	Practicum (447)	368	82.33	35	7.83
7	Microteaching (87)	66	75.86	0	0
	Practicum (281)	69	24.56	0	0

*: The AS-units in microteaching lessons have been grouped for each PSET
%: Percentages of intentions over the total classroom language produced by the PSETs

Table 9.2 shows a comparison of the percentages of language used for informative and interactive intentions by kinds of lessons and for individual PSETs. As can be seen from the percentages of interactive intentions, not all PSETs used a high percentage of their classroom language (>20%) to interact with pupils in microteaching and practicum lessons. Similarly, not all microteaching lessons contained a high percentage of teachers' intentions to interact with pupils. From the table, five PSETs (PSET 1,2,4,6 and 7) were likely to use scaffolding in microteaching lessons while all of them were likely to do so in practicum lessons.

The high percentages of classroom language used by the PSETs for interacting with pupils in several microteaching lessons and all practicum lessons could become an indication that scaffolding might have been occurring. After microteaching and practicum lessons were actually coded for scaffolding, three kinds of scaffolding were found in the predicted microteaching and practicum lessons taught by the PSETs. Table 9.3 provides the kinds of scaffolding attempted by individual PSETs in the

microteaching and practicum lessons, which had been predicted to contain scaffolding as described above.

Table 9.3

Scaffolding in microteaching and practicum lessons

No	Kinds of scaffolding	Microteaching		Practicum	
		In lesson segment #	By PSET	In lesson data #	By PSET
1	Prompting	1, 3, 12, 13, 15, 16	1, 2, 6, 7	17, 18, 22	2, 6
2	Extension	1, 4, 12,	1, 2, 6	18, 20, 22	4
3	Modelling	2, 3, 11	1, 2, 5	23	7

Table 9.3 presents three kinds of scaffolding, namely prompting, extension, and modelling found in the nine microteaching and five practicum lessons. As seen in the table, prompting was found in more lesson data in comparison to extension and modelling. Moreover, extension was found more frequently than modelling. The table also shows that most PSETs engaged in scaffolding in their lesson, except PSET 3. PSETs 1, 2 and 6 conducted scaffolding more frequently than others.

As scaffolding is aimed at assisting pupils, it is important to find out their responses to teachers' scaffolding. Table 9.4 presents pupils' responses to the three kinds of scaffolding attempted by the PSETs in 21 extracts from the lesson data (See Appendix 21).

Table 9.4

Pupils' responses to scaffolding attempts

Extract #	Scaffolding	Teacher's interactional goal	Pupils' language production
1	Prompting, extension	Engaging with topic of lesson	One word, one word
2	Prompting	Engaging with topic of lesson	Two words
3	Prompting, extension	Engaging with topic of lesson	One word, one phrase
4	Prompting	Engaging with topic of lesson	One word
5	Prompting	Using a communicative expression	One sentence
6	Prompting	Engaging with topic of lesson	One word, two words
7	Prompting	Using a communicative expression	One sentence, one sentence
8	Prompting, modelling	Eliciting vocabulary	One word, two words, two sentences
9	Prompting, modelling	Analysing a grammatical function	Two words, one word
10	Prompting	Applying a grammatical function	Two words
11	Prompting	Analysing a communicative expression	One sentence
12	Extension	Engaging with topic of lesson	One phrase
13	Extension	Explaining a text structure	Two words
14	Prompting	Eliciting vocabulary	One word
15	Extension	Engaging with topic of lesson	One word
16	Prompting	Analysing a communicative expression	One sentence
17	Modelling	Singing a song	One sentence
18	Modelling	Using a communicative expression	One sentence
19	Modelling	Providing a model	No response
20	Modelling	Providing a model	Two words
21	Modelling	Providing a model	Two words

Table 9.4 presents pupils' various responses to the scaffolding attempts, ranging from no response to two-sentence responses. Most prompting was followed by pupils' one word response, except in Extracts 2, 3, 5, 10, 11, and 16, which contain pupils' two-word, one-phrase or one-sentence responses. Modelling attempts were mostly followed by pupils' one-word, two-word or one sentence responses. In Extract 19, however, the pupils did not give any response to the teacher's modelling. It should be noted that several extracts contain more than one kind of scaffolding;   Extracts 1 and 3 contain prompting and extension, while Extracts 8 and 9 contain prompting and modelling. The table also shows that these uses of scaffolding were mostly to engage pupils with the topic of the lessons.

The next three sections illustrate how pupils responded to teachers' prompting, extension, and modelling. To avoid excessive length, only those examples judged as showing PSETs' best attempts to provide scaffolding in microteaching and practicum lessons are presented.

9.2 Prompting

Three examples of prompting attempts are presented in this section, one in microteaching and two in practicum lessons. These examples were chosen as they show various ways that PSETs engaged in prompting, such as its occurrence with extension (in Extract 1), in the form of pupils' first language (in Extract 8), and in the form of eliciting vocabulary in the target language (in Extract 14).

> **Extract 1 from lesson segment # 1**
>
> 37 T: OK. Now before you apply or you propose to be a swimming
>   trainer, what did you do? How do you apply a CV or something?
>   What did you use?
> 40 P5: A letter.
>   T: What? Send letter? What kind of the letter?
>   P3: Application

In a microteaching lesson about how to write a resume for job application, PSET 1 attempted to engage the class in the development of the topic for that lesson. His prompting in lines 37-39 uses w-h questions. These prompting questions are answered by Pupil 5, "a letter". The teacher then extends this answer into "send letter" and asks for more detail (in line 41). In response to this, Pupil 3 answered "application" (line 42). These responses indicate pupils' engagement with the topic of the lesson. In other words, the teacher has helped pupils meet his goal in this extract.

The examples of prompting in practicum lessons are Extracts 8 and 14. As examples of the teacher's prompting, these extracts contain his switches from English to Indonesian and his request of pupils that they translate their Indonesian language to English. This language switching is in line with the findings presented in Chapters 7

and 8, where the PSETs used translation either from English to Indonesian or Indonesian to English for teaching practicum lessons.

Extract 8 from lesson data #18

T: <u>OK, tell me about Madura that you know, *yang kamu tahu.* Come on. Tell me about</u>

120 <u>Madura that you know, based on your experience. *Berdasarkan pengalaman kamu,*</u>

<u>Yeah.</u>

P11: *Kuda-kudaan*. (translation: horse racing)

T: <u>OK, horse? In Madura, there is what? There is what? *Ada apa sih* (translation: what</u>

<u>is in it (Madura?) (name of Pupil 13), (name of Pupil 13). You said that you've been to</u>

<u>Madura right?</u>

125 P13: Many times.

T: <u>Oh, many times. So, tell me about Madura. OK, On time OK, that's the</u>

<u>language.OK, but that's not the problem, OK. Here, I have the icon of Madura, Ok.</u>

130 <u>*Ikonnya Madura,* OK. Icons of Madura island. You wanna see? You wanna see? The</u>

<u>first, the first *apa*? (what?)</u>

Ps: *Itu kerapan sapi, kerapan sapi. Sapi, karapan sapi pak, karapan sapi.* (translation:

That's bull race. Bull race, sir)

Extract 8 is part of the practicum lesson aimed at teaching how to describe objects, which in this case was Madura Island. The teacher used some pictures of objects and landmarks in Madura Island to scaffold pupils' responses. In lines 119 onwards, the teacher prompted the whole class in English and interrupted with Indonesian phrases or sentences (in italics), which were the translations of the preceding words or sentences. This use of pupils' first language, as presented in Chapter 8, was hoped to help pupils to produce English phrases or sentences describing the pictures of iconic objects in Madura Island. In this extract, the teacher's apparent pedagogical intention was to elicit from pupils descriptive vocabulary about Madura Island.

In response to the teacher's prompting, Pupil 11 produced an Indonesian word in line 122. Therefore, the teacher engaged in modelling – the English word "horse" (line 123). He then appointed Pupil 13 to answer his prompt. However, Pupil 13's response did not engage with the prompt but answered the question "You've been to Madura right?" (lines 123-124). This was then followed by the teacher's prompting in lines 126 onwards. This time, the teacher also assisted the pupils to produce the piece of language he required from the pupils by showing some pictures of Madura's icons. Finally, they responded in Indonesian "*kerapan sapi*" (line 132). This extract shows

that the teacher had tried his best to provide scaffolding so that the pupils could produce the expected piece of language.

While in Extract 8 the teacher responded to pupils' first language production by giving its English equivalent, he elicited its English equivalent from pupils in Extract 14. Extract 14 is the continuation of Extract 8, aimed at teaching the pupils how to describe things using a sequence of modifiers.

> **Extract 14 from lesson data #18**
>
> T: OK that's enough. Tobacco garden ya. Next we go to the
> traditional food of Madura. OK.
> Ps: *Enak, enak, pak* (yummy, sir)
> T: <u>Yeah. What is *enak* in English?</u>
> 230 P14: Good, good.
> T: Nice, delicious, OK. Delicious, what else? Delicious

In lines 229 in Extract 14, the teacher was prompting by asking the pupils to produce a word in English. In response, Pupil 14 produced the English word for "*enak*". This answer was an incomplete answer to describe the food known as originating from Madura Island. In response to this answer, the teacher elicited more adjectives to describe the food of Madura. This shows that the teacher tried out different forms of prompting in practicum lessons.

9.3 Extension

In addition to the previous example of extension after prompting in Extract 1, one example of extension in microteaching lesson (Extract 12) and one in a practicum lesson (Extract 15) are presented in this section.

> **Extract 12**
>
> P3: Application
> T: <u>OK, so if you wanna get a job, you need to write a letter.</u>
> And after that you will get interview. And in that interview
> 45 session, you have have something to sell them. I mean to
> show your ability to make you, to make your manager er er
> your your boss know your ability.
> So what sheet is that?
> P6: Curriculum vitae
> 50 T: <u>Oh, OK that's right, resume. Resume. OK. That's right.</u>

what different between resume and CV? OK so the topic
for today we'll talk about resume and how to make it.

Extract 12 is actually the continuation of Extract 1. The teacher's goal was to engage the pupils in the topic of the lesson (lines 51-52), writing a resume. A one word response in line 42 was extended by the teacher in line 43 (underlined). He also gave a lengthy explanation of an interview process in lines 43-47. He then directed the class to the word "the sheet" for applying for a job in line 48. Pupil 6 then responded "curriculum vitae". In lines 50-52, PSET 1 (the teacher) acknowledged this answer and supplied another word for it, the "resume". This shows that the teacher had engaged the pupils in the topic of the lesson.

An example of extension in a practicum lesson is Extract 15 below.

Extract 15 from lesson data #20

P1: Send a card to my birthday party.

25 T: Pardon, send a card? What if you say immediately meet your friend. Face to face OK? maybe you just send a card? OK. And what if you meet someone at a some place maybe, what will you say to your friend, to meet someone?

P1: Say,

30 T: Say what, say hello? Just say hello? If you want to meet your friend may be. If you want to go to plaza or a mall with your friends, maybe. What will you say?

Teacher's goal in Extract 15 was to engage pupils with the topic of lesson, how to make an invitation or an appointment and how to accept and refuse invitations and appointments. In lines 25 onwards, the teacher extended Pupil 1's answer in line 24. He did this by giving more situations where making an invitation using a card is possible. This was done to develop pupils' understanding about what an invitation is from their current knowledge on this topic. Given this long extension, however, Pupil 1 only answered one word in line 29, "say". This short, unclear answer by Pupil 1 forced PSET 4 to give further extensions in lines 30-32, "Say what, say hello? Just say hello?" and to repeat his previous questions. The two extensions in this extract show the teacher's efforts to get pupils to jointly develop the topic of the lesson.

9.4 Modelling

In addition to the previous example of modelling following the teacher's prompting attempts in Extract 8, one example of modelling extension in microteaching lesson (Extract 18) and one in practicum lesson (Extract 20) are presented in this section. The examples of modelling were given by the teachers after pupils' language production (correcting learners' contributions).

> **Extract 18 from lesson segment # 3**
>
> P11: I, got, I get nothing.
>
> *115* T: Thank you, ehm, OK. Afif, Afif, what have you got Afif?
>
> So, you can say, nobody
>
> P11: Yeah, nobody likes this picture.

Extract 18 is from a segment of microteaching aimed at teaching how to express likes and dislikes. In this extract, the teacher wanted the pupils to use the communicative expressions for likes and dislike. The teacher provided modelling to Pupil 11 who produced a piece of language in line 114. This pupil explained that he had not found anyone who had the hobbies indicated in the picture given to him. The teacher through further modelling corrected Pupil 11's answer into "So, you can say, nobody." This correction helped Pupil 11 produce, "Yeah, nobody likes this picture" in line 117. This modelling attempt was successful in helping the pupil to produce a correct piece of language.

An example of modelling in a practicum lesson is Extract 20.

> **Extract 20**
>
> *140* T: OK, repeat once more. I want to
>
> P5: I want to complain about you sir
>
> (Ps laughing)
>
> T: *yeah terus* (Yeah, then)
>
> P5: your speak
>
> T: you speak
>
> *145* P5: you speak slowly

Extract 20 is part of a practicum lesson aimed at teaching how to make complaints and respond to complaints. Before this extract, Pupil 5 had produced a sentence

"your speaking is very slowly" in a very low voice. The teacher then asked this pupil to repeat what he had previously said. The teacher modelled 'I want to' (line 140). Subsequently, Pupil 5 completed the teacher's statements in lines 141 and 143. As line 143 showed the pupil's inaccurate grammatical form, the teacher provided a model for Pupil 5 in line 144. As a result, Pupil 5 produced "You speak slowly" (in line 145). If the answers by Pupil 5 are combined, they become a complete sentence "I want to complain about you sir; You speak slowly." This shows that the teacher's modelling was responded to very well by the pupil.

9.5 Chapter summary

This chapter has presented three kinds of scaffolding attempted by the PSETs in microteaching and practicum lessons. Based on their classroom language used to express interactive and informative intentions, most PSETs were likely to engage in scaffolding. In fact, prompting, extension and modelling were found in fourteen out of 23 lessons (nine microteaching and five practicum lessons). In the remaining nine lessons, no scaffolding was identified. The three kinds of scaffolding found have been presented in 21 extracts from the data. Some of these extracts contained two kinds of scaffolding, but they mostly contained one of the three kinds. In these extracts, more examples of prompting were found in microteaching and practicum lessons than were examples of extension and modelling. Pupils' responses to teachers' prompting, extension and modelling in these extracts varied from no response to two-sentence responses.

Examples of prompting, extension and modelling respectively have been given to show different ways in which the PSETs provided these forms of scaffolding. From the description of prompting examples, it is clear that the PSETs used monolingual as well as bilingual prompts. These examples also show that pupils' responses to prompting were mainly one or two-word responses, but some responses came in one or two sentences. Similarly, the extension examples show that teachers' extensions were mostly long, consisting of a few sentences. These sentences tended to elicit one- or two word responses from the pupils. Examples of modelling presented in Section Four show that modelling was usually given after pupils' incorrect language

production as a form of corrective feedback. Individual pupils tended to repeat a modelled sentence in full.

The findings presented in this chapter and the previous three chapters are discussed in the next chapter, Chapter 10.

Chapter 10

Discussion

This chapter discusses the main findings of this research already presented in
Chapters 6, 7, 8, and 9. Each main finding is interpreted in light of the research
literature presented in Chapters 2 and 3, including relevant studies of classroom
language use by PSETs and of the training of EFL teachers in classroom language
use. Section One discusses the main findings presented in Chapter 6. Section Two
discusses the main findings presented in Chapters 7 and 8. Section Three discusses
the use of English, Indonesian and Javanese in microteaching and practicum lessons.
Section Four discusses the main findings on scaffolding presented in Chapter 9.
Drawing on the discussion in the previous sections, the last section discusses the
overall answer to the overarching research question, "How do the pre-service English
teachers implement the classroom language taught in the CD unit in their
microteaching and practicum lessons?"

10.1 What classroom language is and how PSETs learn it

This section mainly discusses the key findings presented in Chapter 6 on the nature of
classroom language taught in the CD unit. The first is that the language presented in
the CD unit was English expressions used for performing eight BTSs. This language
focuses on classroom management, rather than how scaffolding can be achieved. This
section also discusses the findings on how PSETs learn this classroom language,
which showed that the PSETs observed other people teach, memorised the BTSs and
their corresponding expressions, and practised using them with their peers.

The first main finding in Chapter 6 is related to the nature of classroom language
taught in the CD unit, which consists of English expressions for performing eight
BTSs, namely: opening the lesson, organising the class, explaining the lesson, asking
questions, varying stimuli, giving reinforcement, organising small group discussion,
and closing the lesson. This interpretation of classroom language shares similarities
with Macaro's (1997) management language and also with Willis's (1991) language
for personal, social and organisational purposes in the classroom. It also corresponds
with definitions of classroom language proposed by Cullen (2001), Salaberri (1995),

Louwerse (2001), and Bilash (2010), which see such language as being idiomatic expressions for daily routines used for communication among teachers and students from opening to closing the lessons. This definition suggests that the CD unit follows the aims of books on classroom language training (e.g., Heaton, 1981; Hughes, 1981; Salaberri, 1995; Slattery & Willis, 2001; Willis, 1981), that is, to promote teaching English through English. Hence, it could be said that in the CD unit and these books, classroom language is understood to be classroom English. This is the nature of classroom language learned by the PSETs in the CD unit.

It has been acknowledged by the Head of Department and the lecturer taking part in this research that the motivation for teaching classroom English expressions is to improve PSETs' spoken proficiency in English as well as their teaching skills. High proficiency in English for non native speaker PSETs is required if they are to become effective English teachers, according to many language teaching experts such as Medgyes (1999a), Macaro (2006), Bailey (2006), Murray and Christison (2011), Crookes (2003), Richards (1998), and Snow et al. (2006). Nevertheless, the low English competency of English teachers in Indonesia at all levels of education is well documented (ELN, 2011; Jawa Pos News Network, 2010; Media Indonesia, 2006; Surya, 2007). This low proficiency was described in Section 4.2 on the case study design for the research. In fact, English teachers' low proficiency is common in non English speaking contexts such as in Korea, Taiwan and Japan (Butler, 2004) and Rumania (Medgyes, 1999a).

This finding shows that the CD unit has followed Heaton's (1981) and Richards' (1998) recommendations on combining target language proficiency training and basic teaching skills training for non native speaker teachers. Heaton (1981, p.iv) points out, "by improving the language skills of the teacher, the course deliberately seeks to improve the particular teaching skills which involve the use of these language skills." By aiming at developing both PSETs' English proficiency and their basic teaching skills, the English education program at Pahlawan has taken two of the three directions of English teacher education for non native English speaker teachers recommended by Medgyes (1999b), namely, focusing on target language proficiency, language awareness, and pedagogical skills.

Although Willis (1981) is the only classroom language training book referred to in the CD unit, its contents were not fully followed up in practice. The practice of the CD unit makes no mention of expressions for accompanying teaching techniques, as proposed by Willis (1981), and those used specifically for teaching the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) in English lessons, as suggested by Slattery and Willis (2001). It also excludes language expressions that are activity-specific and generated from a story as suggested by Willis (2002), especially in genre-based English teaching as found in some of the microteaching lessons. Moreover, the eight BTSs and their related English expressions that were learned in the CD unit only mentioned one kind of questioning skill, not the extensive range of questioning skills required by teachers in the classroom, as suggested by Fischer (2009) and Moore (1989, 2007).

In the CD unit, the PSETs were not introduced to classroom language functions to respond to pupils' talk, for example recasting in English what pupils say in Indonesian, as suggested by Willis (2002) and Slattery and Willis (2001). Even the examples of giving reinforcement for pupils' performance and production in the handout of the CD unit do not show a range of feedback types but are limited only to praise. As a result, the PSETs in the CD unit have missed the opportunity to learn to give feedback after learners' contributions to trigger more language production, as suggested by Sharpe (2001), and to create classroom interaction, as suggested by Gass (2003).

Instead, the CD unit seems to have led the PSETs to enact either a role as classroom manager in their teaching or the role of explainer (Moore, 1989, 2007). The PSETs were not guided in how to become English teachers who could involve pupils in classroom interaction (involvers) and who could provide a good environment for pupils to learn (enablers) (Scrivener, 2005). Furthermore, from the list of expressions taught, the CD unit seems to have considered the PSETs only at the language user level, not yet at the levels of language analysts and language teachers, which should be the aim of a language teacher education program according to Johnson (2009). It did not even prepare PSETs as language explorers as suggested by Tarone (2009). Language awareness, the second attribute recommended by Medgyes (1999b), is missing in the CD unit.

The missing components of classroom language in the CD unit show the reduced nature or simplification of classroom language taught to the PSETs. The CD unit implies that if one can open a lesson using certain English expressions, organise the class, explain the lesson and other lesson stages to the closing stage of an English lesson, one is offering scaffolding. This reduced classroom language, however, shows very little relevance to the stated objective of the CD unit, that is "competency, skills in using scaffolding talk during the teaching and learning process of English lesson in the classroom" (Pahlawan University, 2006, p.226).

One could easily speculate that the English expressions for performing the eight BTSs in the CD unit are an "appropriation" of the scaffolding metaphor to "fit" (Forman, 2008, p.321) the purpose of training students in the English speaking skills and teaching skills required for the Microteaching unit. This suggests that the expressions for performing the eight BTSs in the CD unit correspond to Forman's (2008) analysis on a narrow definition of the scaffolding metaphor. Scaffolding as defined in Chapter 3 is done by teachers through priming, prompting, dialoguing, reformulation, extension and modelling (Forman, 2008; Walsh, 2006a). However, the English expressions for performing the eight BTSs in the CD unit are not claimed to be an appropriation of the scaffolding metaphor in the handbook and the unit guide. There seems to be a limited interpretation or indeed a misinterpretation of scaffolding in the CD unit.

Both the appropriation and/or (mis)interpretation of scaffolding in the CD unit are inevitable as there is no stated definition of "scaffolding talk" in the handbook of the program. The writers of the handbook might have assumed that the lecturer in-charge-of the CD unit understood what "scaffolding talk" is. This cannot always be assumed, however. It has become obvious from the list of examples of expressions for the eight BTSs taught in the CD unit that they are identical, in fact, with Agustien and Rohim's (2005) examples of classroom language expressions for training teachers.

It is clear from the above that the handbook use of "scaffolding talk" comes from a source where the term is very loosely defined. Furthermore, it seems that the eight

BTSs, the core elements of the unit, are based on the writings of Willis (1981) and or Slattery and Willis (2001) via Agustien and Rohim (2005). Willis' (1981) book does not refer to scaffolding as defined by Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976), who, according to many authors (e.g., Clark & Graves, 2005; Gibbons, 2002, p.10; Hammond, 2001; Johnson, 2009), were the first educational writers to use the metaphor. In fact, the idea of scaffolding was not applied to second or foreign language learning until the 2000s (e.g., Gibbons, 2002; Hammond & Gibbons, 2001).

In light of the concept of dialogic mediation as an important feature of scaffolding (Johnson, 2009), it is clear that the expressions taught to the PSETs in the CD unit focus on what teachers say, rather than on teacher-pupil interaction. Johnson (2009) has warned that if one says that any teacher-student interaction is scaffolding, one has already misinterpreted scaffolding. Hence, once again, teachers' expressions of classroom language taught in the CD unit only refer to a limited understanding of scaffolding. Without examples or experiences of pupils' responses, it was impossible for the PSETs to be introduced to the dialoguing, extension and reformulation as suggested by Forman (2008) and Walsh (2006a). Hence, the PSETs were very unlikely to be able to provide scaffolding in their teaching.

How the classroom language expressions corresponding to the eight BTSs were taught to the PSETs has had implications for the ways the PSETs learned classroom language in the CD unit. The learning journals and interview data show that the PSETs learned the classroom language in the CD unit through practice and memorisation, as well as through watching videos of other PSETs and observation of real English teachers teaching. This is the second finding presented in Chapter 6, which answers Research Question 2, "How do PSETs learn the classroom language in the CD unit?"

These ways of learning classroom language reflect the lecturer's ways of presenting the content of the CD unit to the PSETs, namely by lecturing, demonstration, and videotaped classroom observation tasks. The PSETs memorised the BTSs and their expressions because the lecturer explained the eight BTSs and suggested a list of expressions for performing these BTSs, as well as for following Willis' (1981) suggestion about practising classroom language expressions by "*memorising* a

sentence and saying it as naturally as possible" (p. x, italics original). The PSETs also practised classroom language with their peers as documented in the learning journals of the CD unit. However, the concerns over their learning documented in the journals were mostly with the voicing of classroom language in English and with ways of taking control of the class. The PSETs did not reflect on the pedagogical aspects of their classroom language use (Johnson, 1990). This limits the opportunities of the PSETs to undergo a full experiential learning cycle to become teachers (Scrivener, 2005).

Although the PSETs have reported on observing teachers teaching as a way to learn classroom language in the CD unit, there was no evidence of 'real' reflection by the PSETs, either in their observation reports or in their learning journals for the CD unit. As indicated in Chapter 6, this seems to relate to the relatively superficial nature of observation proposed by the lecturer, which consisted of looking at the implementation of the eight BTSs in past microteaching videos and videos of real English teachers, as shown in the sample observation report in Chapter 6. The use of observation tasks seems to be in line with the suggestion made by Barnes (1996) in how to train foreign language teachers to increase their mastery of language for teaching. However, unlike in the suggestion made by Barnes (1996), there was no discussion within the CD unit on how the observed PSETs and teachers had used classroom language effectively to assist learning. This could happen because determining if learning has taken place is not easy. "It is quite possible for a teacher to be putting great effort into his or her teaching and for no learning to be taking place; similarly, a teacher could apparently be doing nothing, but the students be learning a great deal" (Scrivener, 2005, p.17).

The classroom language training in the CD unit could also have made use of other methods such as Cullen's (2001) and Harfitt's (2008). These researchers used transcripts of PSETs' lessons with their peers to encourage reflection on how PSETs use their classroom language for effective teaching. The CD unit might have also included Frank and Uy's (2004) idea in the use of transcriptions of an authentic English lesson to discuss how the teacher in the lesson used classroom language to support the learners' learning. In addition to the listed expressions, the CD unit might draw on Cadorath and Harris' (1998, p.194) strategy in training their PSETs, which

ensured students experience or analyse "unpredictable interaction", and not only pre-scripted lessons in. Thus, unaware of these other possible ways of expressing classroom language, the CD unit has limited itself to expressions for performing basic survival skills and key lesson stages. This limitation might constrain the ways in which PSETs learn how to teach EFL (in microteaching and practicum lessons).

10.2 Classroom language used in microteaching and practicum lessons

This section discusses the main finding presented in Chapters 7 and 8. The first main finding is that the group of seven PSETs implemented up to six out of eight BTSs in microteaching and practicum lessons. Although the composition of BTSs is different for each PSET, five BTSs were most frequently implemented by the PSETs, namely, Opening the lesson, Organising the class, Explaining the lesson, Asking questions, and Closing the lesson. In addition, certain BTSs and sub teaching skills were found in one lesson but were absent in others. This finding is one of the answers to Research Question 3 on the extent of implementation of classroom language in microteaching and practicum lessons by the PSETs.

The different nature of microteaching and practicum lessons might explain the difference in composition of the implemented BTSs. As described in Chapter 5, microteaching lessons were specifically assigned for practising certain BTSs in a limited time. As presented in Table 5.2, some PSETs were only assigned to do the opening and closing of the microteaching lessons, while others were to teach the main lesson stages containing skills such as Explaining the lesson, Asking questions, Varying stimuli, and so on. Hence, only the assigned BTSs were observed in microteaching lessons. This reduction of skills in microteaching is in line with Wallace's (1991, p.92) suggestion that microteaching be "reduced in scope and or simplified in some systematic way" such as the teacher task, length of lesson, or size of class. As a result, microteaching lessons seem to emphasise the sequence of a lesson, reducing it to the limited stages of opening, main (explaining, practice), and closing. In contrast, the practicum lessons were full lessons, in which the PSETs had more control over the content and their planned lesson sequence. As described by the PSETs in Chapter 8, the atmosphere of practicum lessons was completely different from that of microteaching lessons. In fact, real classrooms were sometimes full of

surprises in relation to what had been planned and what had been learned by the PSETs in their teacher education (Dodd, 2001). In this situation, the PSETs had to adapt their teaching skills according to the situation of the classroom. As a result, a different range of the implemented BTSs by each PSET was observed in the practicum.

Despite there being different ranges of BTSs, the five commonly implemented BTSs in both microteaching and practicum lessons show a connection between the classroom language learned in the CD unit and that implemented in the microteaching and practicum lessons. The PSETs upheld the knowledge and skills they had learned in the CD unit, their "received knowledge" (Wallace, 1991, p.15). They seem to have found that the eight BTSs in the CD unit were useful for enacting their roles as teachers in microteaching and practicum lessons. This suggests that the CD unit had been used successfully by the PSETs as a place for them to learn teaching English, an expected role of teacher education according to Freeman and Johnson (1998), Richards et al. (1995), and Ditfurth and Legutke (2006). The PSETs made themselves active learners of teaching (Scrivener, 2005) and successfully linked theory to practice – another role of teacher education according to Hoban (2006) and Pungur (2007) and a goal of any professional education, as suggested by Schön (1987).

Reliance on the knowledge and skills received during the CD unit made up for the PSETs' lack of prior teaching experience. As described in Chapter 4, only PSETs 1 and 2 had prior teaching experience in private English courses, but none had formal teaching experience in VHSs and SHSs. This meant for many of the PSETs that teaching in microteaching lessons was their first experience of teaching English and the practicum was their first real experience of teaching English in formal education settings. As compensation for their lack of experiential knowledge, the PSETs made use of their learning classroom language in the CD unit and their teaching practice with peers in microteaching. In other words, the eight BTSs and their expressions became resources and guides for teaching English in practicum lessons at schools. This means that the CD unit and microteaching met the university's intentions for preparing the PSETs for their practicum lessons. In this way, the PSETs have used the practicum as a way of learning about teaching from context, as suggested by Freeman and Johnson (1998).

BTS 3 Explaining the lesson and BTS 4 Asking questions respectively were given priority in both microteaching and practicum lessons by the PSETs, who thus enacted the role of subject experts, one of the roles of teachers indicated by Moore (1989, 2007), and as explainer teacher, one of the kinds of teachers identified by Scrivener (2005). This is in line with the nature of classroom language presented to the PSETs in the handouts of the CD unit. The lack of consideration of pupils' language use in response to teachers follows logically from these roles. In other words, the CD unit seems to have been responsible for the frequent implementation of classroom language for Explaining the lesson and Asking questions in both microteaching and practicum lessons. This, however, reflects a "traditional" view of teaching held by PSETs, which places emphasis on "chalk and talk", and which should be avoided by teachers (Scrivener, 2005, p.16).

In fact, the PSETs in Pahlawan University are not alone in having this characteristic. According to Kyriacou (2007), much talking is one characteristic of a lesson taught by pre-service teachers. It is also a common problem of novice teachers (Scrivener, 2005). The PSETs in Menon's (1993) study also used a great deal of their classroom language for giving explanations about the lesson, for exerting verbal control and asking questions. The PSETs in Johnson's (1992) study also prioritised explaining concepts and procedure and checking knowledge, which represented almost a third and a quarter respectively of their classroom actions. Even the native English speaker teachers in Thailand used their language for giving instructions and information up to 40% and 22% respectively (Todd, et al., 2008). Following Johnson's (1990) analysis, the implementation of BTSs 3 and 4 is reflected in PSETs' poor explanation and questioning skills. The same problem was faced by the teachers undertaking classroom language training in Hong Kong (Johnson, 1990), student teachers observed by Yusuf (2010). Unlike the PSETs in Turkey who admitted to having problems in explaining English words in the target language to pupils in their practicum lessons (Tüzel & Akcan, 2009), the PSETs in my research did not express concerns about difficulties in giving explanations in English. My research did not intend to assess the accuracy of their English use either.

This problem of underdeveloped explaining and questioning skills logically follows what was taught in the CD unit. As discussed previously, the only explanation skill taught in the CD unit was for introducing lesson stages, not how to express information to the pupils as taught in Johnson's training (1990). Moreover, only one questioning skill was taught in the CD unit, the comprehension check question. Similarly, the PSETs' were not exposed to a range of questioning skills such as those in Cullen's (2001) classroom language training. Without proper training in giving explanations and asking questions, the PSETs may be trapped into lengthy explanation and uninterrupted questions, which have the potential to obstruct learners' involvement and reduce the potential for learning, according to Walsh's (2002) study.

The second main finding presented in Chapters 7 and 8 is concerned with the implementation of English expressions written in the handout of the CD unit in microteaching and practicum lessons. It was found that only 18 out of those written in the handouts of the CD unit were implemented in the microteaching lesson and that seven of these were implemented in practicum lessons. The PSETs implemented these expressions in three ways, namely, by exact reproduction, modification and creating their own expressions.

The three ways of implementation were different in extent. The exact reproduction of the English expressions was very limited to English expressions for Greeting, Checking register, and so on. This is no surprise as these daily routine expressions (Bilash, 2010) are relatively fixed in number and use, especially at primary level (Macaro, 1997). These expressions, in addition to the expressions for explaining the lesson and asking questions, were also modified by the PSETs in implementation. As teachers' language for delivering the contents of lessons in secondary classrooms was not covered in the CD unit, the PSETs naturally created many expressions on their own. This corresponds with a minor category of the nature of classroom language taught in the CD unit presented in Chapter 6, that is, what was taught to the PSETs in the CD unit was only 'theory', which could be completely different from practice.

The modification and creation of PSETs' own classroom language expressions in the microteaching and practicum lessons were inevitable. Modification or adaptation of

the expressions "to suit" one's "teaching situation" is even encouraged through a substitution task for the classroom language in Willis' (1981, p.x) book. Similarly, Salaberri (1995) suggests that the list of expressions in his book should be modified by the teachers to make them comprehensible for the pupils. The PSETs are encouraged to use classroom language "naturally from doing the activities" (Salaberri, 1995, p. iii) in microteaching and practicum lessons. The created expressions by PSETs also refer to the eight BTSs and their sub teaching skills taught in the CD unit. This indicates that the PSETs wanted to implement what they learned in the CD unit as well as possible in their teaching both on campus and in secondary schools. This is what Maynard and Furlong (1995) and Pachler and Field (2001) describe as the early idealism stage, in which PSETs are concerned with the practical implementation of what they have learned previously. However, PSETs' creation of their own expressions also suggests that they developed a decision making skill (Kyriacou, 2007). This can be seen from a change of the taught English expressions in the CD unit into expressions in English and/or Indonesian expressions, especially in practicum lessons. This finding is discussed in the following section.

10.3 Classroom language in English and Indonesian

This section adds to the discussion of the second main finding presented in Section Two, on the different percentages of English use in the microteaching and practicum lessons. It was found that the PSETs taught microteaching lessons using English and that they used English, Indonesian and Javanese in the practicum lessons. The PSETs also used translation both from English to Indonesian and from Indonesian to English in practicum lessons.

Three factors may account for the monolingual use of English as medium of instruction in the microteaching lessons. Firstly, the PSETs had a strong orientation to the nature of classroom language taught in the CD unit. In other words, the PSETs considered using English as the medium of instruction an ideal way of teaching the microteaching lessons, which indicates PSETs' early idealism stage (Maynard & Furlong, 1995; Pachler & Field, 2001). Secondly, the videotaping of the microteaching lessons was part of the assessment for the Microteaching unit. As the lecturer of the CD unit was also the lecturer of the Microteaching unit, the PSETs

knew that they had to refer to the English expressions in the CD unit during the microteaching lessons, if they wanted to get good marks from the lecturer. These two factors promoting the use of the target language (English) in lessons correspond with the teachers' attitudes and institutional/social factors behind the use of target language that were reported in Kim and Elder's (2008) study.

The third factor that supported English use in microteaching is the teachers' and pupils' target language proficiency level (Kim & Elder, 2008). The PSETs as well as their peers who acted as pupils in microteaching lessons had already attained an adequate proficiency level, at least for everyday English (Medgyes, 1999a), though it was below "the minimum level needed to teach" (Butler, 2004, p.243). With this level of English proficiency, the PSETs were sure that the 'pupils' in their microteaching lessons would understand what they said in English. The PSETs were also aided by the microteaching lesson scripts in English, which helped reduced their anxiety about teaching (Wallace, 1991) and using English as a medium of instruction (Medgyes, 1999a). With a minimum level of anxiety, the PSETs could possibly use the English expressions in lesson scripts in microteaching lessons. This also indicates that in the microteaching, the PSETs had come to their "survival" stage of teaching (Maynard & Furlong, 1995, p.12; Pachler & Field, 2001).

However, two of the three factors that had supported the PSETs' use of monolingual English were not present during the practicum. For example, there was no formal assessment of PSETs' practicum teaching by videotaping organised by the Supervising English teachers. The supervising English teachers also allowed the PSETs to use Indonesian during the practicum, which is an institutional factor for using first language in teaching (Kim & Elder, 2008). As the practicum data show, the pupils also used Javanese, their mother tongue, to a large extent in practicum lessons, showing that their English proficiency level was generally lower than that of the 'pupils' in the microteaching lessons. As admitted in interviews, this has softened PSETs' strong attitude towards monolingual English as medium of instruction so that they comfortably used not only English, but also Indonesian and Javanese in practicum lessons. As reported by Kabilan and Izzaham (2008), a PSET doing a practicum in Malaysia also faced a similar challenge. Although it is not clear whether it was PSETs' use of Indonesian and Javanese that influenced pupils' use of their first

language and mother tongue in the lessons, pupils' attitudes towards the use of L1 in English class tend to follow their teachers' attitudes towards pupils' first language, according to Kim and Petraki's (2009) study.

Among the three languages used in practicum lessons, English (target language) was used to a high percentage on average by the PSETs, except in the case of one (PSET 5) who used English for only one third of her classroom language. This shows that the "base language" for instruction in practicum lessons was English (Bonacina & Gafaranga, 2011, p.323) and that Indonesian and Javanese use was complementary to this. This corresponds with the use of the target language in the inner layer of an English lesson and use of learners' native language in the outer layer (Willis, 1992). In other words, the lesson frame was in English and the lesson support frame was in Indonesian and Javanese (Pennington, 2002). A strong orientation to use the target language means that the PSETs in this study perceived themselves to have enough English proficiency to enable them to use English as a medium of instruction. As found in Kamhi-Stein's (2010) study, the higher the English teacher's English language proficiency, the more English they used. Nevertheless, the low English use by PSET 5 could be accounted for by her pedagogical focus on assisting the pupils in retelling their experience so that she had to provide equivalents of words in English and Indonesian when asked by her pupils.

With three languages in use in practicum lessons, code switching was inevitable (Macaro, 2006). In fact, the expressions spoken in English, Indonesian and Javanese by the PSETs in practicum lessons show that they have actually engaged in code switching. As the PSETs have been exposed to the use of English as a medium of instruction in the CD unit and implemented this in microteaching and practicum lessons, any language other than English is a deviation, which is called an "overall order perspective" of code switching (Bonacina & Gafaranga, 2011, p.323). Therefore, inserted words such as TLc and L1c categories (Duff & Polio, 1990; Kim & Elder, 2005, 2008) were not used in this research for reasons presented in Chapter 5.

In fact, the instances of code switching presented in Chapters 7 and 8 were mostly intersentential code switching or translation (Kang, 2008). The PSETs translated their

classroom language expressions from English to Indonesian and vice versa. Translation as a form of code switching can be found in most examples presented in previous studies (e.g., Kang, 2008; Kim & Elder, 2008; Macaro, 2001a; Ustunel & Seedhouse, 2005). For example, one category of teacher initiated code switching translates an "item" from the target language to the learners' first language (Ustunel & Seedhouse, 2005, p.316).

Although the finding that the PSETs used translation is not unusual in EFL contexts and in bilingual education (Creese & Blackledge, 2010), the number of languages used by the PSETs in practicum lessons has made this research worth mentioning. Unlike non native English speaker teachers who taught pupils who speak only one language as in Kang's (2008) study, the PSETs in this research also used pupils' mother tongue (Javanese). Yet, the use of Javanese in relation to the use of Indonesian was not the focus of this research. It should be noted in this research that the VHS and SHS pupils' mother tongue is their local language (Javanese), whereas Indonesian is their first language, the language of education (Nababan, 1991). This means the present study adds to the existing literature on code switching conducted by non English speaker teachers in classrooms with pupils speaking multiple languages, that is target language, first language and mother tongue.

The interviews with the PSETs and classroom observation show that PSETs' use of translation either from English to Indonesian or Indonesian to English was intentional. This was indicated in the interviews with the PSETs, who mentioned that they wanted to help pupils understand the learning material. Such use of translation is also allowed by Willis (1981), who is a strong proponent of Teaching English through English. It can be said that the translation implemented in practicum lessons is a teacher-initiated one (Ustunel & Seedhouse, 2005). The PSETs have indirectly seen value in using translation to support their explanation, a value similar to that perceived by one of the teachers in Kim and Elder's (2008) study. This means that the PSETs used translation to give curriculum access to the pupils, one of three functions suggested by Ferguson (2003).

The PSETs' confirmed that they had translated English expressions into Indonesian to help pupils to understand not only their explanation but also the content of the

English curriculum for SHSs and VHSs. This function is evident in practicum lessons where the PSETs translated into Indonesian some grammatical aspects of describing objects and explaining the contexts for expressions used for invitations, their acceptance and refusal in English. This practice is similar to that of the PSETs in Israel who reported translating English into pupils' first language to clarify the PSETs' use of English (Orland-Barak & Yinon, 2005). It is also similar to the English and science teachers' use of translation from English to Malay to clarify their explanations (Then & Ting, 2009) and for saving time in explaining concepts (Schweers, 1999). This function of translation is message-oriented (Macaro, 2006), or oriented towards the core goal of the lesson (Kim & Elder, 2005).

Translation from English to Indonesian in practicum lessons also serves the management of the class (Ferguson, 2003). The examples of expressions for control and discipline which contain translations from English to Indonesian presented in Chapter 8 have represented this function. This is similar to the function of code switching to "deal with classroom discipline" in Ustunel and Seedhouse's (2005, p.308) study. The PSETs reported that the pupils denied their instruction spoken in English in the practicum lessons and that the pupils even explicitly asked the PSETs to use Indonesian during the practicum, similar to the students surveyed by Pasaribu (2001). This avoidance of using target language for "fear of losing control" is similar to the teachers' behaviour in Bateman's (2008, p.18) study, as well as the desire to be liked by the pupils as reported by the PSETs in Orland-Barak and Yinon's (2005) study. It was no surprise that the PSETs recalled that the skill they learned most during practicum lessons was how to control the class.

The PSETs also reported translating English expressions into Indonesian to get pupils' attention. This translation helps build interpersonal relations with pupils (Ferguson, 2003). This function was seen in the implementation of expressions for stimulating pupils' motivation to learn English. The same function for building rapport with pupils was expressed by student teachers in Bateman's (2008) study. It seemed clear that the PSETs' use of translation in practicum lessons was also intended to solve communication breakdowns, as in Ustunel and Seedhouse's (2005) study and to invite pupils' participation in the classroom, as in Orland-Barak and Yinon's (2005) study.

Despite the three functions previously mentioned, the classroom language data show that the function of translation for developing interpersonal relations was not achieved very well. This is evident in the translation sequences which often occurred one after another in uninterrupted PSETs' talking. This overuse of translation by the PSETs diverted pupils' attention to Indonesian or Javanese in retrieving the message. It is very likely that the pupils would not attempt to comprehend the English spoken by the PSET, but rather waited for its translation. In their study Kim and Elder (2008) argue that the "habit of inserting English translations or explanations before or after such TL units may have the effect of diverting students' attention constantly to English for the retrieval of message" (Kim & Elder, 2008, p.181). Therefore, the PSETs should consider if their use of translation has benefited students or not (Macaro, 2006).

Despite the intentionality of PSETs' use of translation, they could have switched to Indonesian or English to cover their lack of English proficiency. Though contrary to the previous explanation on PSETs' strong orientation to target language use, this claim is possible as the PSETs had underdeveloped explaining and questioning skills, as previously discussed. Negative feedback regarding their English proficiency was also given by the Supervising English teachers; this is common for non native student teachers, as reported by Vignola and Bayliss (2007). In other words, it is possible that the PSETs were not able to use other ways of giving explanations in English, a compensation strategy (Macaro, 2006). It should be noted again that the research did not intend to assess the quality of PSETs' classroom language use during the practicum as Tüzel and Akcal (2009) did. In fact, however, some of PSETs' classroom language problems in Tüzel and Akcan's (2009) study could also be found in the practicum data. For example, the classroom language data do not contain instances of PSETs modifying the phonology, morphology, syntax and discourse of their classroom language use (Chaudron, 1988), unlike the PSETs reported by Giouroukakis et al. (2008). The PSETs in Tüzel and Akcan's (2009) study also had problems in modifying their English to meet the pupils' level as well as having grammatical errors. This means that the language used by the PSETs in the practicum in this study share similar problems that the PSETs in Tüzel and Akcan's (2009) study had. Unlike what was offered by Tüzel and Akcan (2009) in their language

awareness training, the CD unit did not offer discussion on the potential use of pupils' first language. It seems clear that PSETs' decision to use translation stemmed from their own experience as English language learners, which helped develop their personal beliefs toward the use of first language (Macaro, 2001a). In this way, the PSETs taught English in the practicum lessons following the way they were taught in their prior education (Lortie, 1975). Such an influence is possible as their background learning from primary to tertiary levels has exposed the PSETs to the bilingual practice of English teaching. A similar influence has been observed by Lacorte (2005).

10.4 Prompting, extension and modelling in the lessons

Despite the lack of explicit elaboration and teaching of scaffolding during the learning process, a stated objective of the CD unit, three kinds of scaffolding (prompting, extension and modelling as suggested by Forman (2008) and Walsh (2006a)) were found in microteaching and practicum lessons. Among these three, prompting was found more often in microteaching and practicum lessons than were extension and modelling. Pupils' responses to these kinds of scaffolding, however, range from no response to a two-sentence response. These are the main findings presented in Chapter 9.

In their prompting examples, the PSETs used questions as part of their explanation process. As discussed previously, the handouts of the CD unit for PSETs only spelled out questions for checking pupils' understanding, although in microteaching and practicum lessons the PSETs also used questions to engage pupils regarding the objective or topic of the lessons. In this process, they commonly asked questions to foster class participation and check pupils' comprehension (Johnson, 2009). What matters for scaffolding, however, is not the question types but their ability to assist learning, according to Johnson (2009). In fact, most of the lessons showed one kind of learning opportunity through listening to the teachers. The limited learning opportunities created by the PSETs through the prompting could also be seen from the limited number of pupils who were capable of answering the teacher's prompting and their limited responses (to one or two-word responses). In this way, it is hard to suggest that the prompting has assisted pupils' learning.

The prompting in microteaching and practicum lessons shows both similarities and differences with that used in Forman's (2008) study. The short responses from pupils show similarities with Forman's study. However, the kinds of language used in prompting distinguish the present research from Forman's (2008). The PSETs gave monolingual prompting only in English, while the university teachers in Forman's (2008) study prompted monolingually, either in English or Thai. The bilingual prompting in the present research takes two forms; English sentences immediately translated into Indonesian and Indonesian sentences immediately translated into English. In Forman's (2008) study, however, there was no translation of teachers' own English expressions into Thai. Instead, the teacher used only Thai to explain particular English word(s) in the text(s) under discussion. In other words, in Forman's (2008) study, teachers used Thai to give more understanding about a word in the text the teacher was describing. Although the PSETs attempted to use the target language in their practicum lessons, their immediate translation negated the usefulness of this since their pupils did not need to attend to the English version, knowing that the Indonesian version would be provided. It should be noted that the pupils in this study and the students in Forman's (2008) study were at very different levels of proficiency in English.

Given pupils' limited responses to teachers' prompting, some PSETs extended pupils' responses and others even modelled words or phrases in English for the pupils. It is not surprising then that some of the extensions and modelling examples are found in the turns after prompting attempts. The teachers in microteaching and practicum lessons stretched pupils' one or two word responses into one sentence or more. Their commonly long extension, however, was not always followed by pupils' responses at a similar length. This shows that the extension did not meet one of their purposes, which was to make learners express their ideas more extensively, as suggested by Walsh (2006a). However, the model itself may have been of value in providing pupils with extended input. It was not clear in the present research what prevented pupils from responding at length. It is possible that the pupils did not realise that they should follow up teachers' extension and that they did not understand what the teachers said in the extension. Long extensions contained too much explanation, contradicting the

temporary nature of scaffolding as Gibbons (2002) and Hammond and Gibbons (2001) have pointed out.

For the third kind of scaffolding which exists in microteaching and practicum lessons, modelling, there were only a handful of examples of modelling. They mostly took the correcting form, that is the one given after pupils' language production, similar to correcting in Kim and Elder's (2005) study. Some of the examples of modelling presented in Chapter 9 showed teachers' success in helping pupils produce a correct piece of language. In such success, however, lies a doubt whether it was the result of teachers' scaffolding or pupils' own ability. In singing together, for example, the teacher seemed to do modelling, but it resulted only in repetition of song lyrics. Such repetitions may not push pupils' skills beyond their current level, which is a feature of scaffolding (Hammond & Gibbons, 2001). More importantly, there is no guarantee that with such repetition the pupils would be able to correct their own language production in future tasks, a caution against calling it scaffolding, also suggested by Hammond and Gibbons(2001; 2005). This was evident in pupils' grammatical inaccuracies, which were left unattended by the PSETs and in pupils not responding to teachers modelling.

As discussed previously, there is no indication at all that the BTSs and their expressions in the handouts of the CD unit contain examples of scaffolding. It is no surprise to find in Section Two of this chapter that the PSETs also lacked a range of questioning skills, which might have excluded skills in using prompting questions. Similarly, the PSETs' focus on giving feedback in the form of praise in microteaching and practicum lessons might have prevented the development of their extension skills. All this means that the scaffolding attempts observed in the microteaching and practicum lessons were unintentional, as they had never been planned by the PSETs. Moreover, as none of the three attempts had been designed in the lesson plans, all of them could be considered unintentional scaffolding, similar to the unintended scaffolding in the lessons observed by Bliss et al. (1996).

Unintentional scaffolding would be very unlikely to be successful in supporting learning. In fact, strategies to work with the structural features of specific types of texts "which will assist students in their composing of oral and written texts"

(Forman, 2008, p.321) such as the use of joint-construction of text were not found in the lesson plans for practicum lessons written by the PSETs. This shows that the practicum lessons were not designed for scaffolding reading or writing as found in Clark and Graves' (2005) study. Hammond and Gibbons (2005, p.20) have warned that when there is no designed-in scaffolding, the scaffolding in interaction (if it exists) would become "hit and miss" and be very likely to be only common "help", not scaffolding. In fact, the description of attempts of prompting, extension and modelling in Chapter 9 shows that most of them did not successfully meet the purpose of scaffolding.

Unsuccessful scaffolding in teachers' lessons as a phenomenon is not uncommon in language classrooms. The teachers in Bliss et al.'s (1996) study also made scaffolding attempts, but they were not successful, even though they had been given training in scaffolding learning. The discussion of scaffolding in this section has shown PSETs' active attempts to provide scaffolding despite pupils' short responses and their own lack of skills in giving feedback to pupils' responses. Although the PSETs' framework to use classroom language was for performing the BTSs, not specifically for scaffolding, their prompting, extension and modelling attempts emerged as no surprise. Scaffolding, as suggested by Sharpe (2001) and Hammond and Gibbons (2001), is part and parcel of any good teaching, which is the aim of all teachers. Therefore, it can be concluded from the prompting, extension and modelling attempts in the microteaching and practicum lessons that the PSETs have unintentionally learned to provide scaffolding.

As scaffolding was not the focus of this research and it was only considered later after data collection, it would not be fair for the researcher to judge the PSETs' success in offering scaffolding in the microteaching and practicum lessons. Even an experienced university researcher discussed in the literature review on scaffolding in Chapter 3, (Suherdi, 2010a), has referred to modelling as scaffolding, while the example given was actually a dictation by the teacher. This means that PSETs' prompting, extension and modelling in Chapter 9 could be treated as "attempts" (Johnson, 2009, p.74) at prompting, extension and modelling.

Given the short time allotted for microteaching and practicum, the PSETs had little exposure to scaffolding; therefore, their efforts should be appreciated for attempting scaffolding in their lessons. According to Johnson (2009), successful scaffolding is not mechanistic, but a process. In other words, successful scaffolding may not be judged by the number of words given by pupils in response to teachers' scaffolding. Rather, the key for scaffolding is "its mediational quality for assisting pupils' learning", which enables the learners to take "active roles in the interaction process and in gaining increasing awareness and control over their actions" (Johnson, 2009, p.71). To achieve this skill, the PSETs would need more than the two-month practicum lessons. The PSETs would also need to follow the sociocultural view of learning and teaching (Johnson, 2009). However, to have this view will not be easy, considering the underlying beliefs of good teaching held by the English teacher education program at Pahlawan University, discussed below.

10.5 Classroom language, the CD unit, microteaching and practicum lessons

The previous discussion of the four Research Questions has indicated the interconnection between the classroom language taught in the CD unit and how the PSETs learned it and its implementation in microteaching and practicum lessons, including attempts at scaffolding. This section will discuss the relationship among them in an attempt to answer the overarching research question, "How do the pre-service English teachers implement the classroom language taught in the CD unit in their microteaching and practicum lessons?"

Their relationships start with how the nature of classroom language was defined in the CD unit. The classroom language taught in the CD unit consists of English expressions for performing eight BTSs. Following Freeman and Richards (1993) as well as Zahorik (1986), this language reflects the conception held by the program designer as well as the lecturer of the CD unit about what constitutes good language teaching. The lecturer of the CD unit has the belief that these expressions are what effective English teachers use and that the eight BTSs is a model of a good teaching. She also believes that using the English expressions listed in the handout of the CD unit is an effective way for training the PSETs how to teach English in Indonesian

schools. These are the characteristics of a science-research conception of teaching (Freeman & Richards, 1993; Richards, 1998; Zahorik, 1986).

The tasks given for the PSETs for learning English expressions show that the CD unit followed the craft and the applied science models of teacher education, two of the three models suggested by Wallace (1991). Learning to be teachers by observing others who are considered as more expert in teaching is a characteristic of the craft model (Crandall, 2000; Ditfurth & Legutke, 2006; Wallace, 1991). It consists of imitating what good teachers do through an apprentice process (Ditfurth & Legutke, 2006). In fact, the PSETs practised using the predetermined English expressions. In this way, the PSETs were put in the position of applying what the experts in the area of teaching English, such as Willis (1981), had suggested for them. In other words, the PSETs were regarded as being responsible for applying the BTSs and their classroom language expressions in practice. This shows that the PSETs learning of classroom language in the CD unit followed the applied science model.

The finding regarding the implementation of classroom language in microteaching gave evidence of the PSETs' full commitment to what they had learned in the CD unit. For example, they used English to its full percentage of their language use. They also reproduced 18 out of the many English expressions written in the handout of the CD unit in the microteaching lessons. Moreover, the PSETs implemented the BTSs assigned to them in the sixteen microteaching lessons. In this way, the PSETs have used microteaching as one of the first places for learning to teach (Wallace, 1991), following what they had learned in the CD unit. At the same time, they were experiencing the early idealism stage of learning to teach (Maynard & Furlong, 1995; Pachler & Field, 2001).

As the PSETs had no teaching experience in secondary schools, they used their microteaching lessons as a model for their practicum lessons. It is not, therefore, surprising to find that the microteaching and practicum lessons have a common lesson structure, consisting of five BTSs taught in the CD unit, namely, Opening the lesson, Organising the class, Explaining the lesson, Asking questions, and Closing the lesson. However, as the microteaching lessons were segmented according to the BTSs assigned for practise, none of the microteaching lessons implemented the complete

set of eight BTSs. Similarly, none of the practicum lessons contain implementation of the complete set of eight BTSs. This partial implementation shows not only that PSETs used the taught BTSs in their teaching, but also that the PSETs made decisions about which BTSs were appropriate to implement during the practicum. This is what the PSETs in Orland-Barak and Yinon's (2007) study called "developing practical theories" (p. 957), a kind of personal practical knowledge (Golombek, 1998).

The implementation of explaining skills in microteaching and the practicum shows the interconnectedness between the CD unit, microteaching and the practicum. As promoted in the CD unit, the PSETs used classroom language for explaining the lessons in microteaching and practicum lessons. This practice reflects the PSETs' traditional view of teaching which emphasises "transmitting" knowledge to the class (Scrivener, 2005, p.16). By talking too much, the PSETs failed to balance between student and teacher talk. This was evident in pupils' low response rate and if there was a response, the PSETs did not respond to it appropriately.

Despite their interconnections, the PSETs also saw the limitations in the nature of classroom language presented to them in the CD unit when it came to the practicum lessons. As practicum contexts are often different from microteaching (Wallace, 1991), the PSETs not only made modifications to the taught English expressions in the CD unit, but they also created their own expressions for teaching practicum lessons. The PSETs also reduced the use of English as the medium of instruction to 60% of their classroom use. This happened as the PSETs decided to use Indonesian and Javanese in practicum lessons. While their "base language" of instruction in practicum lessons was English (Bonacina & Gafaranga, 2011, p.323), the PSETs translated English to Indonesian and vice versa especially in giving explanations to pupils. This shows that the PSETs have held on to the teaching of English through English as an important principle promoted in the CD unit and that they followed Willis' (1981) suggestions on adapting the taught classroom language expressions to the class situation as well as on using pupils' first language to a low extent.

However, the CD unit itself was not without imperfections. The most apparent point of critique is that it did not implement its stated objective in the handbook, due to a lack of definition. As previously explained, the CD unit could have been an

appropriation or (mis)interpretation of scaffolding by the lecturer of the CD unit, who understood it as similar to teacher talk in English (Agustien & Rohim, 2005; Agustien, 2004). In addition, the CD unit failed to offer explorations on the potential use of Indonesian and Javanese for assisting learning, including for scaffolding. The CD unit assumed English use is important but offered no discussion of how realistic this is in rural Indonesia. Although the PSETs were asked to observe real English teachers using classroom language for teaching English, the PSETs were not asked to explore features of classroom discourse, as suggested by Walsh (2006a), in the lessons they observed as part of the CD unit and in their own videotaped microteaching lessons, as suggested by Orlova (2009). As a result, the PSETs did not create many new ways for saying different things in lessons or use diverse ways of saying the same thing, as teachers in previous studies have done (e.g., Cadorath & Harris, 1998; Chaudron, 1988; Cullen, 2001; Harfitt, 2008; Walsh, 2002).

Although providing scaffolding was not taught in the CD unit, the microteaching and practicum lessons contained PSETs' attempts at scaffolding, namely, prompting, extension, and modelling attempts. These attempts could have been predicted to occur as they are part of the comprehensive definition of classroom language suggested in Willis (2002) and are "inherent" in daily practices of good teaching, as pointed out by Sharpe (2001, p.76). They show that the PSETs have unintentionally learned to provide scaffolding from doing teaching. However, the relative success of prompting, extension and modelling attempts has become "a hit and miss" achievement (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005, p.20). This means that there is no guarantee that either the attempts or their success will occur again in the future since the PSETs were not explicitly introduced to both the designed-in and point-of-need scaffolding skills (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005).

To achieve the stated objective of the CD unit in the handbook of the program, the English teacher education program at Pahlawan University has to subscribe to the sociocultural view of learning and of teacher education (Johnson, 2009). This, however, needs more than changing the unit names offered to the PSETs, but also a change of cultural values. As the cultural context in Indonesia often becomes a hindrance for the implementation of education innovation, as reported by Saud and Johnston (2006) and Bjork (2005), this possibility may be very small.

In all the interconnectedness between classroom language taught in the CD unit and that used in the microteaching and practicum lessons, the seven PSETs appeared to be active learners of teaching who showed responsibility for their own learning to teach English in the Indonesian school contexts. The PSETs were taught the eight BTSs and classroom language expressions in the CD unit, but they themselves decided when to use almost all of these (in microteaching lessons) and when to use it with adaptations (in practicum lessons). Hence, the PSETs had implemented "the essential learning experience" by doing "the thing themselves" (Scrivener, 2005, p.20). Other people, namely, their lecturer of the CD and Microteaching units and Supervising English teachers, as well as their peers, were only supporting the PSETs' experiential learning by providing "information, feedback, guidance and support" to accompany their learning to teach (Scrivener, 2005, p.20). In the implementation of what was taught in the CD unit in microteaching and practicum lessons, the PSETs had shown that they are "intelligent, fully functioning humans, not simply receptacles for passed-on knowledge" (Scrivener, 2005, p.21).

10.6 Chapter summary

The discussion of the findings presented in this chapter reveals how the PSETs implemented the classroom language learned in the CD unit in the microteaching and practicum lessons. From the discussion, there are interconnections between the nature of classroom language taught in the CD unit, PSETs' ways of learning it, and its implementation in microteaching and practicum lessons. The beliefs held by the English teacher education program play a key role in this interconnection. In fact, the program's adherence to the science-research conception of good teaching and the craft and applied science models of teacher education has had a clear influence on what was taught to the PSETs in the CD unit and how they learned it.

The stakeholders of the CD unit have held the belief that the best way for the PSETs to learn to use classroom language for teaching English in Indonesia is by using the English expressions specifically used for teaching eight teaching skills. The implementation of classroom language in microteaching also paralleled what was taught in the CD unit. Although the PSETs also referred to the BTSs taught in the CD

unit during the practicum lessons, they used different combinations of BTSs and made adaptations to their corresponding English expressions. The PSETs found that full English use is not realistic in rural Indonesian secondary schools, so they accommodated the use of Indonesian and Javanese. Prompting, extension and reformulation found in microteaching and practicum lessons have shown not only that the PSETs made their best attempts to facilitate pupils' learning, but also that they learned from the practicum. This indicates that the PSETs are active learners of teaching who are responsible for their own learning (Richards, 1998).

The interconnection among findings of this research could be best explained using Johnson's (2009, p.11) assertion that the approach to teachers' professional development taken by a teacher education program is "grounded in a particular epistemological perspective—that is, what counts as knowledge, who is considered to be a knower, and how knowledge is produced", which depends "on issues of access, status, and power of a particular professional community". Scrivener's (2005) assertion is also demonstrated, that "the essential learning experience" (p.20) for the PSETs as they learn to be better teachers is "in doing the thing" (p.20) themselves.

Chapter 11
Conclusion and Recommendations

This chapter presents the conclusion and recommendations of the research. Section One summarises the answers of the four research questions in the conclusion of this research, which responds to the overarching research question. This is followed by recommendations for the English teacher education at Pahlawan University and for the future research in the area of classroom language training and foreign language teacher education.

11.1 Conclusion

The conclusion of the present research is built on the answers to the four research questions presented in Chapter 1. It was found that the classroom language taught in the CD unit consisted of English expressions used for performing eight BTSs, not scaffolding talk, which is stated in the handbook of the program. The PSETs learned classroom language by observing other people teach English either in videotapes or real classrooms. They also practised using classroom language for teaching their peers in the CD unit class as well memorising the BTSs and their expressions. The PSETs implemented the classroom language taught in the CD unit in microteaching and practicum lessons to some extent by adapting the number and sequence of the eight BTSs. The PSETs used English almost fully in microteaching lessons, but this use was reduced to 62% on average in the practicum lessons. This shows that the main language for instruction in practicum lessons remained English. The eight BTSs and their related expressions written in the handout of the CD unit were implemented in microteaching and practicum lessons through exact reproduction, with modification, and through the creation of their own expressions. Despite the modifications and creation of their own classroom language expressions, the PSETs still referred to the eight BTSs and their English expressions. The most apparent adaptation to what the PSETs had learned in the CD unit was the increasing use of Indonesian and Javanese and use of some translation from English to Indonesian and vice versa. Finally, although scaffolding was not taught in the CD unit, three kinds of scaffolding, namely prompting, extension and modelling, were employed in microteaching and practicum lessons with moderate success.

Based on these answers, it can be concluded that the classroom language taught to the PSETs in the CD unit has exposed them to management language in English, that the PSETs have successfully implemented this classroom language in microteaching, and that they had to modify that classroom language for teaching practicum lessons in terms of BTSs, the English expressions and exclusive use of English. Despite not learning to give scaffolding in the CD unit, the PSETs did provide some scaffolding in microteaching and practicum lessons.

This research has opened our understanding on the broader field of education of teachers in general. Firstly, it shows us a significant role a teacher education has played in education at schools. As evident in this research, what was learned in teacher education program was implemented in schools. This means that if an improvement in school education is to be seen, teacher education has to give the best possible knowledge and skills for the student teachers. This power will rest in the teacher education program if they can provide good examples such as "modelling good instructional practice, dialogically organizing instruction, encouraging participation in multiple discourses and setting up collaborative learning"(Singh & Richards, 2006, p.161).

Secondly, it opens our understanding of the role of experiential learning for those doing teacher education (Scrivener, 2005). Evidence in this research show that student teachers as the learners of teaching have the capacity to pick up knowledge in practice. For example, monolingual approach to medium of instruction introduced in the teacher education has been compromised by the PSETs to the bi/multilingual approach to medium of instruction actually practised at schools. Unintentionally, the PSETs has implemented Cummins' (2007) "use of bilingual instructional strategies along with monolingual strategies in a balanced and complementary way" (p.221).

Specifically, the findings of the research may contribute to language teaching and teacher preparation knowledge in the following ways. Firstly, they provide an insight into the application of classroom training books (Heaton, 1981; Hughes, 1981; Salaberri, 1995; Slattery & Willis, 2001; Willis, 1981), especially on the combination between classroom English training and basic teaching skill training (Heaton, 1981)

in a university unit, in microteaching and practicum lessons. They also provide an example of how a conception of good teaching (Zahorik, 1986) has been used to decide which knowledge and skills should be developed in PSETs (Freeman & Richards, 1993; Richards, 1998) in an Indonesian teacher education program.

The second contribution of this research is that it has confirmed some of the research findings on characteristics of PSETs' classroom language use, particularly regarding the tendency to use most of their language for talking and giving explanations (e.g., Johnson, 1992; Menon, 1993). Moreover, the findings of this research add to the existing literature on both native and non native foreign language teachers' use of combinations of target language and pupils' first language during the practicum (e.g., Macaro, 2001a; Orland-Barak & Yinon, 2005).

In the third place, the findings of this research confirm Maynard and Furlong's (1995) five stages of PSETs' concerns regarding development during the practicum. Fourthly, the findings of this research support Forman's (2008) notion of the appropriation of scaffolding and Johnson's (2009) contention that scaffolding is being misunderstood by language teachers. They also ratify Sharpe's (2001) proposition that scaffolding is "inherent" (p.76) in any good teaching. However, in line with Moon's (2004) assertion, this research has also shown that reflectivity is not easy for the PSETs. This suggests the need for reflectivity training in the teacher education program.

Last but not least, this study shows that classroom language training results in use of English by PSETs in practical settings. Such training could and should also prepare PSETs to engage their students in productive learning. Understanding about the skills they are learning and need to develop further can contribute to PSETs' important task of fostering language learning.

11.2 Recommendations

Based on the conclusion of the present research, recommendations are offered for the English teacher education program at Pahlawan University and for future research.

There are several recommendations for the CD unit at the English teacher education program at Pahlawan University. Firstly, it would be beneficial for the unit to raise PSETs' awareness of the importance of classroom language as a tool for learning. It can do this by expanding the emphasis on critically studying the features of classroom discourse that are the responsibility of teachers, as suggested by Walsh (2006a), rather than focussing only on classroom English expressions. In so doing, the PSETs would be able to complete their responsibilities in classroom discourse.

Secondly, as the program has already incorporated classroom observation tasks, these tasks could be further used to include exploration of productive language use and the importance of this is in learning to teach in meaningful ways. This could be mediated through the use of lesson transcriptions followed by discussions on other possible ways to say things as in Cullen's (2001) study. If possible, the PSETs could be required to make transcriptions of their own lessons and evaluate their classroom language, including their use of the target and first language, using available tools such as SETT (Walsh, 2002).

The stated objective of the CD unit could be better communicated in the unit guide and lecture activities. The program designers such as the writer of the handbook could review the mismatch between the stated objective of the CD unit and implementation. This could also mean that the program could be revised to refer to the current view of language teacher education which incorporates sociocultural perspectives of language learning and language teacher education.

Fourthly, as the implementation of classroom language contains use of pupils' language, it would be better for the CD unit to include awareness raising regarding classroom code-switching. In this way, the PSETs could be trained to find possible strategies to increase their use of the target language, a similar suggestion by Kim and Elder (2008) in their study.

The findings of the present research have opened several possibilities for future research in the areas of classroom language training and EFL teacher education. First, there is a need for action research which incorporates all the previous recommendations for the CD unit in the context of Pahlawan University. Secondly, as

the CD unit, to the best of researcher's knowledge, is unique to Pahlawan University, there is now a need for researching other ways that classroom language is included in programs at other universities in Indonesia. Thirdly, as there were discrepancies between the implemented classroom language and the taught classroom language, a study is needed on how an English teacher education program can work together with the supervising English teachers to agree on the kinds of classroom language – and their importance for productive pedagogy – to be learned by the PSETs. Such research could also expand to a research on University and school partnerships in English teacher education. Fourthly, the use of more than one language in the practicum also opens an area for future studies on the efficiency of the use of the target language for assisting learning in secondary schools. Finally, there is also a need for researching the influence of the supervising English teachers in PSETs learning to teach, as this was not revealed in the present research.

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List of Appendices

Appendix 1

Ethical Approvals for Phases 1 and 2

MONASH University

Standing Committee on Ethics in Research Involving Humans (SCERH)
Research Office

Human Ethics Certificate of Approval

Date:	9 February 2009
Project Number:	CF09/0041 - 2009000019
Project Title:	Indonesian pre-service English teachers' strategies for learning classroom language
Chief Investigator:	Dr Marie-Therese Jensen
Approved:	From: 9 February 2009 to 9 February 2014

Terms of approval

1. The Chief investigator is responsible for ensuring that permission letters are obtained and a copy forwarded to SCERH before any data collection can occur at the specified organisation. **Failure to provide permission letters to SCERH before data collection commences is in breach of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research and the Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research.**
2. Approval is only valid whilst you hold a position at Monash University.
3. It is the responsibility of the Chief Investigator to ensure that all investigators are aware of the terms of approval and to ensure the project is conducted as approved by SCERH.
4. You should notify SCERH immediately of any serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants or unforeseen events affecting the ethical acceptability of the project.
5. The Explanatory Statement must be on Monash University letterhead and the Monash University complaints clause must contain your project number.
6. **Amendments to the approved project (including changes in personnel):** Requires the submission of a Request for Amendment form to SCERH and must not begin without written approval from SCERH. Substantial variations may require a new application.
7. **Future correspondence:** Please quote the project number and project title above in any further correspondence.
8. **Annual reports:** Continued approval of this project is dependent on the submission of an Annual Report. This is determined by the date of your letter of approval.
9. **Final report:** A Final Report should be provided at the conclusion of the project. SCERH should be notified if the project is discontinued before the expected date of completion.
10. **Monitoring:** Projects may be subject to an audit or any other form of monitoring by SCERH at any time.
11. **Retention and storage of data:** The Chief Investigator is responsible for the storage and retention of original data pertaining to a project for a minimum period of five years.

Professor Ben Canny
Chair, SCERH

Cc: Ahmad Munir

MONASH University

Human Ethics Certificate of Approval

Date:	5 August 2009
Project Number:	CF09/1618 – 2009000886
Project Title:	Indonesian pre-service English teachers learning classroom language: Theory into practice
Chief Investigator:	Dr Marie-Therese Jensen
Approved:	From: 5 August 2009 to 5 August 2014

Terms of approval

1. The Chief investigator is responsible for ensuring that permission letters are obtained, if relevant, and a copy forwarded to MUHREC before any data collection can occur at the specified organisation. **Failure to provide permission letters to MUHREC before data collection commences is in breach of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research and the Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research.**
2. Approval is only valid whilst you hold a position at Monash University.
3. It is the responsibility of the Chief Investigator to ensure that all investigators are aware of the terms of approval and to ensure the project is conducted as approved by MUHREC.
4. You should notify MUHREC immediately of any serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants or unforeseen events affecting the ethical acceptability of the project.
5. The Explanatory Statement must be on Monash University letterhead and the Monash University complaints clause must contain your project number.
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8. **Annual reports:** Continued approval of this project is dependent on the submission of an Annual Report. This is determined by the date of your letter of approval.
9. **Final report:** A Final Report should be provided at the conclusion of the project. MUHREC should be notified if the project is discontinued before the expected date of completion.
10. **Monitoring:** Projects may be subject to an audit or any other form of monitoring by MUHREC at any time.
11. **Retention and storage of data:** The Chief Investigator is responsible for the storage and retention of original data pertaining to a project for a minimum period of five years.

Professor Ben Canny
Chair, MUHREC

Cc: Mr Ahmad Munir

Appendix 2

Description of Classroom Discourse unit in the handbook

08414216 CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

Dosen Pembina : name-deleted

Deskripsi

Kompetensi keterampilan penggunaan *scaffolding Talk* selama proses belajar mengajar bahasa Inggris berlangsung di kelas.

Buku Sumber Wajib

Depdiknas. 2004. *Kurikulum 2004. Standar Kompetensi Mata Pelajaran Bahasa Inggris SMA dan MA, SMP dan MTs*. Jakarta: Depdiknas.
Dirdasmen. 2004. *Ungkapan-Ungkapan Bahasa Inggris untuk Tujuan Pengajaran*. Jakarta: Depdiknas.

Appendix 3

Description of Microteaching and Practicum units in the handbook

90520201   PROGRAM PENGALAMAN LAPANGAN I

   Dosen Pembina: Tim

   Deskripsi

   Kompetensi keterampilan awal pengalaman lapangan melalui kegiatan
   observasi, orientasi, dan penerapan teori pengelolaan kelas dalam
   kelompok *peer teaching*.

   Buku Sumber Wajib

   Depdikbud 1990. *Pedoman Pelaksanaan PPSPTK di Indonesia
      tentang Program Pengalaman Lapangan*. Jakarta: Depdikbud.
   Depdiknas. 2004. *Kurikulum 2004. Standar Kompetensi Mata Pelajaran
      Bahasa Inggris. SMA dan MA, SMP dan MTs*. Jakarta: Depdiknas.
   Deleted   1990. *Pedoman Program Pelaksanaan Lapangan*.
      Surabaya: University Press.

90520202   PROGRAM PENGALAMAN LAPANGAN II

   Dosen Pembina: Tim

   Deskripsi

   Kompetensi keterampilan lebih lanjut pengalaman lapangan melalui
   kegiatan observasi, orientasi, dan penerapan teori pengelolaan kelas
   dalam kelompok *peer teaching* serta pemahaman pengorganisasian
   sekolah lingkup administrasi dan akademis.

   Buku Sumber Wajib

   Depdikbud 1990. *Pedoman Pelaksanaan PPSPTK di Indonesia
      Tentang Program Pengalaman Lapangan*. Jakarta: Depdikbud.
   Depdiknas. 2004. *Kurikulum 2004. Standar Kompetensi Mata Pelajaran
      Bahasa Inggris. SMA dan MA, SMP dan MTs*. Jakarta: Depdiknas.
   UPPL-, **deleted**   1990. *Pedoman Program Pelaksanaan Lapangan*.
      Surabaya: University Press.

Appendix 4

Completed Background Information Questionnaire

BACKGROUND INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE
FOR PRE-SERVICE ENGLISH TEACHERS

This questionnaire is to explore your experience of using and being exposed to "classroom English" when you were studying English at elementary, junior high, senior high schools, and private courses. The results of this questionnaire will be compared with the data obtained from your learning journals in the units/subjects of "Classroom English" and "PPL 1".

Name of pre-service English teacher : __Faris (pseudonym)__

Year of starting at English department : _____

A. Give X in the boxes based on your answers.

1. Do you currently teach English?

   Yes [ ] Go to questions 2-4

   No [✓] Go directly to **B and C**

2. If your answer for question 1 is yes, in what level of education do you currently teach? (You can cross more than one box)

For how long?	Years	Months
Elementary school		
Junior high school		
Senior high school		
College		
Private language courses		
Other (write)...............		

3. In your teaching, how often do you use:

	Never	Seldom	Often	Always
a. English as medium of instruction?				
b. Your students' first language?				

4. When do you think it is appropriate to use your students' first language in an English lesson? (You can cross more than one box) (*adapted from Schweers (1999)**)

   a. To explain difficult concepts

   b. To introduce new material ·

   c. To summarize material already covered

   d. To test

   e. To joke around with students

   f. To help students feel more comfortable and confident

   g. To check for comprehension

   h. To carry out small-group work

   i. To explain the relationship between *bahasa Indonesia* and English

   j. To define new vocabulary items

   k. Other (write)....................

B. Now let's go back to your past experience when you were studying English in elementary, junior high, senior high school, Year 1-3 of English department and private language courses.

1. How often did your English teacher in the following levels use English as medium of instruction?

	Never	Seldom	Often	Always
Elementary school		✓		
Junior high school			✓	
Senior high school				✓
Year 1-3 of English department				✓
Private language courses				

2. When did your English teacher use your first language during instruction?
(You can cross more than one box)

- a. To explain difficult concepts ✓
- b. To introduce new material ✓
- c. To summarize material already covered
- d. To test
- e. To joke around with students ✓
- f. To help students feel more comfortable and confident
- g. To check for comprehension ✓
- h. To carry out small-group work
- i. To explain the relationship between *bahasa Indonesia* and English
- j. To define new vocabulary items ✓
- k. Other (write).......................

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

Appendix 5

Sample of a completed learning journal entry for the CD unit

I listened carefully to the evaluation given for my presentation so that I could *He will practise part of skills He is weak abous.*
understand which part that I should pay more attention. After all I practiced it more at home.

Date: March 5ᵗʰ, 2009

Unit: Classroom English

The classroom language I learned in today's session:

The application of the prepared basic teaching skills (opening the lesson, explaining the lesson, asking questions, varying stimuli, organizing small group discussion, closing the lesson) from microteaching video by the senior. *watching expressions used along with*

How the classroom language was presented in today's session:

The lecturer played the VCD of teaching practice and asked the students to pay attention whether the teacher has applied the eight basic teaching skills or not. And in the last she asked some comments from the students.

How I make myself learn that classroom language:

I watched the video and tried to analyze the teaching skills that are used by the teacher. I also took some notes for important notice and some errors occurred. *watch video and analyse that teacher use of class language*

Problems I faced in learning that classroom language:

The voice of the media used to play the vcd was so low so that I could not listen very well.

How I solved that/those problems:

I copied the video and watched it at home.

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Appendix 6

Sample of a completed learning journal entry for microteaching

<div align="center">DESCRIPTION ABOUT MY "PPL 1"</div>

1.   In the first meeting (PPL 1 class) we have got explanation from our lecture what PPL 1 is. We would present our presentation about the way in conducting the class in front of our classmates (opening……….closing -in PPL 1, I could practice what I have gotten from classroom discourse class about six skills in teaching.). In my PPL1 class, there were twelve students. We were divided into six groups (pair works). Every group has two chances. If the first person in the group gave opening and closing session, the other student would give explanation session. In the end of presentation, we got feedback from the teacher. The feedback made me understand what my weaknesses in teaching are.

2.   I also learnt about how to work in a group (group of PPL1). All of us in a group have to be cooperative. Especially in preparing microteaching. It was also useful for my PPL2. Because in PPL 2 we also have to work with many various people from other departments that have different character.

3.   In PPL 1 I also learnt about how to manage my emotion in front of class. I have to pretend in front of class as a teacher. I often felt nervous. But I tried to be as relax as possible and I knew that is very difficult. At least I could decrease my anxiety and nervous feeling. However, in PPL 1 is not too effective. Because I just faced my own classmates not a "real" student who often become "trouble maker". In fact (PPL 2) we have to face that problem. I also didn't get the way to approach the students emotionally (pendekatan secara emosi-hanya beberapa kali dosen menyarankan agar saat menerangkan guru seharusnya berjalan/berputar di bangku baik depan ataupun belakang. Tapi tidak secara jelas menerangkan hal-hal apa yang seharusnya kita bicarakan. Seperti sukakah mereka terhadap pelajaran BING, basa basi dll. Walaupun di tengan pelajaran menurut saya tidak apa-apa membicarakan hal lain yang bersifat menarik perhatian siswa asalkan sesuai kadarnya

4.   From PPL 1 I learnt how to correlate between Lesson plan and syllabus with our material. But it was not emphasized (was not the priority of this subject). Because the theory in making good lesson plan and syllabus was given in *Instructional Design* subject. Although there were some weaknesses in PPL 1, at least I have got description how to manage the class.

Appendix 7

Original interview questions for PSETs about the CD unit and microteaching

1. Did you find the classroom activities in "Classroom Discourse" unit help your learning to teach English through English?

2. Did you also learn to use classroom language to create pupils' interaction using the target language?

3. How does the language you learn affect the ways you need to act as a teacher?

3. Why did/didn't you use English all the time in microteaching video? Please explain?

4. Why did/didn't you use classroom language to encourage pupils to use English and give them time to speak English?

Appendix 8

Original interview questions for the lecturer of the CD unit and microteaching

1. Please tell me the classroom language you introduced to the PSETs?

2. Please tell me how you train them to use classroom language to support pupils' learning?

3. In your opinion, how are the PSETs skills in using productive classroom language?

Appendix 9

Sample of completed learning journal entry for practicum

1. **How did you use the classroom language in your lesson during PPL 2 to encourage pupils to learn English?**

   First, I greeted the students like usual by saying "Good morning. How are you today?" and then I asked them "Who is absent today?" But while asking, one student was not pay attention, he stood toward his chair and looked busy with his paper, so I said "Please sit down and listen to me." After that, I gave a brainstorming to them by saying "Do you know the story of Cinderella?" and I asked them to tell the main point of the story but they refused. So I said "It's okay if you don't want to tell the story, but today we are going to learn about narrative text." Because that was a listening section, i said "Okay class, you will listen a story and try to complete the gaps on your book." So I played the cassette three times and then I asked them to read the story while answering the blank gaps. After that, I explained about the purpose and the generic structures of narrative text orally and briefly. After explaining the material, I asked them to listen to the other story and identify the characters, problem and the solution of the story. I played the cassette three times and then we discussed it together. After that, I gave them a song to avoid their boredom. But they have to complete the blank words in the lyric, I said "You have to complete the gaps while listening the song and you may sing the song if you want to." So I played the song twice and then discussed the blank gaps. Before I ended the lesson, I played the song once again and asked them to sing together. Finally, I closed the lesson by saying "This is the last meeting with me. Thanks for your attention. See you. Bye."

2. **How did your pupils respond to your classroom language use?**

   When I greeted the students, they replied "Good morning. I'm fine. And you?" and then they said three names that were absent at that meeting. When I asked them about the story of Cinderella, they said "Yes we know, the story is too long." Next, when I said the lesson that we were going to earn, one student said "Lho sir, katanya listen song." It is because last week I promised them to give a song at that time. So I said that we would have a little lesson about narrative and then listen to a song. They listened to a story and try to complete the blank gaps. But when the story ended, they said "One more time, sir." It also happened when I played the second story. And when I explained about the material, some of them paid attention and took a note, while others did not pay attention. After listening to the stories, they looked happy because they would listen to a song. But when I said that they had to complete the missing lyrics, one student said "Sama aja sir disuru kerja juga." While listening to the song, they looked enthusiastic and when the song ended, the said "Lagi, sir." After listening to the song three times, the bell rang and I closed the meeting, and the replied "See you, sir. Goodbye."

3. **Do you feel that you have used classroom language effectively during PPL 2?**

   I think I do not use the classroom language effectively because I just explain the material orally and briefly so that most students looked confuse. And then when I asked them to answer the questions about the story, they did not know the answer. Maybe I just obsessed to give them an entertainment that is song, so that the material was not delivered successfully.

Appendix 10

Original interview questions for PSETs about practicum

1. Your learning journals show that you use/not use classroom language expressions you learn during the units on campus. Why?
2. You tried very hard to make you pupils interact in the target language but they did not respond. How do you feel about this?
3. In your lesson, you dominated the classroom talk. Why did you do that?
4. Explain the roles of the supervising teachers for your learning to use classroom language?

Appendix 11

Original interview questions for supervising English teachers

1. Do you always use English as the medium of instruction? Why?
2. How do you pupils respond to your classroom language use?
3. Do your pupils always respond to your classroom language use interactively?
4. Do the pre-service English teachers you supervise also follow the way you use classroom language?
5. Do you feel the pre-service English teachers you supervise have used of classroom language effectively? Can you provide examples?
6. What suggestion have you given to the pre-service English teachers to improve their classroom language use?

Appendix 12

Handouts of the CD unit

CLASSROOM LANGUAGE

Basic teaching skills are:

1. Opening the lesson
2. Organizing the class
3. Explaining the lesson or learning materials
4. Asking questions
5. Giving reinforcement
6. Varying stimuli
7. Organizing the small group discussion
8. Closing / Ending the lesson

No.	Basic Teaching Skills	Activities	Language Expressions	
			Teacher	Students responses
1.	Opening the lesson	Greeting	Good morning, everybody. Good afternoon, Class. Good evening, boys. Good evening, children.	Good morning, Mr. Short. Good afternoon, Mrs. Smith. Good evening, Miss Jones.
			How are you all today? Are you all well this evening? How are you?	Fine, thanks, and you? Very well, thank you.
		Checking the attendance	Right! I'm going to call the roll.	Yes, Miss White.
			Now! I'll take the register. Ok! I'll call your names.	Yes, Mr. Jefferson.
			Quiet now, please. Listen while I see if you're all here.	
			Let's see who's absent. Let's see if everyone's here. Let's see if anyone's away.	
			Is anybody absent? Is everybody here?	Yes, Lee is./Yes, I think so. No, I think Lee is away.
			You've been absent for 3 days, haven't you?	Yes, I Have.
			You've missed 6 lessons, haven't you?	
			You were away yesterday, weren't you?	Yes, I was.
			You were absent last week, weren't you?	
		Stimulating the students' motivation to learn something	Do you remember these pictures? Look!	Yes, I do.

pissing

			We did this last lesson, didn't we? Look! Listen!	Yes, Mam. / Sir.
			Who can remember what we talked about last lesson?	Me, Sir. We talked about ...
			Can anyone tell me what we learned last time?	
2.	Organizing the class	Checking the physical conditions in the classroom	It's rather hot in this room, isn't it?	Yes, it is.
			It's a bit bright in here, isn't it?	No, it's OK.
			It's very dark in here, isn't it?	No, it's alright.
			It's terribly untidy in this room, isn't it?	Yes, it is.
			Please, tidy up, would you? Please, be quiet, could you? Would you open the door, please? Please, could you switch the air conditioner on?	I will. Yes, I can. Alright.
			Would you mind if I switched the lights off?	No, that's a good idea.
			Would you mind if we had the windows open?	No, that would be fine.
			Would you mind turning the fan on, please?	No, not at all.
			And if the conditions are perfect:	
			Oh! Good. You've remembered to tidy up today!	
			What a nice warm/cool/tidy classroom.	
		Getting organized: blackboard, seating, and books	Now. Please could someone clean the blackboard?	Yes. I will.
			Can you clean the whiteboard?	OK
			Just clean this half, please.	Alright.
			Don't clean that part.	
			Leave this section.	
			Now! Would you mind straightening the chairs, please?	No, not at all.
			Could you move your desk this way, please?	Yes. OK.
			I want you to move your table(s) forward.	OK / Alright.
			Turn your chair round.	
			Now! You only need your English book, pencil, and exercise book out.	Yes, Mam / Sir.
			Pass these papers round, please.	OK.
			Put all your other books and papers away.	Alright.

		Control and Discipline	OK, everyone. Quiet now and no more talking! Stop playing around! Be quiet, please. Would you mind not shouting? You shouldn't be behaving like that! I'll report you to Mr. X if you go on copying. Do it on your own!	
			No writing while I'm talking! Don't talk while I'm explaining this. Don't move your lips while you're reading. Don't answer until I'll tell you. If you do that again, I'll set you extra work. If you keep on wasting time, I'll definitely tell your parents.	
3.	Explaining the lesson or learning materials	Talking about the lesson	First, we're going to practice this. Then, I want you to learn a dialogue about ... Next, I want you to practice asking questions about ... At the end of the lesson, if there's time, we'll do some role play/games/ sing a song. Now, have a break for a moment or two.	
4.	Asking questions		Who can answer question number 1? Who can tell the content of the first paragraph Whose turn is it? What does the text talk about?	Me, Mam. / Sir. Brenda, Sir. It talks about ....
5.	Giving reinforcement	Giving appraisal	Well done! Good. Very good. Excellent!	
6.	Varying stimuli	Applying language games, role play or singing a song		
		Displaying or setting visual or/and audio teaching media	Could someone fix this picture up on the wall, please? Will you bring me a set of flash cards of food and drink? Now, Look. I've brought some folders of cue cards. Please, could you hang it up here? Can you all see it? Is the picture high enough? Could you give these magazine pictures out please? One each.	Me, Mam. / Sir. Sure. Yes, Sir Yes, Sir. Sure.

			Can you pass these flash cards out please? Two per pair.	I will.
			You're going to hear a dialogue on tape now. See these two people on the picture? Well, we're going to hear them talking about their party. Who can plug the tape recorder in for me?	Me, Sir.
			Peter, could you possibly plug the O.H.P. in, for me? The socket is in the wall near you. Thank you.	Yes, I will.
		Clearing up the teaching media	Would someone take them down now and put them back in the drawer?	Me, Sir.
			I'm going to take it down now and put it on my desk.	
			OK. We've finished with the O.H.P. now. Could someone unplug it, please?	Yes. Me, Mam. / Sir.
			Alright. We don't need the tape recorder anymore. Could someone switch it off at the wall, please?	
7.	Organizing the small group discussion		Now. I'll divide you in half. Which team can answer first?	
			Which team can do it best?	
			Now, to do this, I want you in pairs. In twos, with your neighbour.	
			We're going to work in groups. In fours.	
			Can you get into groups, please? In groups of four.	
			In your groups, you're going to write a short paragraph about	
			I'd like you to practice that dialogue in pairs, so that you all get lots of practice in speaking English.	
			Students on this side, you are group leader. You lead the discussion.	
			OK. Stop now! Let's hear what some of you have done.	
			Stop now, please. Let's hear this group/pair.	
			OK, time is up. Let's hear how you	

			have been getting on.	
8.	Closing / Ending the lesson	Ending the lesson	Well, everyone. Finish the sentence you are writing, then put your pens down. It's time to clear up ..... Come on! Finish now. OK? Just finish the task you're doing and then we'll stop. We'll stop now. You've done enough of that. You've all done that very well. We stop now.	
		Setting homework	At home, do the exercise on page 9. Write it out neatly on paper and give it in tomorrow morning. For homework, I want you to continue with these exercises up to 8. Before next lesson, I want you to read pages 67 to 74 and answer the questions. I'll test you on it on next Tuesday.	

Exercises

After you have practiced the classroom language above, check your learning by doing the exercises below. You could either write the answers down or do this orally.

What could you say to your class if ....

1. you are about to begin taking the register?
2. you think everybody is present but you are not sure?
3. a student has been absent for two weeks and has got behind in his work?
4. you want the class to straighten their desks and generally tidy up?
5. you want a child to clean the blackboard for you?
6. you want to tell to your class what books or materials to bring with them for their next lesson with you?
7. the students can't hear the tape very well?
8. you want someone to plug the tape recorder in for you?
9. one of your students turns round for the third time to chat to the person behind?
10. one of your students keeps falling asleep?
11. you want to tell the class to take a short break?
12. you want to give your students homework?

Appendix 13

Guidelines for assigning AS-units

An AS-unit is "a single speaker's utterance consisting of an independent clause, or sub-clausal unit, together with any subordinate clause(s) associated with either" (Foster, et al., 2000, p.365) so that it can be used to analyse more than a clause. The AS-unit is used here for quantifying the classroom language produced by PSETs and by the pupils.

In Foster, et al.'s (2000, p.365) system, the marker for an AS-unit is a bar (│) (see examples 13, 14, 21 below). The marker like this {…} is used to exclude false starts, functionless   repetitions, and self correction in the unit (see example 37 below).

The following are example of AS-units:

13 .│That's right│ (1 clause, 1 AS-unit)

14 .│Turn left│ (1 clause, 1 AS-unit)

(Foster, et al., 2000, p.365)

21. │I served in an organizational government in Bangladesh :: which is called er department of agricultural extension│ (2 clauses, I AS-unit)

(Foster, et al., 2000, p.366)

37. │ {That's cos} you're saying that :: cos you're a man│ (functionless repetition)

(Foster, et al., 2000, p.368)

Their exception for AS-unit analysis is the topical noun phrase, which is separated from an AS unit. For example in the following clauses

23. │ It is my hope :: to study crop protection│ (2 clauses, 1 AS-unit)

'to study crop protection' cannot be counted as AS-unit since it is part of the previous clause (Foster, et al., 2000, p.366). Coordination is usually considered as one AS-unit, but when there was falling intonation followed by a pause of more than 0.5 second (Foster, et al., 2000, p.367), the pause is considered as a separate AS unit, as in the following example,

25. │and they pinned er a notice to his front :: telling everybody :: what he had done ⋁ (0.5)

│ and marched him around the streets with a gun at his back│

(1 clause, 2 AS-unit)

Finally, interruptions and scaffoldings in consecutive turns can be considered as one AS-unit. As in the following example, speaker A (the learner) had made 2 AS-units, and speaker B (the teacher) made only one AS-unit.

Line 1   A: │ the dog pushed the tree │

    2   │ {the the herd of bees fell} the um │

    3   B: │ hive the hive of bees │

    4   A: hive of bees feel down │

(Foster, et al., 2000, p.369)

In the above example, in line 4, A rephrases the same AS-unit as in line 2. This is not counted as a separate AS unit. At the end of this surface analysis, the number of AS-unit for expressed by the pre-service English teachers and language learners was counted.

Appendix 14

Sample of a lesson analysis

AS-units		Lines	Lesson transcript	Lesson structure	BTS	Intentions	Language other than English	Comments
Ps	T							
	1	*1*	T: |Good afternoon class |	Opening	Opening (Greeting)	Interpersonal : organisation		
1			Ps: |Good afternoon ma'am|					
	1		T: |How are you today class? |					
1			Ps: |Fine, and you? |					
	2	*5*	T: | I'm fine too, thanks. ||{OK,} I'll check the attendance list. |		(Checking attendance)			
	2		T: |{So} who's absent today, class? |What's the matter? |					T sought clarification why this pupil was absent.
1			P1: |Anto|					
	1		T: |What happens with? |					
1			P2: |*Titi sama Tania Ma'am*|				Indonesian	P2 replied in Indonesian to make fun of T since the names mention were the original name of the T
	1	*10*	T: | Er, that's now she can't come here today, but I don't know. |				Indonesian	T made up reasons but in Indonesian, as a respond for Indonesian
	1		|*Kemarin Titi izin saya* |					
1			P3: |*Titi Tania sama Anto janjian ma'am, pasti ke Kenjeran.* |				Indonesian	P3 continued to respond to T in Indonesian, to make fun of her

3	T: |{OK} class eh, eh, eh. | |I see the floor, dirty, {clean.} {OK.} clean? || Look in your floor. |	Organising the class (checking physical conditions of classroom)	Interpersonal : Control	First interview with participant confirm that some of her friends make fun of her though she didn't mind
2	|Please pick the rubbish. ||But before, keep silent please. |			
1	P4: |Dirty ma'am|			

Appendix 15

Sample of analysis of learning journal for the CD unit

Entry	Classroom language expressions:	Lecturer ways of teaching:	Ways of learning the classroom language expressions	Problems	solution
1	Definition of classroom discourse Eight basic teaching skills: Opening lesson, organising class, explaining lesson, asking question, giving reinforcement, varying stimuli, organising small group discussion, and closing lesson	Discussion on the definition Asking to read the eight basic teaching skills in the handout And asking pre-service to practise (role play)	Imagining a class, reading and remembering the basic teaching skills, learning from other teacher's practice	Forgetting the sequence of basic teaching skills	Taking notes on the expression and memorise them
2	Practising eight basic teaching skills: Opening lesson, organising class, explaining lesson, asking question, giving reinforcement, varying stimuli, organising small group discussion, and closing lesson	Demonstration	Volunteering himself to act as teacher (to make him prepared for the future roles as teacher) Listening to university peers' comments	No preparation	Will practise more often
3	For: Opening lesson, organising class, explaining lesson, asking question, giving reinforcement, varying stimuli, organising small group discussion, and closing lesson	Watching previous microteaching videos	Watch video and analyse the teaching skills used by the teacher in the video		
4	To observe the basic teaching skills practised by English teachers in Schools (primary and secondary)	Presentation of classroom observation results	Paying attention to the presentation		
5	To observe the basic teaching skills practised by English teachers in Schools (primary and secondary)	Presentation of classroom observation results	Paying attention to the presentation	Unclear explanation for new teaching techniques in the observed class	
6	To observe the basic teaching skills practised by English teachers in Schools (primary and secondary)	Presentation of classroom observation results	doing presentation	Unclear explanation	

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Appendix 16

Sample of analysis of learning journal for microteaching

Journal entry	Themes	Cross check/comments
PPL I seems to be a great preparation for me before I go to PPL II. In PPL I I was introduced to several basic teaching skills from the opening of the lesson to the closing (I was taught in the lecture of Classroom Discourse).	*Content of PPL 1 unit. PPL 1 unit: basic teaching skills which are also taught in Classroom Discourse unit*	*Check with the interview with lecturers on the contents of PPL 1 and classroom discourse unit*
However, sometimes I feel that PPL I gave me insufficient preparation before I come to PPL II because I have not been prepared with various techniques and method of teaching.	*Opinion: PPL 1 was insufficient to prepare fro practicum. It lacked exposure to teaching methods of English language teaching.*	*Check with the results of analysis on the **inner layers** of the microteaching and practicum lessons*
So far, I merely rely on my own teaching experiences I have got.	*For ideas of teaching techniques, he relied on his own experience teaching.*	*Roles of previous Experience in teaching and self confidence*
There were merely 10 students in our PPL II class. We were required to work together and to prepare microteaching or simulation. We had to make a lesson plan and the script first before we practice our teaching performance. I was glad because I not only worked myself but also with my friends.	*Activities in PPL 1: writing lesson plan, writing lesson script and practise teaching* *He used terms: microteaching OR simulation*	*Heck with his learning journal for classroom discourse unit*
We were also always supervised by our lecturer, Mrs. Esti, so that she would give us some suggestion and corrected some parts of the scene that was not appropriate or needed to be cut. Working in a group made us easier to finish our preparation of micro teaching. I myself got a task to teach in the explanation part. So, at the time I only focused on the language features of the lesson, that is, descriptive text.	*Roles of lecturer in PPL 1 'microteaching': suggest, correct the scene.* *His role in 'microteaching': focusing on the language features of descriptive text*	*Check with participant 2 microteaching lesson 2 on the teaching goal and the **inner** layer of this lesson*
The first assignment from my lecturer was we had to come forward presenting or teaching a lesson. We had to do that twice with different lesson. In this part of the assignment, we collaborated or worked with a partner. Through the assignment, I could be more prepared to apply all of the basic teaching skills that I learn.	Two practices in pairs: he learned to apply the basic teaching skills	**What are actually the basic teaching skills for English language teachers?**

Appendix 17

Sample of analysis of learning journal for practicum

August 24th, 2009	Themes	Comments/cross checks
How did you use the classroom language in your lesson during PPL 2 to encourage pupils to learn English? First of all, I greeted the students by saying "Good morning. How are you today?" and then I checked the attendance list by calling their name one by one. After that, I gave a brainstorming by saying "Did you ever invite someone, for example to your birthday party? Or did you ever make an appointment with your friends? How did you say that?" After I gave the brainstorming, I said "Today, we are going to learn the expressions of making, accepting, and declining an invitation and an appointment." So I asked them to open their book and I began to explain the material. I said "The difference between making an invitation and an appointment is you have to mention the specific time in making an appointment, but in making invitation, you don't have to mention the specific time." Then, we moved on the practices in the book, and I asked them to perform some dialogues and identify the expressions in the dialogues. Besides, I also asked them to complete some dialogues with correct expressions. And they could answer almost all of the questions. After answering the questions, I conducted a group discussion by saying "Make a group consists of 3 – 5 students and make a dialogue based on the situations in your book." But the time was over before they perform the dialogue. So I closed the meeting by saying "OK. The time is over. And you will perform the dialogue tomorrow if we have a time. Any question about the lesson today?" Because they said there was no question, so I said "That's all for today. Thanks for your attention. See you tomorrow."	Structure of lesson: Opening 'Brainstorming' before defining the aims Explaining the material Group discussion Closing Making, accepting, and declining invitation as teaching goal Use of text book as resource to perform some dialogues and identify expressions in the dialogue. Group discussion to write dialogues based on the situation in the text book	This is motivating pupils' to learn or relating to pupils previous knowledge, check with interview with participant 2 on the meaning of brainstorming Use this to confirm the practicum lesson Check the definition of 'group discussions here'. Is it group work or what?
How did your pupils respond to your classroom language use? In this meeting, I felt that the students were more silent than usual. But they were still active to respond my words. They replied my greeting by saying "Good morning. I'm fine. Thank you. And you?" And when I did the brainstorming, one of the students answered my question in doubt. She said "Uhm… I will say 'Would you come to…'" After that, when I explained the material about the difference in making an invitation and appointment, the students could understand it because when we entered the "Asking questions" session, they could answer all of the questions. For example when I asked them to practice some dialogues, I asked them what expressions they can find in the dialogues. And then they answered "This sentence is the expression of making invitation. And this sentence is the expressions of making appointment." Then I asked "How do	The pupils were unusually silent.	This can be a reason why the pupils talk was very low or because there were intruders in the class

you know that?" and they answered "Because in this sentence there is no specific time, and there is a specific time in this sentence." After giving questions, I asked them to make a dialogue in group of 3 – 5 students. But there was a student said "6 boleh pak?" and the other said "Waktunya hampir habis." Some students looked lazy to make a group because the time was almost over, so I had to force them to discuss and make a dialogue. After that, because the time was almost over, I asked them to stop the discussion and back to their sit. Then, I asked them if they had questions about today's lesson, but they said "No, sir." So I closed the meeting and they replied "See you."

Do you feel that you have used classroom language effectively during PPL 2? I think the classroom language in this meeting is not really success because the time for group discussion was not enough and they were also had no time to perform the dialogue they have discussed. But on the other hand, at least they could understand the material that I have given, and they could also answer the questions about the material.

The pupils were mindful of the time as if there were waiting for the class to finish

Opinion: unsuccessful classroom language use

Check his open letter about BULLYING he got from the pupils

Appendix 18

Sample of implementation of English expressions

Opening the lesson: greeting

Handouts	Learning journals of CD unit	Microteaching	Practicum	Commentary	**Crosscheck LJ of PLL 1 and Practicum**
Good morning, everybody		Good morning class? (4,mtc1) (6,Mtc1)	So. OK. good morning everybody (1,Pr)	*Slight modification from the expression in the handouts*	
			OK. good morning (2, Pr)	*The main part 'good morning' is the same*	(1, Lj Pr1) (3, Lj Pr1) (3, Lj Pr2) (3, Lj Pr3) (4, Lj Pr1) (4, Lj Pr2) (4, Lj Pr3) 1st Inter lecturer , 1st inter pset2, 1st inter pset4 , 1st inter pset7
			Good Morning students (7,Pr) Good morning class? (3,Pr) (4,Pr) Morning class (5,Pr)		
OTHER	Assalamu alaikum wr wb (5, Lj)		Assalamualaikum warahmatullahi wabarakatuh (1, Pr) (5,Pr) (7,Pr)	*This Islamic greeting was implemented by 3 PSETs only in practicum*	
Good afternoon, class.	Good afternoon, class. (3,6,7 Lj)	Good afternoon, class. (2, Mtc1) (3, Mtc1)			(3, Lj Pr2)
How are you all today?	How are you all today? (3,6,7 Lj)	How are you today? (2,Mtc1) (1,Mtc1) (6,Mtc1)	How are you today? (3, Pr) (4,Pr) (5,Pr) (6,Pr)	*Almost no modification from the expressions in the handouts*	(3, Lj Pr1) (3, Lj Pr2) (3, Lj Pr3) (4, Lj Pr1) (4, Lj Pr2) (4, Lj Pr3)
How are you?	How are you today? (6, Lj)	How are you today class? (3,Mtc1)			

Appendix 19

Sample of analysis of interview with lecturer

Interview transcript	themes	Comments/cross checks
Me: Esti can you tell me the classroom language you teach pre-service English teachers? E: In classroom language discourse I taught several languages. OK classroom discourse is a course, is an obligatory course before the students have the real practice in the class in the classroom, in many schools in Surabaya or in East Java.	*Classroom discourse is obligatory unit before PSETs do practicum at schools*	**Explanation:** *Classroom language introduced to PSETs in a unit called Classroom Discourse*
Me: Is that PPL 1 or classroom discourse? E: Classroom discourse is obligatory course before the students take PPL 1, before the students take PPL 2, I am sorry.	*Definition:* *Classroom discourse is obligatory unit before PSETs do practicum at schools or PPL 2*	**Place of CD unit in the program** *But this information is contradictory to the curriculum 2006 statement. According to the curriculum of that program, the classroom discourse unit is an optional unit for PSETs to support their main competency as teachers.* Mata Kuliah Classroom Discourse termasuk mata kuliah pilihan dalam bidang Keahlian pengajaran di bawah Kompetensi Pendukung (p. 208-209)
Me: What's the objective of classroom discourse unit? E: There are several, there are some objectives for this course. The first one the students are able to identify or to understand or comprehend 8 basic teaching skills, and then the second one, the students are able to identify and mention some expressions used during the teaching and learning process. And the third one or the last is the students are able to apply the real practice, teaching practice, in the form of simulation by using those expressions that are usually used in classroom when they are teaching something. Me: Tell me about the expressions E: Actually there are eight basic teaching skills. And each basic teaching skill has different languages. For example the first one, in opening the lesson, the teacher are usually saying good morning, or greeting or something like that. And then what is it, calling the students' name, and then checking the attendance list and then checking the class condition.	**Explanation:** *the objectives of classroom discourse unit: Identification of eight basic teaching skills* *Identification of expressions used to accompany the eight basic teaching skills* *Applying the eight basic teaching skills and their accompanying expressions in teaching practice* **Explanation:** *(nature of classroom language)* *Classroom language expressions are based on the eight basic teaching skills. These expressions are used to accompany the basic teaching skills, which include*	**Meaning:** *curriculum understood differently, or lecturer doesn't read curriculum, or lecturer has her own objectives for introducing the classroom discourse unit Contrast with this: The intention of the curriculum is that the classroom discourse unit will train the PSETs to use scaffolding talk when they teach English in the class as mentioned in the curriculum (2006) below.* **08414216 Classroom Discourse** Deskripsi: Kompetensi Keterampilan penggunaan *scaffolding talk* selama proses belajar mengajar bahasa inggris berlangsung di

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In checking the attendance list the teacher can say, is everybody here? Or anybody absent here and anybody absent today, like that. And then checking the class condition, please straightening the class, straightening your chair. And then is the air condition on? Like that, something like that. That is for opening the lesson. and the second one is organizing the class. Organising the class is also similar in opening the lesson, in organizing the class there are some subskills. The first one is checking the class condition, and then checking the physical students, the physical classroom and the others and then the third one is explaining the lesson or learning materials. The expressions used in this skill is for example, ok class could open your book page bla bla bla. And then the fourth one, asking question, asking question is given when the lesson materials are already explained by the teacher for example in my lesson on that day. for example, I taught descriptive text for example, and then after I explained the materials to the students I ask one of the students like this, ok can you mention the generic structure of or recount text. Can you….

Me: Did you ask your students (PSETs) to demonstrate the expression or perform?

E: What do you mean by demonstrate? I demonstrate the questions. And then one of the students answer the question and then the fifth one giving the reinforcement can be done by giving "good, very good, thank you". Those are the language expressions to give reinforcement. And then number six, varying stimuli. Varying stimuli is like time killer. Time killer ya. So I can give what is it, games and then songs, puzzles, riddles, like that and then. the seventh is organising the small group discussion. There are language expressions here is like OK class I divide you into several groups and I will give you exercises. Some exercises. Please in the group share or discuss about bla bla bla. For closing is times up. I am sorry. OK before ending the lesson, do you have any difficulties about this lesson. And then if the students already understand about my lesson, so I end the lesson. By saying OK time is up, please prepare page bla bla at home and then we discuss it next week. That's all.

(with examples exactly like the classroom discourse unit handouts)
-opening lesson
-organising the class
-explaining the lesson
-asking question

How she taught? BY DEMONSTRATION: She asked question and the pre-service teacher answer her question

kelas.
Disdasmen. 2004. ungkapan-ungkapan bahasa inggris untuk tujuan pengajaran. Jakarta: Depdiknas.
How did the lecturer conceive of the above curriculum intention?

Presentation of classroom language expressions
Explanation: Her explanation matches her classroom discourse unit syllabus. The classroom language expressions she mentioned also quoted the examples in the handouts of the unit, which is taken from Willis (1981).
Meaning: Using scaffolding talk as the intention of the curriculum is understood as using classroom language expressions to accompany the eight basic teaching skills. Are these teaching skills basic skills for English teachers? the above explanation: gave A CERTAIN LESSON STRUCTURE for PSETs to follow language lesson starts with explanation followed by questions and practice
seems to follow: Presentation, Question, Practice pattern of grammar teaching.

Me: Did you teach the PSETs the expression to support the students' learning for example when the students produce improper use of language do you also teach them to respond to them.

E: Yes of course. So I give feedback to them when they use improper language Me: Did you teach them how to handle such an error?
E: What do you mean by error?
Me: Of course when they're teaching in school they usually face students who produce improper use of language. Do you also teach these PSETs how to handle such error?
E: Yes, for example in reading text. I ask one of my students, I am as the teacher, I ask one of my students to read the text loudly. And then if he or she mispronounce or miss with one word or several words in reading text, I did not correct him or her directly but I'll let him/her finish the reading and I give the best correct pronunciation.
Me: Please tell me how you train them? The process of training them to be able to use productive classroom language.
E: The process? The activity during my lesson?
Me: Yeah, the main activities, overall, can you tell me. In general.
E: OK. Classroom discourse, from the beginning I give the review or BCO review about this course and then after that in the second meeting. And in the third meeting I give explanation about language discourse or classroom discourse. And then after I give explanation to them and then I ask some of them to practice in front of the class to be a teacher. And then the others are students and then in the next meeting I ask them to observe the teacher, real teacher in the real classroom in the schools and then after observing teacher in the classroom

She also gave feedback for their practice. Thus the lesson structure will be like: Presentation, Question, Practice pattern, Evaluation/feedback.

she gave demonstration to PSETs on how to give feedback when PSETs teach

Presentation of classroom language expressions

classroom discourse unit was conducted by: Explanation Direction to practice (by themselves) English lesson observation task/assignment

Presentation of classroom language expressions
Confirmed by participants' learning journals of CD unit

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Appendix 20

Sample of analysis of interview with PSETs

Interview transcript (third interview, PSET 1)	*Themes*	*Comments/cross checks*
Me: Please tell me what you have learnt during PPL 2 in SMK 2 Probolinggo S: Well, honestly I'd like to say learnt so much, so many things. Maybe it is could be one of the greatest experience in my life. And yes honestly I learn so much things. For example, the way to control the students, the way to active in the school. Becoming a teacher is not only teaching but also having some making some extra curricular. Making some other events in the school. So just being a teacher or being an educational struggler is just so nice. That's I learn in PPL 2. And also the way to manage my time I was prepared everything for my my students, the materials for the next day. The materials for the next lesson. I always have to give the best for the students. That is why I always have to prepare everything very nicely before I really teach the students.	Things learnt in practicum: • Controlling class • Stimulating class • additional English class • preparing learning materials	Learning TEACHING AND SOCIALISING
Me: You mention managing the classroom, controlling the classroom. Are these the only teaching skills that you learn during PPL 2? S: Well I don't think so. I mean that's one of them maybe, controlling the class, the way how to give the materials as clear as possible and as effective as possible and also as interesting as possible. The way to make them really eager to follow our class. For example, what I've learnt in SMK 2, I only teach the second grade students. Unfortunately they really have no desire in learning English before. So that is why first of all I have to give them motivation such motivation and then giving motivation, giving such as game, giving how to make the English lesson is as interesting as possible, as fun as possible. Finally at the end of the class, they always say that 'oh, the class is very interesting. From right now on, I like English' they say like that. I am very happy for that.	More things learnt: • Delivering lesson interestingly He is satisfied with the pupils' increasing motivation	Motivations for pupils
Me: So that's your main skills that you develop in PPL 2? S: Yes, Me: What other things than giving motivation? The teaching language skills, what have you learnt? S: Well first of all, when we talk about how to teach, for example, here English is a foreign language for them. For example I really have to tell them what is the purpose of the language. And then what is the purpose of the language for the life for the future. And then how to make them really think that this language is important for them. Without thinking this is important, I am sure that they won't have any interest to learn about that.	More things learnt: Motivating pupils to learn English through success story and language games/songs	

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Appendix 21

Extracts #1 up to #21 containing three kinds of scaffolding

Extract 1

T: OK. Now before you apply or you propose to be a swimming

trainer, what did you do? How do you apply a CV or something?

What did you use?

40 P5: A letter.

T: What? Send letter? What kind of the letter?

P3: Application

Extract 2

T: So, before that I ask you about hobbies. Do you have any hobbies?

Ps: Yes. Many.

T: Yes

45 P6: I like fighting sir.

Extract 3

T: Thank you (P5). OK, now, OK. I think you, all of you, ever go to er maybe go with

another people and meet friend, unfamiliar person maybe. OK, what you choose to do?

P5: Greeting.

25 T: OK, greeting, and then you

P2: Ask the name

T: Ask the name OK.

Extract 4

T: Please be quiet. OK, ehm, now, ehm, today we will study about suggestion. So,

ehm, who can mention the expression of suggestion?

Ps: No.

5 T: Come on just try.

P1: You should.

T: You should.

Extract 5

25 T: To rephrase to give advice. OK, now, I get some problem I get a sore

throat, so please give me advice or suggest. What should I do. Use these

expressions and make a sentence example I give you. OK, (P5), ya.

P5: You should not talk too much maam.

Extract 6

  T: <u>Mention what is needed to be shown in front of the employer?</u>

  P6: Gender

  T: Ehm. Sorry. <u>Your job.</u>

25 P6: Experience working

  Ps: Working experience.

  P7: Working sir, *ada workingnya*.

Extract 7

  T: Please. OK. You, accepting.

  P7: No you can't.

  T: <u>With a question.</u>

  P7: Can I yell in a class?

30 T: OK, no more.

Extract 8

  T: <u>OK, tell me about Madura that you know,</u> *yang kamu tahu.* <u>Come on. Tell me about</u>

120 <u>Madura that you know, based on your experience.</u> *Berdasarkan pengalaman kamu,*

  <u>Yeah.</u>

  P11: *Kuda-kudaan*. (horse racing)

  T: <u>OK, horse? In Madura, there is what? There is what?</u> *Ada apa sih* (name of Pupil 13),

  <u>(name of Pupil 13). You said that you've been to Madura right?</u> (what is in it (Madura?)

125 P13: Many times.

  T: <u>Oh, many times. So, tell me about Madura. OK, On time OK, that's the</u>

  <u>language.OK, but that's not the problem, OK. Here, I have the icon of Madura, Ok.</u> *Ikon*

130 *nya Madura,* <u>OK. Icons of Madura island. You wanna see? You wanna see? The first,</u>

  <u>the first</u> *apa*? (what?)

  Ps: *Itu kerapan sapi, kerapan sapi. Sapi, Karapan sapi pak, karapan sapi.* (That's bull

  race. Bull. Bull race, sir)

Extract 9

370 *Ke gambar lagi ya.* OK. OK so the first one, *yang pertama tadi apa?*

  Yang pertama tadi apa? (Back to the picture. What is the first picture about?)

  P13: *Karapan sapi*

  T: <u>Bull race, bull race.</u> *Kita ngomong yang bulls aja,* <u>the bulls,</u>

  <u>the bulls, OK. Strong big dangerous.</u> *Yang mana yang duluan?*

375 *Yang duluan yang mana?* (we talked about the bull. Which (adjective) comes first?)

  P14: Big, big.

T: Strong? *Sebentar, strong itu apa? Strong, kuat. Itu termasuk*
apa, description, age, color, atau apa? Ya, description. what
about big? Big.
(Wait a second, what category is strong? is It categorised as description age colour or other? Yeah, description.)

Extract 10

T: Wonderful, long long, size, OK. OK size. And then
wonderful. Description, strong. Description, silver colour. So
420   which one comes first? Wonderful strong?
P14: Strong long
T: Silver Suramadu bridge, iya. Excellent ya, *bagus ya*. It means
you understand. *Ngerti ya?* (Got it?)
Ps: *Ngerti* (Got it?)

Extract 11

100   Read. How about *sampah* (garbage)? *Baca dulu* (Read first)
P7: what about recycling
T: how about, how about, what about or how about recycling the
garbage? Proposing or giving instruction? OK, *nunggu spidol*? (waiting for a board marker)
OK, thank you. Ok ya. Thank you. (to the pupil who gave a board marker)
105   P7: *recycling itu apa*? (what is recycling?)
T: Recycling *daur ulang. Mendaur ulang*. (Recycling is to re-use. Reusing)
P7: *Yah bener berarti.* (so, I am right)

Extract 12

P3: Application
T: OK, so if you wanna get a job, you need to write a letter.
And after that you will get interview. And in that interview
45   session, you have have something to sell them. I mean to
show your ability to make you, to make your manager er er
your your boss know your ability.
So what sheet is that?
P6: Curriculum vitae
50   T: Oh, OK that's right, resume. Resume. OK. That's right.
what different between resume and CV? OK so the topic
for today we'll talk about resume and how to make it.

Extract 13

110   P10: And the last may be only additional info.

T: Yes, obviously. OK class, actually the structure of descriptive text is divided into two parts, identification and description. The identification part is the part where a writer of descriptive text identifies the phenomenon to be

115   described. Usually, the things mentioned in the paragraph are the name, profession, or something to open the text.The description part describes physical appearance, characteristics, and others. And what tense does the writer use?

Ps: Simple present.

Extract 14

T: OK that's enough. Tobacco garden ya. Next we go to the traditional food of madura. OK.

Ps: *Enak, enak, pak* (yummy, sir)

T: Yeah. What is *enak* in English?

230   P14: Good, good.

T: Nice, delicious, OK. Delicious, what else? Delicious

Extract 15

P1: Send a card to my birthday party.

25   T: Pardon, send a card? What if you say immediately meet your friend. Face to face OK? may be you just send a card? OK. And what if you meet someone at a some place maybe, what will you say to your friend, to meet someone?

P1: Say,

30   T: Say what, say hello? Just say hello? If you want to meet your friend may be. If you want to go to plaza or a mall with your friends, maybe. What will you say?

Extract 16

P5: switch on the lamp.

T: switch on the lamp, proposing or giving example? One of them OK. Not both of them. *Yeah kenapa?* (why?)

80   P4: I don't understand

Extract 17

        T: OK Guys, have you finished your work?

        Ps: Yes (Chorus)

        T: Well. OK, Guys, have you finished your work?

200   Ps: *Iya*, sir, very sleepy.

        T: <u>Ok, Now if you're happy and you know you clap your hands.</u>

        (T and Ps sing and clap hands together)

        T & Ps: <u>If you're happy and you know it tap your feet.</u>

        (T and Ps tapped their feet on the floor)

Extract 18

        P11: I, got, I get nothing.

115   T: Thank you, ehm, OK. Afif, Afif, what have you got Afif?

        <u>So, you can say, no body</u>

        P11: Yeah, nobody likes this picture.

Extract 19

        P4(Raising hand): Maam how to say *"dekik"* in English

        T: <u>Dimple ,</u> (P4)

305   P12: *Ndeso rek* (ashamed villagers)

        P4: *Emang you tahu* (Do you know that?)

Extract 20

140   T: OK, repeat once more. <u>I want to</u>

        P5: I want to complain about you sir

        (Ps laughing)

        T: *yeah terus* (Yeah, then)

        P5: your speak

        T: <u>you speak</u>

145   P5: you speak slowly

Extract 21

165   P6: because

        T: because, OK. Let me help you

        P6: because you teach

        T: <u>because you teach,</u> come on.

        P6. Because your make to teach

170 T: <u>because the way to teach</u>

P6: the way to teach is low

T: what do you mean? Too slow

P6: *terlalu pelan* (too slow)

Appendix 22

A. Example of a microteaching lesson (Lesson segment #1)

Lines	Classroom language	Lesson Structure	BTSs	Intentions
1	T: *Assalamualaikum warahmatullahi wabarakatuh* Ps: *Waalaikum salam warahmatullahi wabarakatuh* T: {Yeah. OK. OK.} How are you today? Ps: I'm fine (Chorus)	Opening lesson	Opening lesson (Greeting)	Interpersonal (organisation)
5	T: Just fine? We are in SMK, so {for SMK that} after you have graduate from this school you have you to get a job. And then it is success. {So} when I ask you how are you today, you say success. Ps: Success T: {OK.} And I want you to show {your} your punch.		(Stimulating pupils' motivation to learn)	Interpersonal: motivational Interpersonal: motivational
10	{OK,} how are you today? Ps: Success T: {OK}. Thank you very much. {OK} it's a very nice today. It wasn't rain today, isn't it? P1: It wasn't			Interpersonal: motivational
15	T: But yesterday, we have a heavy rain. {OK. OK,} Now who is absent today? Ps: Shobi T: Shobi? P2: *Shobi itu nakal pak. Ia bolos pulang ke Jogja* (Shobi is naughty. He went home to Jogja)		(Checking attendance)	Interpersonal: organisational
20	T: {OK,} {So.} Yayuk absent too, why? Ps: She is going with Shobi, Sir T: Oh my God. That's not very nice T: {OK student. OK.} {Now.} {well.} The class is very clean but oh come on. Who get the picket today?		Organising the class (checking physical conditions of classroom)	Interpersonal: organisational Interpersonal: control
25	{OK} Guys come to clean it {come on.} (A student cleaned the board) {OK.} while Intan clean the white board, now I gonna ask you. {Oh} Have some of you got some job? {Usually job, any job?} P1: No T: {No?} none of you?	Explaining lesson	(Getting the board organised) Explaining the lesson (talking about the lesson)	Pedagogical: interactive
30	P3: No T: None of you have job? P4: *Dada {dada}* (Chest. Chest) T: What *dada-dada* mean? P4: Swimming trainer			
35	T: Swimming trainer. {Oh}, that's right, very quick. T: {OK}. Now before you apply or you propose to be a swimming trainer, what did you do? How do you apply a CV or something?			

	What did you use?	
40	P5: A letter	
	T: What? Send letter? What kind of the letter?	
	P3: Application	Pedagogical: informative
	T: {OK, so} if you wanna get a job, you need to write a letter.	
	And after that you will get interview. And in that interview session,	
45	you {have} have something to sell them. I mean to show	
	your ability {to make you}, to make your manager {er er} {your} your boss know your ability.	
	So what sheet is that?	Pedagogical: interactive
	P6: Curriculum vitae	
50	T: {Oh, OK} that's right, resume. {Resume, OK,} that's right.	
	What different between resume and CV? {OK so} the topic	Pedagogical: informative
	for today we'll talk about resume and how to make it.	

Note: This microteaching was done at campus where the pupils were the peers of the PSET who played teacher's role in this transcript. There were nine PSETs who took pupils role in this transcript. This microteaching lesson was planned to introduce how to write a resume in English for vocational high school students. The length of the lesson is 4 minutes.

B. Example of a practicum lesson (Lesson data #18)

lines	Classroom language	Lesson Structure	BTSs	Intentions
1	T: {OK}, good morning Ps: Morning sir. T: How are you? How are you today? Ps: Fine thanks, and you?	**Opening**	Opening lesson (greeting)	Interpersonal: organisation
5	T: I am fine too. Come on have a seat. *{Duduk,} duduk.* Sit down please. {Yeah yeah OK.} Well, we meet again right. *Kita ketemu lagi ya.* For the next meeting. *Untuk pertemuan selanjutnya*. OK for the next meeting. *Saya akan mengajar kamu.* I will teach you. Not Ms. Zakia not Ms. Novita.		Organising the class (checking physical conditions of classroom)	Interpersonal: control Pedagogical: informative
10	P1: Very important for me. T: Very important? Why? *Kenapa*? P1: I love for you. I love for you. T: *Wah, wah {OK.}* Now take a look at under your desk. *Lihat* *lihat. Dibawah mejamu lihat*. Oh it's dirty. Come on take, {take,}.			Interpersonal (organisation)
15	*{Ambil} ambil.* Take the rubbish and put the garbage. Take the garbage, P2: *Pak pak, mana oleh-olehnya?* T: *Ga ga tau. Ga piket?* P1: Anything for you			
20	T: {OK} listen to me. I'd like to check the attendance, please. *Ini kelas sepuluh tari satu ya?* {OK.} Bella. Where is bella? P3: *Pergi pak. Saudaranya ada yg meninggal. Tak tahu kenapa.* T: OK, *pergi ya.* Where is Bella? *Kemana Bella?* P3: *Pergi pak*		Organising the class (Checking attendance)	
25	T: *Pergi kemana?* P3: *Ke rumah saudaranya. Saudaranya meninggal. Tak tahu kenapa.* T: She's going to relative. P3: *Tak tahu*			
30	T: **Relative** *itu saudara*. **Ya** relative *itu saudara* P4: <u>*Kulo mboten ngertos eh pak*</u> T: OK, Binti, Binti ? Oh, Dian, Dian, OK. (P4 raising her hand) (T continues checking attendance) (after 2 minutes) T: and the last is Yuniarti. Where is Yuniarti? (the related pupil raised her hand). So, all of you are here except Bella yeah? Ps: Ya			
35	T: Have you got the letter? *Suratnya ada*? P5: *Ndak. Suratnya nyusul.* T: One question for you? What did we discuss last week? *Kemarin kita bahas apa?* P5: *Kemarin kita bahas* **simple present tense** T: Simple present tense {OK.} How far? *Sampe mana sih?*		Opening lesson (Stimulating pupils' motivation to	Pedagogical: interactive

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40   P5: *Sampai itu pak, pertanyaan* **negative** *sama positive, sampai sini lho*   learn)
(pointing to one page in textbook)
T: OK

P4: *Kulo mboten mbeto*

T: Would you like to come forward?

P5: *Apa pak?*

45   T: *Ingin ke depan?* Write the answer. Come on. It's OK.

P5: *Bapak eeh, nulis apa pak?*

T: Come on write it down. It's OK. Come on.

P5: *Coba ya pak*

50   T: It's ya, if you wanna try. *Kalau mau mencoba ga pa-pa*. It's OK.

P5: ehhm (complaining)

T: *Ini kan PR ya.* Have you done your homework. *Ini kan PR.*

You homework. Have you done?

P6: *Ga ada PR*

55   T: *Itu lho positif negatif.*

P5 and P6: *Ini lho*

T: Come on

P7: *Siapa yg maju satu lagi*

T: *Binti, binti,* you wanna try binti. Where is your homework?

60   *Binti PR-nya mana?*

61   P8: *Ini lho, kurang banyak*

(pause 1 minute)

(Ps laughing)

P9: *Tepak rong dina ga mlaku-mlaku.*

T: Hayati, Hayati, are you fasting?

65   P10: *Apa?*

T: *Puasa gak?*

P10: *Ndak pak, ngomong opo?*

T: Get used to using capital letter, *ya. Biasakan menggunakan*

capital letter in the beginning of sentence. *Di permulaan kalimat.*

70   (Ps talking to each other in Javanese and Indonesian in

1 minutes)

T: OK one more question. Come on. Interrogative. Come on.

Maju aja ga pa-pa.

P11: *Aku aja*

75   T: You're so kind yeah. *Ini sudah dikerjain nggak?*

P11: *Apa? Dikerjain?*

T: *Ini sudah dikerjain nggak? Ini belum?*

P10: *Gak tahu aku kan gak masuk*

P11: (pointing to the pages in the textbook) *Ini belum di bahas blas.*

80   *Mek iki thok. Fiyan, fiyan. Belum belum belum. Ini juga*

belum belum. Belum belum belum sampai terakhir ini.

T: *Ini practise aja, OK, pertemuan selanjutnya saja. Sekarang describing*

P10: *Alhamdulilah*

85 T: OK. OK, Ok let's discuss right. *Positifnya ya*. We always
study in the class. Just that? I don't think so. We always study
in this class. We don't always what? We don't always study in
this class. We don't always? We don't always study in this class.
OK. Do we always study in this class? OK next.

90 P11: *Sori pak, ya ampun*

T: My mom usually cooks in the morning. My mom doesn't
usually cook in the morning. Does my mom usually cooks. Oh,
with –s? No, I don't think so. Yeah, so. Any questions for your
homework? *Ada pertanyaan untuk PR kamu.*

95 P10: Tidak

T: OK, it's clear right? *Yeah, bisa kalau di pronoun*. It's OK.
Alright, but today we are not going to talk about simple present
tense anymore. *Kita tidak akan ngomong tentang* **simple present**

100 **tense *saja***. OK, but, today we are going to talk about description.

Ps: What?

T: OK. Describing things, {describing things.} *Menggambarkan*
things. There is decribing people and describing things, OK.
Kan, ada menggambarkan orang trus menggambarkan sesuatu

105 ***atau benda***. OK, but today only things, describe, describing
things. OK, I have questions for you. *Saya punya pertanyaan ya*?

P10: *Ya.*

T: Have you been to madura, madura yeah? Have you been to

110 Madura? Pernah ke Madura?

P4: *Saya pernah pak,*

T: *Pernah, pernah, OK.*

P5: *Tapi sekali pak. Berdiri saja, Suramadu.*

T: But only once, eh you've been to madura?

115 P6: *Pernah pak, saya pernah ke Madura.*

T: *Pernah ke Madura?* Tell me about Madura, tell me about
Madura. OK.

P10: *Meduro jowo.*

T: OK, tell me about Madura that you know *yang kamu tahu.*

120 Come one. Tell me about Madura that you know, based on your
experience. *Berdasarkan pengalaman kamu,* yeah.

P11: *Kuda-kudaan.*

T: OK, horse? In Madura, there is what? {There is what?} *Ada apa sih*
Ningrum, Ningrum. You said that you've been to Madura right?

125 P13: Many times.

T: Oh, many times. So tell me about madura. OK, on time OK,
that's the language. OK but that's not the problem, OK. Here, I
have the icon of Madura, OK. *Ikonnya Madura.* OK. Icons of

Explanat-ion	Explaining the lesson or learning materials	Pedagogical: informative and interactive
		Pedagogical: informative
		Pedagogical: interactive

Madura island. You wanna see? {You wanna see?}

130   The first, the first *apa*?

Ps: ***Itu kerapan sapi, kerapan sapi. Sapi. Kerapan sapi pak,***

kerapan sapi.

T: OK, what is that in English? {English?}

Ps: Cow kerapan

135   T: That's bull, {bull. Ok that's bull.} Not cow, {OK, bull.} Bull is the

male *yang jantan namanya* bull**,** bull. Cow the race?

Ps: ***Pak (name of the teacher), dua kali saya karapan.***

T: So, the first picture?

Ps: Bull race

140   T: Bull race OK, bull race. That's bull race, OK. The second, the

second, I've got the second picture.

Ps: ***Itu ada pak.***

T: What is that? What is that picture? The second picture?

Ps: ***Tanaman, bayem, bayem.***

145   T: No, no. It's for smoking, cigarette, cigarette. Cigarette, for

cigarette.

Ps: ***Tembakau***

T: Iya. What is that in English? Tobacco, alright, tobacco. Tobacco,

but it's the tobacco, it's a garden, tobacco garden.

150   Next, next, wow wow traditional food.

Ps: ***Sate, sate, apal.***

T: Yeah, its' a it's a traditional food of Madura. Yeah, satay, OK.

Ps: Satay, satay

T: And the last, the last, yeah, everybody knows that, OK.

155   It's a bridge. Suramadu bridge, OK.

P10: ***Omahku neng dhuwure*** (laughing)

T: We comeback to bull race. We come back to bull race. How

many bull race, {how many bull race are there}? Two ya

Ps: Two

160   T: OK two. So come on, describe the bull. Come on, describe the

bulls. ***Gambarkan sapinya kaya gimana nih?*** OK

P11: ***Sapinya galak, trus.***

T: From the colours, from the colours?

P11: ***Sapinya galak****,* colors?

165   T: Colors? You see yeah, it's brown OK?

P12: Brown

T: Brown, brown. OK. And then what? What? What else? Brown OK.

Come on, come on. More more. Tell me more about

the bull. ***Tentang sapinya.***

170   P13: ***<u>Sapine</u>*** male

T: Of course bull is male. Come on, come on. What else? What

else?

P13: *Lari-lari*

T: Are they strong enough? Strong?

175   P13: *Kuat*

Ps: Yes, yes.

T: Strong,

P14: *Apa itu pak?*

T: Strong, strong, *kuat*. OK, it's not weak right? They're not

180   weak. *Tidak lemah.* Yes, OK, what else? Brown, and then

strong, and then what else? Come on. The bulls, the bulls,

come on.

P12: *Besar, besar*

P13: Big

185   T: Big? big, OK. What else? Come on, come on. What else?

OK, do you think the bulls are dangerous? *Berbahaya ya?*

Dangerous? Yeah it's dangerous. Dangerous, it's dangerous,

OK.

P13: *Takut pak*

190   P14: <u>*Sapiku nang Meduro*</u>

T: *Ya, ya, ya,* that's enough. *Ya udah ya uda,.* OK. Dark brown.

Ok listen to me. Dark brown. *Kita punya* **brown,** *coklat,* OK.

And then, strong, OK, strong, OK. And then, big. They are not

small right. OK, what else?

195   P14: Dangerous

T: It's dangerous. They are dangerous. *Jika tertabrak nanti yeah.*

Fast, OK. We go to tobacco. The next picture. OK, tobacco

garden, OK.

P14: *Itu pak tembakau*

200   T: OK tobacco garden. How do you say about the picture?

P13: *Apa itu?*

T: Tell me about the picture. Big?

P13: Yeah

T: No, we talk about the garden. *Kita berbicara tentang*

205   *gardennya,* OK. Garden

P16: *Luas*

T: OK, large. Good.

P16: *Indah*

T: Yeah. Beautiful, OK

210   P16: Wonderful

T: *Iya,* **beautiful, wonderful** *bisa.*

P16: *Hijau*

T: Green, green OK. Completely green, OK.

P14: *Hijau besar*

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T: Try to speak in English. Try to speak in English. *Iya, coba*

216 *dikit aja*. OK, *hijau itu apa?*

Ps: Green

T: Green. OK. What else, come on. We got large OK, large

garden OK. And then beautiful. OK and then green. What else?

What can you say from the picture. Come on, yeah.

221 P16: Hygiene

T: Hygiene? What is that hygiene? Ehm, come on what else?

Apa lagi? Apa lagi? Ningrum, Ningrum, maybe, tell me about

tobacco garden.

225 P7: *Ga niat iki*

T: OK that's enough. Tobacco garden ya. Next we go to the

traditional food of madura. OK.

Ps: *Enak, enak, pak*

T: Yeah. What is *enak* in English?

230 P14: Good, good.

T: Nice, delicious, OK. Delicious, what else? Delicious

P13: *Dibakar, gosong*

T: **Burn,** *ya?* Yes, delicious

P13: *Pak dibakar apa?*

235 T: Burn, OK. No no no, what else? What else? *OK, bisa*

delicious.

P13: **Sweet,** *manis, kerasa*

T: OK do you think the meat the meat is small or big? *Besar?*

P13: *Besar*

240 T: Big. OK. *Gambarnya satenya besar OK.* Yeah Big. But not

traditional but not sate in Pamekasan or sumenep. It's smaller

Ps: *<u>Mosok</u>?*

T: No, no no. I'm not Madurese. I'm not Madurese, *saya bukan*

orang Madura. Yeah it's OK. What about the color? The

245 colour?

Ps: Brown

T: Brown, OK. It's black, brown and black, brown. OK, that's

enough? *Cukup?*

Ps: *Cukup*

250 T: OK and the last. The better bridge, it's new, it has just been

complete. I mean the construction site. *Situsnya, jembatan ini*

sudah diselesaikan OK. Pembangunannya OK, so

P13: Long, long

T: Long OK,

255 P14: Big, big, beautiful

T: Do you think it's a beautiful bridge?

P14: *Kuat kuat*

T: Wonderful bridge? It's wonderful bridge *ya?* Wonderful

Bridge. *Menakjubkan OK*. Ehm

260 P14: Strong, strong

T: Strong. OK completely strong. What else? what else?

P14: Ehm, *opo yo?*

T: Come on, come on.

P10: Tall

265 T: What about the colour?

Ps: Blue

T: Blue? It's the sea and the sky blue.

Ps: *Ada merahnya*

T: No, no, *jalannya aja.*

270 P13: *Abu-abu*

P14: *Yo dalane abu-abu*

T: Maybe maybe, silver **ya**? silver?

P14: Silver

T: *Ya anggap saja silver OK*. Silver, silver ehm. OK, that's

275 enough. You just describe things ya. *Kamu baru saja*

menggambarkan sesuatu. So you can describe bull race and

then tobacco, and then satay Ok and then Suramadu bridge. My

question now is, *pertanyaan saya sekarang adalah. OK yang*

dibelakang. Pertanyaan saya sekarang adalah, what is the

280 Adjective? adjective? **Adjective** *itu semua kan* **adjective kan?** *Kata*

sifat. OK, **ada brown**, strong big dangerous, wonderful

Delicious. What if they are combined, *mereka digabung* **in one**

phrase? *Dalam satu frase, menjadi apa?*

Ps: *Kata sifat*

285 T: No, no. *Seperti ini ya*, **wonderful big green garden**, *kalau*

didefinisikan menjadi kebun tembakau yang hijau indah dan

besar. Ya that's in bahasa Indonesia. What about in English?

Ps: *Tembakau*

T: **Tobacconya** *kan dibelakang*, OK. Yes, what is it, what is it?

290 Yeah, which one is it? Which one comes first? *Yang mana yang*

 duluan? Erhm, delicious, large beautiful garden. *OK itu ada*

rumusnya. ada tabelnya. So I give you the table now OK. You

Wanna, you wanna copy the notes? No? OK, Ok now I've got a

table. I got a table because you know it's not clear if I write

295 *karena saya gak jelas kalau nulis di papan OK*. I made you the

table. OK (T puts on a large paper containing table on the white board)

(after 2 minutes)

T: OK it's clear? *Jelas, kelihatan dari belakang?*

Ps: *Jelas*

300 T: OK, it's clear right.

Pedagogical:
informative

P14: *Pak, ya Allah, ga kelihatan*

T: It's OK *sebentar* **right?** That's OK, that's OK. So the
sequence, ***urutannya,*** the sequence. The sequence must be like
that, ***harus seperti itu***. So the first one is descriptions OK

305   description. ***Kalian bisa tulis misalnya small OK***. Big. ***Iya ini
tulisannya kurang besar, sori. Ga kelihatan ya?*** Come forward,
come forward, OK? Itu itu, binti nurina come forward,
maju maju,

P14: ***Pak itu dihapus saja pak, nanti kelihatan. Tutup ae***.

310   T: OK. Ok why don't you come forward, there is empty seat,
ada kursi kosong itu. OK. It's OK. Well, OK the sequence must
be like that. Like this table OK. The first one is descriptions
penggambaran umumnya. Decription for example beautiful,
luxurious, ***mewah***, smart ***pintar***, OK. Beautiful and so on and so

315   on. Ya pokoknya apa? Penggambaran umumnya. OK, that's
description. ***Yang kedua***. the second one is, the size, the size.
Iya makanya saya dikte. The size. ***Ok nanti siang aja***. The
second one is the size. For example like small OK ***kecil. Ya,***
and then big little OK. Medium OK etc. ***Itu ukuran ukuran ya***

320   OK. The next is age, ***baru umurnya lama or*** **new.** Brand new,
OK yes, ***OK ya ya ya.*** It's clear now? ***Nanti saya dikte. Iya
nanti saya kasih font tiga puluhan. OK, ini kan dua puluhan,*** ok
next, age *sudah,* shape shape what is that? Shape. **Shape** *itu*
apa? Shape in bahasa Indonesia?

325   P14: *Bentuk*

T: Shape? ***Bentuk OK bentuk*** for example like circular. Ok you
know circular?

P13: *Bulat*

T: OK, **round, ya.** and then rectangular, triangle, and so on and

330   so on. OK copy that. OK next colour, OK. Of course you know
colour like brown, white, plain OK

P14: *Apa?*

T: Blue yellow and so on. OK. And then origin. You know
origin?

335   P13: *Dari asalnya*

T: *Yah asalnya*. OK, origin, for example like sundanese
sundanese dari sunda

P13: Korea

T: Madurese madure OK, ***dari madura***. Could be Indonesian,

340   Indonesian. Americans, OK Javanese OK. That's origin. Yeah

P13: Korea

T: Egyptian, you know Egyptian? Egyptian, ***dari mesir iya.***
French ***dari Perancis***. OK and so on. German. OK the next one is,

material. *Ah sekarang bahannya dari apa?* The materials

345   P13: *Kayu*

T: Wooden. *kayu*, OK. Woolen, woolen dari wool. OK. Yeah,

wooden, ah OK. and the last sequence. *apa urutan terakhirnya*

apa? **Past participle** *biasanya ada verb tiganya*, OK. *Kalau di*

sini apa? Hand made. H**and made** *itu apa?* *Buatan tangan.* OK

350   **buatan tangan.** This is for example OK. *Jadi jangan acak-acak.*

OK. *Ga boleh colour dulu baru* description *ga boleh. Ga boleh*

age *dulu baru* **color,** *ga boleh age dulu baru* description. *Ga boleh*

acak ya. Ga boleh color dulu baru description ga *boleh.* **Ga**

boleh age dulu baru **colour. Ga boleh age** *dan* description. *Jadi*

355   **harus terurut, terurut OK. Ya sampai sini** ngerti *apa gak?* Do

you understand my explanation?

Ps: Yes

T: Yes. OK thank you. We will take one example, *kita akan*

ambil satu contoh. OK. Beautiful OK, small OK, sundanese,

360   hand made puppet. You know puppet? Wayang OK.

P13: Wayang

T: *Jadi apa? Wayang yang indah? Yang bentuknya kecil yang*

dari berasal dari sunda terbuat dari kayu. Kelihatan tangannya.

Misalkan panjang ya yang yang, tapi kalau bahasa inggris,

365   beautiful small sundanese handmade puppet.

P14: Jadi Satu

T: Yes, *ya kalau di bahasa Indonesia ga ada urutannya kan?* OK

there is no the sequence like in English OK. *Yang penting enak*

didengar dalam bahasa Indonesia ya. OK. Ok we back to the

370   picture again. *Ke gambar lagi ya*. OK. OK so the first one, *yang*

pertama tadi apa? Yang pertama tadi apa?

P13: *Karapan sapi*

T: Bull race, bull race. *Kita ngomong yang* **bulls** *aja*, the bulls,

the bulls. OK. Strong big dangerous. *Yang mana yang duluan?*

375   *Yang duluan yang mana?*

P14: Big, big

T: Strong? *Sebentar, strong itu apa?* **Strong,** *kuat. Itu termasuk*

apa, description, age, color, atau apa? Ya, **description.** what

about big? Big.

380   P13: Size

T: Big, size OK. Size. *Terus* dangerous, dangerous?

P13: Description

T: *Iya description. Jadi ini sama sama duluan OK. Bisa strong*

dulu, OK, we got strong,

385   P14: Dangerous

T: Dangerous and then? Big? And the noun? *Sekarang* **nounnya.**

Yang paling terakhir. OK. *Apa?*

P14: Bull

T: Bulls. *OK, bullnya kan dua*. There are two bulls in the

390   picture. Two bulls right? *Ya. Gampang kan. Ok ada caranya*

menghapal ini. Gimana caranya?

P14: Beautiful large green

T: *Sebentar. Kita bahas dulu yang ini ya. OK.* The second what?

The picture, *apa itu tadi large beautiful green*. Tobacco garden

395   OK. Tobacco garden, so large *itu apa itu large?* Size OK *ukuran*

ya. *Large ukuran size. Yang dibelakang dengar ya? Yang*

dibelakang dengar OK? Size, sizenya large. What about

beautiful? Beautiful?

P13: Dangerous

400   T: Dangerous? Beautiful is description right? *Masak kebunnya*

berbahaya. OK. *Ya, s*o beautiful is the description. Green, green

P14: Colour

T: Colour. OK. **So,** *yang mana yang duluan?*

P14: Beautiful

405   T: Beautiful OK. Large green and then the noun. *Kata bendanya,*

shinta shinta

P15: Garden

T: Tobacco garden OK. So the next picture. Satay, satay OK. Satay?

Delicious. OK. Delicious is. Delicious *itu apa?*

410   Description. OK, next. Big, size, brown,

P13: Colour

T: Colour OK. So which one comes first? Delicious. *Ya good*

good.

P14: Wonderful

415   T: Yeah. Wonderful. The bridge *ya. Sekarang terakhir,* the

bridge ya. The bridge.

P13: Wonderful

T: Wonderful, long long, size, OK. OK size. And then

wonderful. Description, strong. Description, silver colour. So

420   which one comes first? Wonderful strong?

P14: Strong long

T: Silver Suramadu bridge, iya. Excellent ya, bagus ya. It means

you understand. *Ngerti ya?*

Ps: *Ngerti*

425   T: *Sekarang gimana sih caranya?* To make it easier to memorise

gimana? Gini aja pake **desascom. Desascom ya.** *De nya itu apa?*

Description OK. Description. OK and then, s- *nya itu apa?*

P13: Size

T: A? Age. And then s- ,

430 P14: Shape

T: Shape. OK good. And the c-,

P13: Colour

T: Colour, o-, o-

P14: Origin

435 T: Origin. And then. M-

P13: Material

T: **Material, OK.** *Kemudian past participle baru noun-nya.* Easy

right? **Desascom gitu aja. Desascom**

P14: Sascom

440 T: Description size age shape colour origin material. *Gampang kan,*

come on. Desascom. Come on. Mention the sequence.

Sebutkan urutannya OK.

P14: Description size age shape colour origin material

T: Past participle *baru noun OK*. Ok shinta shinta what happen

445 OK. You got problem. Love problem? *Masalah cinta? Pokoknya*

description size age shape colour origin material *baru* past

participle *dan* noun. Desascom. *OK silakan tulis dulu.* Copy

then note. Don't be too long. *Jangan terlalu lama OK*. If you

can't see the word clearly raise your hand and ask me yeah.

450 *Angkat tangan, tanya saya.* Yes.

P5: *Dicatat apa?*

T: *Itu urutannya*

P17: *Tak kelihatan*

T: *OK yang dibelakang ga kelihatan. Bisa maju ke depan.* OK.

455 *Sini saja ga pa-pa.* It's OK ga pa-pa it's OK. It's fine it's fine

come on come on. Come on come on. It's OK.

P17: *Sama bapak saja?*

T: *Hah?* **Come on,** *berarti ga ada motivasi, ga niat berarti.*

Ini didepan lho OK. OK it's empty seat. *Ini kan kosong ya.* It's

460 empty seat. Ok empty seat. Yes. Ya bring your chair to here.

Bawa kursinya mungkin tiga **for you**

P17: *Ga ketok pak*

T: OK next time I will use bigger font. *Saya akan gunakan yang*

lebih besar. Kenapa? Ga pa-pa? If you cant see the word clearly

465 raise your hand and ask me.

P14: *Sudah pak*

T: *Sudah ya, tapi yang lainnya belum*. Come to madura

sometime, come to madura sometime. *Suatu saat mampir saja*

ke madura. Yeah if you want to know about bull race. *Tentang*

470 **bull race.** And then you want to taste the traditional food.

Mencicipi makanan tradisional nya. I've got a home there. *Saya*

punya rumah disana. I've got a home there. Soto madura.

organising the lesson (control and dicipline)	interpersonal: organisation

Explaining lesson (talking about the lesson)	pedagogical: informative

P14: *Apa lagi?*

T: And the rice, *nasi apa?* Sarpang

475   P14: *Apa sarpang, din apa sarpang*

T: (to P14)You didn't copy the note? *Ga nyatat*. Itu lho putih-putihnya

P7: *Pak silver apa*

T: Silver. *Saya ambil ini ya supaya jelas*. (T sticked out the table paper from the whiteboard)
P13: *Atasnya itu, nah*

480   T: *Ini ini ini, jelaskan*

Ps: Yes

T: *Sudah jelas?*

(pause 2 minutes)

T: OK quick quick, *shinta ga nulis?* What's up? *Berat ya?* It must

be a love problem. *Pasti masalah cinta.*

			Control and discipline	Interpersonal: control
485	T: (to other pupil) What's up? Ada pa? What's up?			

P7: *Sudah kembalikan jaketnya? Saya tanya dia, jakete mr*

arfiyan ta? Nyelang ga dibalek-balekno? Ndang di balekno. Iya

mene ae. Balekno lho, nanti ketok aku ga dibalekno awas. Soale

aku dhewe nyilih barang iku tak balekno.

490   T: *Nanti kalau saya sudah mau pergi. Lho ini sudah selesai?*

Sudah selesai, satu jam, istirahat ta ini? Heh, ini, ini sudah

selesai apa belum? Waktunya habis? Sudah habis?

P14: *Sudah*

T: *Oh no. Ga tak minta, biar dikembalikan sendiri kan sudah dua*

			Ending the lesson
495	*minggu*. The time's up OK. *Waktunya habis ngak? Wow.* So		

quick. *Cepat sekali ya?* OK, have you done copying the notes?

Sudah selesai ngopinya? Belum ya. So we continue tomorrow

ya. {We continue tomorrow.}

P14: *Jadi ga bisa calling callingan?*

500	T: *Bisa bisa*. OK it's time to break. *Istirahat ya.* Good bye. Bye	**closing**	Closing the lesson	Interpersonal: organisation

Note: T (Teacher), P (pupil, Ps (pupils). This lesson was 49 minutes and 23 seconds long. This class was Grade 10 Dancing program at a Fine Art Vocational High School at City S, in East Java, Indonesia. There were 18 pupils (All girls) in this class. The lesson was on how to describe an object.