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INDONESIAN STUDENT TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND PRACTICES

IN TEACHING L2 READING

A DISSERTATION

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SRI REJEKI MURTININGSIH
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INDONESIAN STUDENT TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND PRACTICES
IN TEACHING L2 READING

A DISSERTATION APPROVED FOR THE
DEPARTMENT OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND ACADEMIC
CURRICULUM

BY

_____
Dr. Lawrence Baines, Chair

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Dr. Neil Houser

_____
Dr. Jiening Ruan

_____
Dr. Stacy Reeder

_____
Dr. William Frick

The more that you read,
the more things you will know.
The more that you learn,
the more places you go.

Dr. Seuss, *I Can Read with My Eyes Shut*

For my parents and family.

Acknowledgements

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Abstract

Student teachers' beliefs in Indonesian contexts are rarely explored. The aims of this case study are to answer the following questions: 1) What are Indonesian student teachers' beliefs about teaching L2 reading?, 2) How do these beliefs manifest in Indonesian student teachers' practice?, and 3) Are there differences between Indonesian students teachers' beliefs and practices? What are some potential causes of the differences and similarities?

Twenty-one Indonesian student teachers in the middle of their teaching practica participated in this study. Student teachers were attending an Islamic university and conducting teaching practica in mixed-gender, girls-only, and boys-only Islamic secondary schools in the same city. The data was collected through in-depth interviews and classroom observations.

Five main themes of student teachers' beliefs about teaching English as a second language (L2) reading were developed from the data: 1) beliefs about teaching materials, 2) beliefs about roles of teachers, 3) beliefs about teaching instructions, 4) beliefs about sociocultural contexts, and 5) beliefs about what learners learn. Class observations revealed that student teachers' practices were mostly in line with their beliefs about teaching English and L2 reading. Student teachers provided extremely limited encouragement for extensive reading because they believed that reading was boring and less exciting. When teaching reading, student teachers utilized non-authentic materials and delivered them in L1 to accommodate students' L2 proficiency. Student teachers demonstrated very little variation of teaching strategies when teaching L2 reading, in which group work occupied a large portion of instructional time. The

teaching of L2 reading was focused on providing strategies to prepare students for major tests and rarely went beyond test-like activities.

In general, the study also showed that student teachers associated student engagement with student busyness and they heavily depended on cooperating teachers in making many instructional decisions. Student teachers also maintained a low level of class discipline, which caused student teachers to have little control over the class. The fact that many of them attended and taught in religion-based schools did not influence their classroom instructions.

Chapter 1: Introduction

When I was a new English teacher in a language training center in a university, I had the opportunity to work with one of the more experienced teachers, who was assigned to teach reading classes. When we met to decide final assignments for her students, I suggested assigning students to read young adult books. She did not take my suggestion because she believed that students lacked the vocabulary to read and understand the books. We finally decided to use children's books because, aside from containing some values that we wanted the students to learn, the books were easy to read. At the end of the semester, my colleague told me that the students enjoyed reading them.

The decision that my colleague made was based on her beliefs that her students would do better in her reading class with children's books, which was different from my beliefs. The belief system of one teacher is different from another because each individual brings a unique personality and experience to the system. Accordingly, researchers are interested in examining the belief system of teachers (Bandura, 1986; Borg, 2001; Pajares, 1992; Kagan, 1992). Researchers maintain that a belief system is tacit and the person may not be aware of having the belief (Kagan, 1992; Borg, 2001); however, other people may be able to see discern beliefs from behavior because beliefs usually manifest in practice (Pajares, 1992).

Kindersvatter, Wilen, and Ishler (1988) argued that there are two types of beliefs: *unexamined* and *informed beliefs*. Unexamined beliefs are usually intuition-based and come from experience, whereas informed beliefs are based on rational components such as research and examined practice. Kagan (1992) stated that

experiences play a more important role in shaping beliefs because beliefs are rarely changed by research or reading. Kagan's statement is in alignment with that of Kindervatter et al. (1988), who further explained that "a real-ideal discrepancy would continue to exist" (p. 9). In reality, it may be true that many teachers rely on their experience to guide practice. The reasons may range from resistance to change to lack of access to research and academic reading.

Unexamined beliefs guided my practice when I was a new teacher in the university trying to help improve English proficiency. Our clients were the students and professors of the university. Most were interested in taking the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), the most popular test in Indonesia to measure one's English proficiency. They needed it for a variety of reasons, including fulfilling graduation requirements, seeking employment, and pursuing a higher degree. Unquestionably, the most challenging part of the test was the reading comprehension section.

Many times, I was asked by students or fellow university professors about the strategies to improve skills in reading so they could get high scores on the reading section of the TOEFL. My answer was that they needed to practice doing the test because it would make them familiar with the format and content. I believed that if one were familiar with the test, the individual would get better results than those who were not. As a result, I gave my students reading comprehension questions similar to the ones that appeared on TOEFL. I kept giving practice tests although many of them had taken preparation courses so many times that they were already well acquainted with the TOEFL. In addition, they regularly took many English tests when they were in school.

Most major tests of English in Indonesia have emphasized reading comprehension for a long time. Students are given short passages and instructed to answer several questions about them. Although most students pass school English tests, many encounter difficulties with high-stakes English tests, such as university entrance tests or international English tests. These tests, like school tests in Indonesia, rely heavily on reading comprehension skills.

As I became more and more concerned about reading comprehension, I began to ask my fellow veteran English teachers, who were experienced in teaching reading. Most of us, if not all, used practice tests to improve reading scores on the TOEFL. We had been practicing under the assumption that "practice makes perfect" was irrevocably true even though the results were not evident in the higher scores of our students.

Indonesia is a country that has a population of diverse social, economic, and cultural backgrounds. Although English may be introduced to children as early as kindergarten, English is taught formally starting in seventh grade. Although reading comprehension has always become the focus in English curriculum in Indonesia, Indonesia still suffers from a low reading rate. According to the Minister of People Welfare in January 2012, only one person out of 10,000 people in Indonesia is interested in reading. Thus, research on student teachers' beliefs about teaching English reading and how these beliefs influence their practice seemed to be worth investigating.

Rationale

Clearly, Indonesian people need reading skills. Students, for example, need reading skills to take English tests that are usually presented in reading comprehension forms. University students and faculty members need reading skills for their academic

activities, such as textbooks and other reading materials. They also need reading skills when they have to take international English tests, such as TOEFL, which they would take at one point of their study. Indonesian people, in general, also need reading skills to make sense of their reading. In Paulo Freire and Donaldo Macedo's *Reading the Word and the World*, reading skills is more than decoding the words and texts. Reading skills include the ability to make sense of the world in which an individual lives. Thus, teaching reading in Indonesia is worth investigating because not only teachers are responsible to teach students reading the words, but they may also need to teach students to read the world.

Student teachers of a second language (L2) are unique in that they bring their learning experiences with them when they are admitted to teacher preparation programs, and these experiences contribute greatly in shaping their beliefs about L2 teaching. Indeed, L2 reading may become the skills that many institutions in which an L2 is studied would focus on. Alderson (1984) and Hadley (2001) argued that for many people, reading ability often becomes the focus in understanding the L2, especially in the academic areas. On the other hand, vocabulary often becomes the most challenging factor in learning to read in L2 (Evans & Green, 2007). Although many L2 learners find vocabulary challenging, many L2 teachers do not consider vocabulary becomes a problem for L2 students. In a survey of L2 teachers, Richards, Galo, and Renandya (2001) showed that none of the 112 participants mentioned reading as the most important aspect about language teaching and learning. The 112 participants, who mainly taught in Singapore, stated that teaching grammar was the main important factor in teaching and learning a language.

The influence of student teachers' L1 learning experience may be related to student teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching L2 reading (Reeves, 2009; Johnson, 1994; Kamhi-Stein, 2003). Vygotsky (1978) maintained that an individual learns a language from the continuous interactions with people and the environment. These interactions help the child to learn how to exercise trial and error in the first language.

Like Vygotsky, Lantolf and Johnson (2007) argued that interactions with the environment might influence student teachers' language competence beyond the linguistic knowledge that an individual needs to communicate with others who utilize the same language. According to Reeves (2009), the knowledge acquired from the environment enables an individual to teach the language to others who wish to learn it. Apart from that, the knowledge enables an individual to utilize the skills in her first language to learn another language. For example, those who are effective readers in L1 will likely be effective readers in L2 because they are able to transfer the skills they obtained in L1 reading and use them in L2 reading (Alderson, 1984; Grabe, 2009; Hudson, 2007; Yamashita, 2004).

Many scholars consider that teacher quality is predicated upon a profound knowledge of subject matter and knowledge of teaching (Grossman, Wilson, & Shulman, 1989; Shulman, 1987). These scholars implied that a good teacher needs to have the *what* and *how* of the field. To put in a language-learning context, a good language teacher must be able to use the language she teaches and teach the language to others. In addition, a good teacher should continuously reflect on her practice in order to improve their quality of her practice (Farrell, 2007b; Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Stanley, 1998). A good language teacher should not only know the *what* and *how*, but

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she should also consistently ask questions to herself and understand the *why*. In addition, a good teacher is required to possess a certain level of technological literacy (Rezaee, Abidin, Issa, & Mustafa, 2012), cultural awareness (Atkinson, 1999), and social/affective personalities (Ghasemi & Hashemi, 2011).

Student teachers may have a bundle of different beliefs about the characteristics of a good teacher, which are developed over time, and these beliefs can change and be examined (Debreli, 2012; Farrell, 2007b; Kagan, 1992; Kindsvatter et al., 1988). Teacher preparation programs and teacher educators can play an important role in examining these beliefs to help student teachers prepare for teaching. Courses designed by a teacher education program may influence student teachers' beliefs and attitudes (Busch, 2010; Gebhard, 1990). Peacock (2001), on the other hand, maintained that teacher preparation programs alone might not able to alter beliefs in learning significantly. His longitudinal study showed that L2 student beliefs did not change or changed very slightly despite student participation in a series of L2 courses for three years. Moreover, a study conducted by Hascher, Cocard, and Moser (2004) showed that student teachers could explicitly apply knowledge obtained from courses when requested doing teaching practicum. That beliefs can influence one's practice is evident (Borg, 1999; Freeman, 1990; Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Young & Sachdev, 2011). Beliefs also play an important role for teachers when they set the level of performance expectations for students in class and evaluation (Scharlach, 2008; Graden, 1996). Practicum in teaching is one way to examine student teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning language.

Significance of the Study

Studies that investigate student teachers' beliefs and practices in Indonesia have been scarce, so this study helps contribute knowledge about student teachers' perspectives in Indonesia, particularly in regard to student teachers' beliefs (Polat, 2009; Richards et al., 2001). Many research and professional development programs in Indonesia have been focused on in-service teachers' beliefs and practices in L2 teaching. While student teachers may be involved in many studies, rarely are student teachers observed when teaching in real-life class because student teachers of English departments have usually been seen as language learners as opposed to language teachers. In fact, many student teachers of English departments have taken part-time jobs as English teachers in language training centers. Second, this study contributes to the knowledge base of the use of reflection on teacher practice. Some beliefs may be held unconsciously, and reflective practice is not commonly encouraged in some cultures (Atkinson, 1997; Borg, 2001). Articulating their beliefs requires student teachers to reflect on their learning experiences and pedagogical knowledge, and reflective practice was minimally encouraged in the Indonesian context.

Research Questions

The research questions for the study are as follows:

1. What are the Indonesian student teachers' beliefs about teaching L2 reading?

2. How do these beliefs manifest in Indonesian student teachers' L2 practice during the teaching practica?

3. Are there differences between Indonesian student teachers' beliefs and practices? What are some potential causes of the differences or similarities?

Scope and Limitations of the Study

The study focused on student teachers' teaching practica in an Indonesian context. The study did not intend to make generalizations, as it involved only a small sample size ($n = 21$). The study did not look at the effectiveness of strategies employed by the student teachers participating in this study concerning students' academic achievement or behavior in L2 reading.

An Overview of Indonesian School Contexts

Indonesian students receive formal English instruction starting from middle school or seventh grade. However, many schools nowadays include English as early as kindergarten in their curriculum. In fact, English-only private schools have recently flourished in Indonesia to accommodate students from a high socioeconomic status.

Typically, before lessons start at 7:00 A.M., a group of students prepares the classroom by such activities as sweeping the floor and cleaning the boards. The bell usually rings at 7:00 A.M. at all school levels. Teachers come to each room and teach a lesson based on the schedule. In high school, the bell rings every 45 minutes to mark the end of a lesson; in middle school, a lesson lasts for about 40 minutes. A lesson is usually set up for two sessions. Overall, students stay at school for about 40 to 45 hours per week.

Desks in classrooms are usually set up facing a direction where the whiteboard is and teachers usually stand. Teachers, in general, use a teacher-centered approach in which they explain the lesson in front of the class and students listen and write down in

their notebooks. After four sessions, students have a break of 30 minutes, and another three sessions begin before the second 30-minute break. While the Indonesian language is commonly used as the language of instruction in class, dialects may be used in personal conversations. The Indonesian language is also likely used as language of instruction when teachers teach other languages, such as English, Arabic, German, French, and local dialects. Further explanation of a typical day of school, education system, the teaching of English, and socio-cultural background of Indonesian contexts is presented in Chapter 2, and the research sites are described mainly in Chapter 3.

Descriptions of Terms

Graddol (2000) argued that speakers of English could be divided into three categories: first language (L1), second language (L2), and foreign language (FL). L1 English speakers are those who spend most of their lives in English speaking countries, such as the United States, United Kingdom, Australia, and New Zealand. L2 English speakers use English in their local forms and may use them in daily conversation and as language of instruction. Countries like India and Singapore are examples of countries that are included in the L2 criterion. Meanwhile, English as FL speakers are those who do not belong to the two categories. Graddol (2000) also pointed out that there has been an ongoing shift in the status of English. English has become more and more popular in some countries that may be shifting from FL to L2.

In Indonesia, the use of English has been increasingly popular within the community, and it has become one of the main requirements in employment. With this rationale, in this study, English is referred as L2, and L1 refers to the first language used by student teachers. Student teachers spoke the Indonesian language and different native

languages. The Indonesian language is also used as the language of instruction at school or the *lingua franca*, the language used to communicate among people who speak diverse languages (Merriam-Webster, n.d.). Should other languages be used in the study, they are specifically mentioned.

Referring to Freeman (1990), the term *student teachers* is used to refer to those who engage in learning to teach through a formal educational setting, such as a course or practicum. Meanwhile, the term *university professors* refers to those who taught in the university in which the student teachers were enrolled. Other studies use this term interchangeably with *teacher educators*, as does this study.

The term s*upervising teachers* refers to the English teachers of the host schools in which the student teachers were assigned for the teaching practica. There was usually more than one English teacher in each school; however, one teacher supervised each student teacher during the teaching practicum. The term *cooperating teachers* may also be found in this present study to refer to the same people. The word *students* is used to indicate those that went to the host schools and were taught by student teachers.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter consists of three main sections: the Indonesian context, theoretical framework, and literature review. The first part of the chapter discusses the context of the study, which is the Indonesian context. The discussion includes general description of Indonesian society, education system, and L2 teaching and learning. In the second section, two theories underlying the study are discussed. The literature review is discussed in the third section.

The Indonesian Context

To provide a better understanding of the context of the study, an overview of the Indonesian context, including the socio-cultural, socio-political, socio-economic, and the educational contexts, is presented. The research site and participants' backgrounds are discussed in Chapter 3.

Multiculturalism and Multilingualism in Indonesia

Indonesia is an archipelago, which consists of more than 17,000 islands with five main islands: Java, Sumatra, Borneo, Celebes, and Papua. Home to over 300 ethnic groups, Indonesia is inhabited by over 230 million people, who inhabit only about half of the islands, as of 2010. Each ethnic group embraces a distinct culture, language, and customs. Represented by more than 80 million people in the total population, Javanese is the dominant culture in Indonesia, followed by Sundanese and Chinese.

Indonesia is also a home of religious diversity. Although the government of Indonesia officially acknowledges six religions, Islam, Hinduism, Buddhism, Catholicism, Christianity, and Confucianism, other religions, such as animism, and cultural-based beliefs also exist. More than 80% of the Indonesian population is

Muslim; therefore, an Islamic atmosphere is strongly felt within Indonesian society. In many areas in Indonesia, places of worship for these religions are often located not very far from each other.

In 2010, SIL International reported 719 languages spoken in Indonesia, of which 13 of them had been recently wiped out. In any area, there could be several groups of people who speak different languages and possess a variety of cultural backgrounds. Cirebon, for example, is a city that shares boundaries between Central Java and West Java. Central Java is the area in which most Javanese live, whereas West Java is the region where most Sundanese reside. Although these people speak their indigenous languages, they use *Bahasa Indonesia* or the Indonesian language as their lingua franca. It is common in Indonesia that a child is multilingual at such a young age. As Vygotsky (1978) mentioned in his theory, children acquire a variety of languages, including their dialects, from their environment.

After being declared to be the national language in October 28, 1928, Bahasa has become the Language of National Unity (Hamied, 2012). Unlike other countries in Southeast Asia that use English as their lingua franca, the Indonesian government has successfully promoted Bahasa to its people (Poedjosoedarmo, 2006). In contrast, Indonesia's neighboring country, Malaysia, whose population mostly speaks Malay, a language that shares roots with Bahasa, uses English as their de facto language of communication.

Not only has Bahasa become the lingua franca in Indonesia, it also has become the language of high social status and a threat to indigenous languages (Widodo & Fardhani, 2011). Parents introduce Bahasa to children because they consider it

important for their children to be proficient in Bahasa before they are enrolled in preschool. Moreover, parents who have an inter-ethnic marriage and have limited competence in the indigenous languages of their partners tend to accustom their children to Bahasa. Some native language speakers exhibit negative attitudes toward their own language. For example, a number of people find it extremely uncomfortable to speak their native language due to the strong accent, especially in public. Speaking Bahasa is one way to save face from public embarrassment.

Through the Ministry of Education, the government strongly recommends that schools include indigenous languages as part of their local curriculum, along with Bahasa and English, as stated in the Republic of Indonesia Law of 2003. The Law states that the local languages may be taught in the early years, roughly equivalent to the American elementary and middle school. Children whose local languages are different from that taught in the school that they attend likely encounter problems. Even though Bahasa is taught at all levels of education and used as the language of instruction, English is taught beginning in middle school and may be used as the language of instruction. The issue of at what age English is best taught to the students put the government in a problematic position. As a result, in 2006, the government mandated that English be taught in elementary school. As a result, elementary schools required their students to learn English starting from the fourth grade although some elementary schools introduced English as an extracurricular activity even earlier. This regulation was implemented for only seven years before it returned to its previous policy. Starting in 2013, English is not mandatory for elementary school children to learn (Republic of Indonesia Law No. 67/2013), although Bahasa is still compulsory.

Education in Indonesia

While formal early childhood education is not mandatory, it is mandatory for children to attend school at six years of age. The context of the public school in Indonesia is unique because, apart from non-religious public schools, Indonesia also has religious-based public schools. Because most Indonesians are Muslims, Islamic-based schools flourish. Muhammadiyah, one of the biggest Islamic organizations in Indonesia, has successfully organized thousands of schools from early childhood to higher education across the country since the early 1910s, long before Indonesia gained its independence in 1945. Unlike regular private schools, the aim of the education in Muhammadiyah schools is to provide opportunity for people from low socio-economic backgrounds. Based on the Republic of Indonesia Law no. 20/2013, religious-based schools are in compliance with the Ministry of National Education and Ministry of Religious Affairs. Concerning the academic curriculum, the Ministry of National Education has regularly stated that laws pertain to both non-religious public schools and public Islamic-based schools. Thus, students who attend these religious-based schools are taught the same subjects and tested in the same way as their counterparts who attend non-religious-based schools. Religious-based school students, however, may have additional subjects and examinations in religion.

Indonesia also has Islamic boarding schools, or *pesantren*. Individuals, usually Islamic religious leaders in the area, manage these schools. Unlike religious-based school that must comply with the national curriculum, a *pesantren* focuses heavily on Islamic beliefs, morality and manners, and legal systems. The *pesantren* remains independent from governmental regulations pertaining to academic matters. While

many *pesantren* are more traditional and are established to accommodate students from low socio-economic backgrounds, modern *pesantren* are usually more open in terms of non-religious subjects and often charge much higher fees to their *santri* (students). Some teach their *santri* foreign languages, especially English, and encourage them to use English in daily communication apart from the use of indigenous languages, Bahasa, and Arabic. Some parents send their children to *pesantren* as early as middle school or seventh grade; others prefer to send them in high school or ninth grade. If the *santri* graduate from high school and decide to pursue a higher degree, they may choose a public university or an Islamic-based university.

English-Language Teaching in Indonesian Secondary Schools

The Ministry of National Education in Indonesia enacted a new curriculum, the Curriculum 2013. When the data for my study were collected, the curriculum was the Unit-Based Curriculum, in which students were required to demonstrate a certain level of competence to pass. In the spirit of decentralization, this curriculum required the school to "develop its own curriculum based on the national set framework, standards of content, and standard of graduate (exit) competencies" (Madya, 2007, p. 197). This type of curriculum was designed because each school has its unique needs based on the geographical condition, resources, and sociocultural contexts. The Ministerial Regulation No. 20/2006 contains the standards of content and graduate (exit) competencies of all subjects.

In relation to English, the ultimate goals are to enable students to use English at different levels: *performative, functional, informational,* and *epistemic. Performative* refers to the ability to read, write, listen, and speak using given codes, whereas

functional designates the ability using the language to solve everyday problems. Meanwhile, *informational* and *epistemic*, respectively, refer to being able to access knowledge sources using the language proficiently and being able to convey meanings to a specific audience. The first two levels are expected to be achieved by the time students finish middle school, which is the ninth grade. Accordingly, high school students, or students from the tenth to the twelfth grade, are to reach the informational level. At the high school level, the *informational* competence includes understanding and creating short essays in different forms of text: procedure, descriptive, narrative, report, news items, analytical exposition, hortatory exposition, spoof, discussion, and public speaking. Apart from basic competence, high school students are also required to have linguistic, sociocultural, strategic, and discourse competence.

Although it is stated in the regulation that the school is required to develop its own curriculum, the Ministerial Regulation provides limited flexibility for the school to perform its obligation. In fact, the regulation demonstrates detailed information on the standard of competence and the standard of graduate competence in each semester. For example, the standard of competence of grade X in one semester in listening and speaking skills consists of two goals with two objectives for each goal. Meanwhile, there is only one goal for reading and writing skills and two objectives for each goal. Not only does this law determine the goals and objectives for each skill, it also regulates which genres of text are to be taught in a particular semester. An example of the standard of competence and standard of graduate competence can be found in the Appendix D. Overall, the law provides extremely strong directions and control over the school's independence to develop an individualized curriculum.

With regard to assessment, standardized tests, both regionally and nationally administered, become the only way to evaluate students' English proficiency (Hamied, 2012). These standardized tests are especially important when the government is the only agent that develops the curriculum for the school. With the need to maintain the quality of education, the government considers the need to have the national examination conducted at the same time across the country. The main tests consist mainly of reading comprehension and listening comprehension, which are all presented in the form of multiple-choice questions. There are 50 questions on reading comprehension and 15 questions on listening comprehension. While the central government administers the reading and listening tests, including test question development, distribution, test supervision, and grading system, schools are required to test students' speaking and writing skills. English teachers design the tests as well as the assessment criteria of speaking and writing skills for their own students for national exam purposes.

The national exams contribute to 60% of students' final grades. Forty percent of the final grades are taken from the results of English speaking and writing tests, other tests, and students' daily grades in class. To graduate from high school, a twelfth grader has to achieve at least the passing grade determined by the central government. If she fails to reach the passing grade, then she needs to take the remedial test, which is usually held a few months after. To provide a better understanding of this process, the following figure is provided.

A 12th-grader

Other Exams
40%

National Exam
60%

Passing grades
(determined by central
government)

Yes

No — Remedial test

Graduate
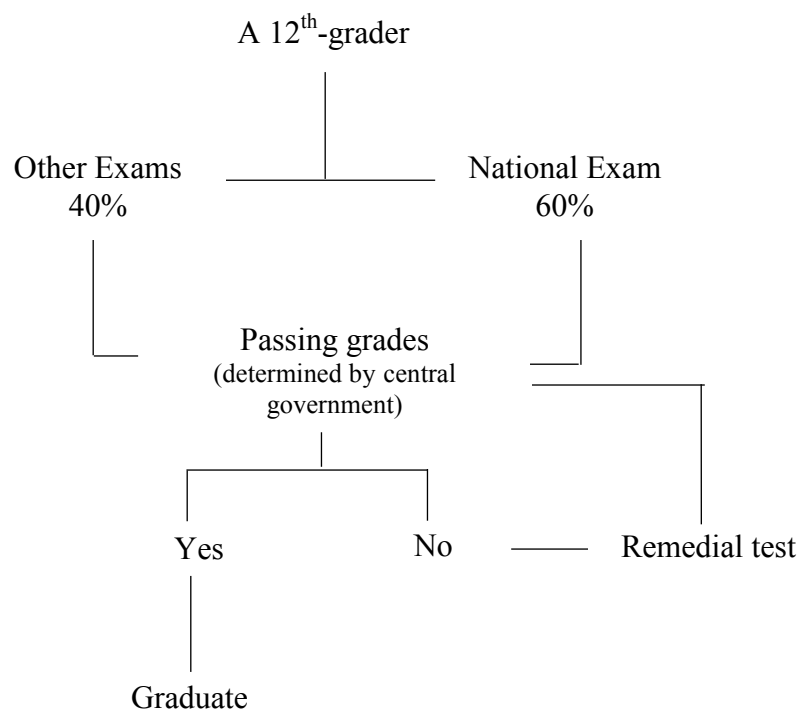
Figure 1. The grading system in Indonesian high schools.

Theoretical Framework

Language Teaching and Learning

Language teaching and language learning are usually discussed together. While learning a language may happen unintentionally, teaching a language involves intricate actions from the teacher. As with teaching many other subjects, teaching a language, especially an L2, requires preparation. In addition, L2 teachers need to consider other contextual factors, such as the language of instruction, teaching methods, the social register of the language in the society, and the age of the learners. Brown (1987)

asserted that a teacher should understand social, regional, and functional aspects as well as the development of language itself.

A student may learn a language unintentionally through the influence of the context in which the learner lives. Vygotsky (1978) maintained that social factors have a strong influence in learning. In terms of learning a language, Vygotsky (1978) also mentioned that a child learns a language from the family members with whom he interacts; therefore, the child "accidentally" learns the language to communicate with others. He stated that mastery of the language comes before mastery of the environment. Krashen (1978) and Brown (1987) referred to the accidental learning process as acquisition or "getting" the language, acquired naturally from informal conversations with family and friends.

Influencing Factors in Language Teaching and Learning

Several factors determine the success and failure of the teaching of a language. The teacher is perhaps the most influential factor in language learning. Language teachers have the responsibility to ensure that students have a certain level of proficiency. Accordingly, language teachers control the curriculum and how to teach it. While the teacher's role is important in language learning, the success and the failure of language learning obviously depends mostly on the students. Students' motivation, perceptions, and attitude about language learning affect the development of their proficiency.

Apart from students and teachers, contextual factors play an important role in language teaching and learning. Contextual factors include the society and the government where language learning takes place. The way the society views the

language is important because it influences the focus of teaching. For example, the way students or teachers see their roles in language learning may affect the way that students learn and teach the language. Finally, the rules and regulations issued by authorities – government, school board, and administrators – influence how language is taught.

In relation to the interaction of these factors, Mackey, as cited in the introduction of Jackobovits (1970), *Foreign Language Learning: A Psycholinguistic Analysis of the Issues*, developed a model to describe the relationship of the variables. Mackey's model is shown in Figure 2 below.

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                    ┌──────────────────┐
        ┌───────────│   GOVERNMENT     │◄─────────────────┐
        │           └──────────────────┘                  │
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        └─────────►│     POLICY       │        └──────────────────┘
                   └──────────────────┘                 │
                            │                           │
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        │                  ( M )                      ( S )
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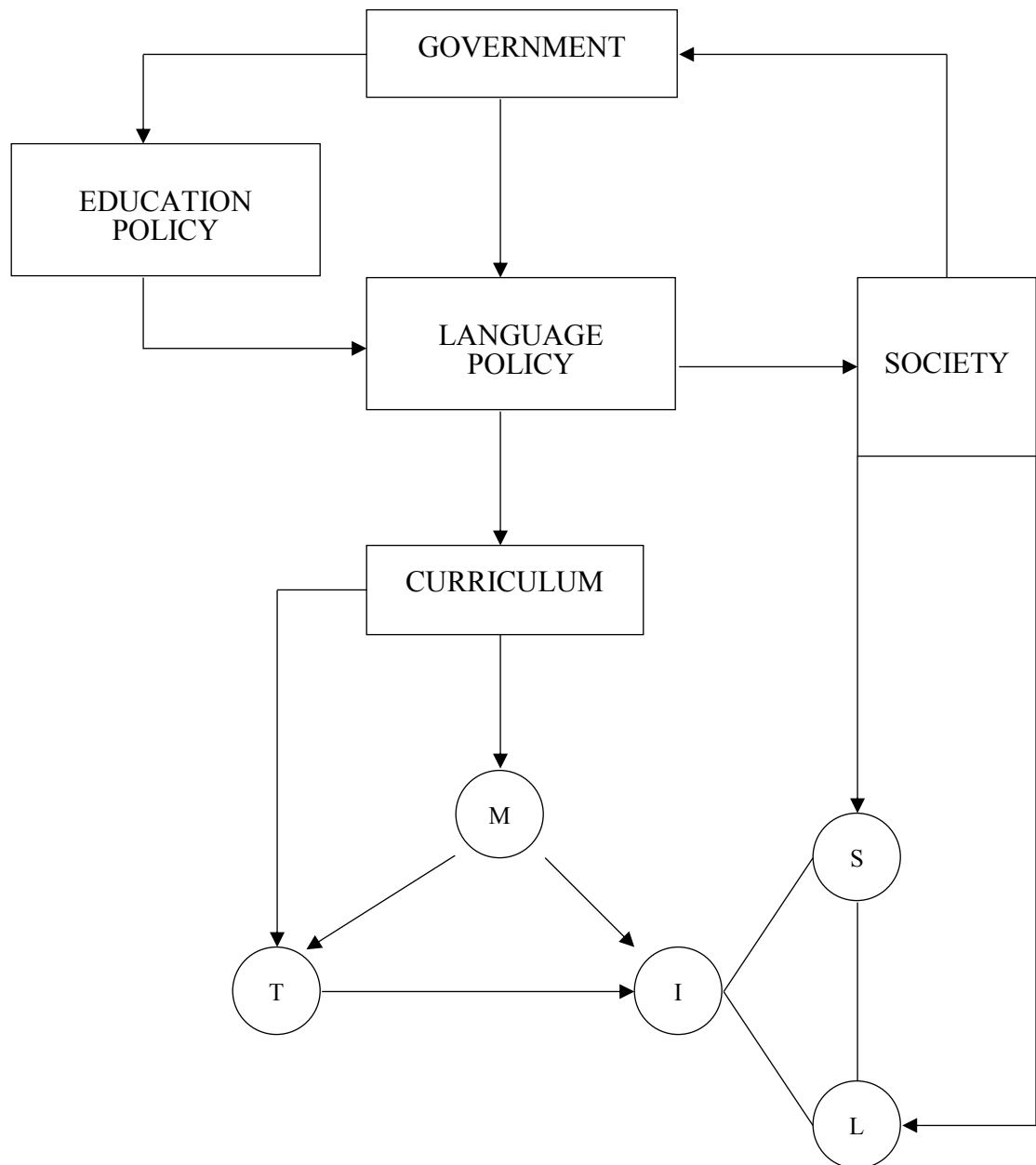
M = Method and material variables: texts, tapes, films (cf. *Language Teaching Analysis*, Part II)

T = Teacher variables: what the teacher does. (cf. *Language Teaching Analysis*, Part III)

I = Instruction variables: what the learner gets (cf. Jakobovits)

S = Sociocultural variables: What the environment does (cf. Jakobovits)

L = Learner variables: what the learner does (cf. Jakobovits)

Figure 2. Mackey's interaction model of language learning, teaching, and policy (Jackobovits, 1970)

Mackey explained, "The government may be responsible not only for which languages are learned and by whom, but for when and how they are taught and by whom" (p. ix). In Indonesia, for example, the government mandates that elementary and middle school students to learn the native languages that are dominant in the area like Javanese and Sundanese, whereas English is a mandatory subject starting from middle school or the seventh grade. In addition, each language learned in school has its own teacher. It is uncommon in Indonesia that an English teacher, who has an excellent level of the other languages taught in the school-native language and Bahasa, is assigned to substitute for native language and Bahasa teachers. Mackey (1970) described the relationship among government, which languages are learned (language policy), who teaches the language (teacher), how the language is taught (teaching strategies), and who learned the language (students) in his model. The relationship is depicted in figure 2. The figure describes that government's policy, which is manifested in the curriculum of language teaching and learning, directly influences T (teacher variables: what the teacher does) and M (method and materials). These two variables, in turn, influence the I (what learners get).

According to Mackey, instruction (I), sociocultural (S), and learner (L) variables are closely related, as society affects all of them. The family and the environment in which the learner develops habits may help the learner acquire different sets of other language skills. In many cases of L2 learning, for example, a language learner may be able to develop a certain level of ability to understand spoken language. However, the ability to speak the language may not be as high. Thus, the speaking ability needs to be developed through a series of instructional activities delivered by a language teacher.

Stern (1992) proposed a model that presents additional variables involved in language teaching. Like Mackey, Stern (1992) provided a model for his framework that includes three levels: foundation, interlevel, and practice, which is presented in Figure 3 below.
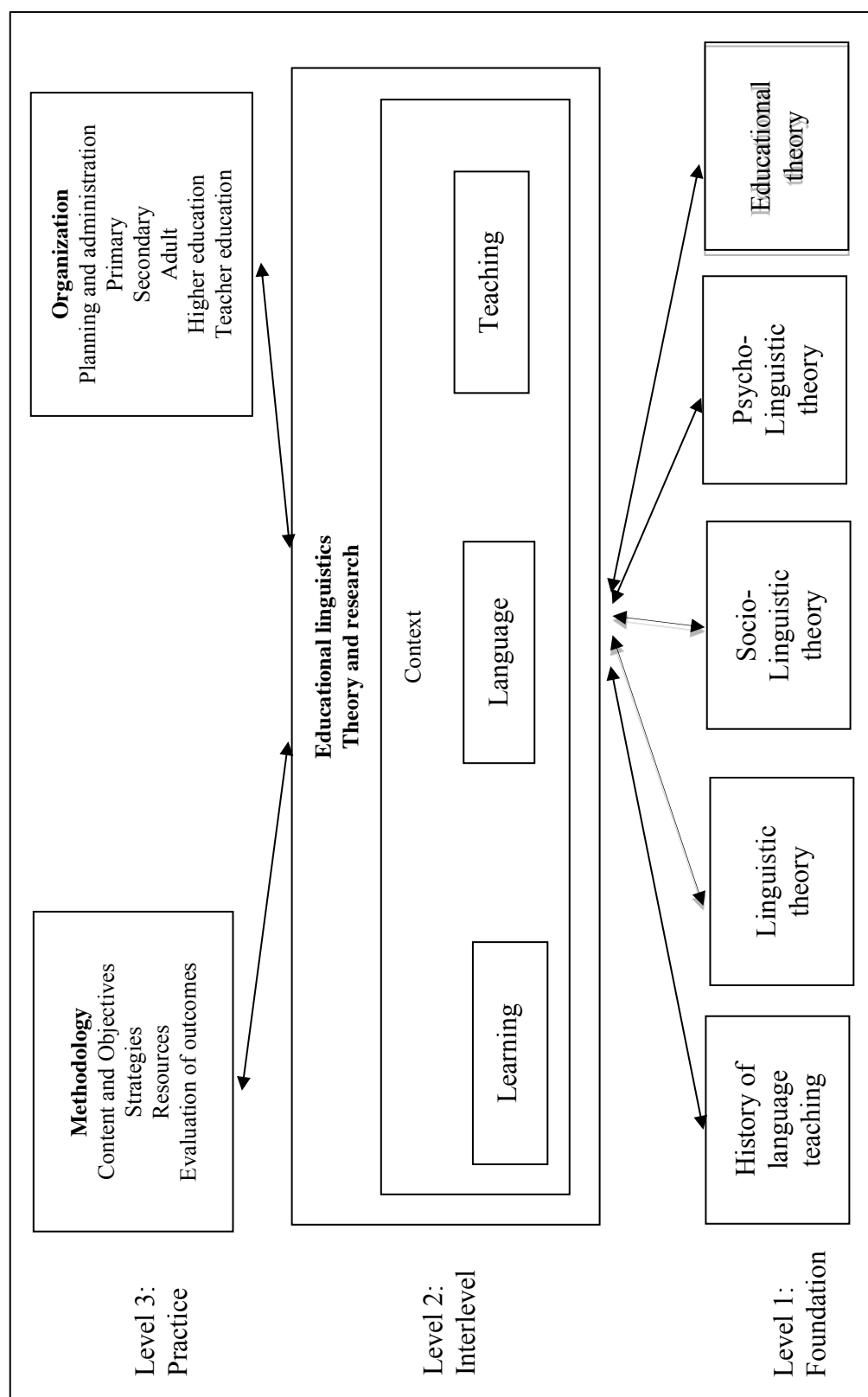
Figure 3. Stern's conceptual framework in language teaching.

Stern divided his framework into three levels, and each level serves different purposes. Level 1 serves as the foundation for every language teacher to be minimally qualified. According to Stern (1992), it is imperative for a language teacher to be knowledgeable in five aspects of language teaching: history of language teaching, linguistic theory, sociolinguistic theory, psycholinguistic theory, and educational theory.

In the middle of the diagram, level 2 refers to the moderator between level 1 and level 3. This level represents the efforts made by L2 teachers to analyze, interpret, and evaluate academic theories in practice. This level takes learning contexts, such as local society, students' family background, and political situation into consideration as the basis for the teacher to design a language course (Kindsvatter et al., 1988). Level 3 represents the level in which the teacher puts all knowledge and experience into practice, teaching methodology and classroom management. Overall, Stern (1992) maintained that these three levels are important for developing their beliefs about language teaching and learning. Stern included teachers' knowledge about language in his framework, but Mackey did not specifically address teachers' knowledge these subjects, although it could be included under the teacher (T) category.

History of Language Teaching

L2 language teachers should understand the evolution of language teaching methodology. This knowledge is useful for helping them understand the best instructional methods that fit with their students' learning. In addition, L2 teachers who possess in-depth knowledge of a variety of teaching methods are more apt "to communicate what they know about their work to those who are learning it" (Freeman, 2002, p. 11).

Language teaching has experienced transformation in relation to teaching methods, which once focused on discrete aspects of language skills. The Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) was commonly used in the 19th century to teach language to secondary school students (Howatt, 2004). As it is called, GTM focuses on translating words from one language to another and intensively learning grammatical rules. Although GTM has received criticism for lack of student active involvement, Richards and Rodgers (1986) maintained that GTM is still popular among language classes, especially in the context of foreign language teaching. Unlike GTM, which focuses on receptive language skills, the Direct Method concentrates on producing language like a native speaker. Accordingly, language classes that employ the Direct Method are exclusively conducted in the target language. Richard and Rodgers (1986) argued that not all L2 teachers possess native proficiency. This issue leads to another issue with the affordability to hire native speakers.

Lado (1964) proposed a new approach in language teaching, the Audiolingual Method (ALM), which focuses on the speaking and listening skills when learning a new language. ALM forms students' habits by repeating teachers' sentences and replacing a word or two in the sentence with new words. Although this approach may focus on the speaking and listening skills, this method may be used to improve students' writing skills as well. Replacing a word in a written sentence may improve students' ability in spelling and grammar.

One of the most popular language teaching methodologies today is Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). CLT is considered a comprehensive methodology that focuses on the learners' ability to convey meanings to other people

through the set of competencies they possess: grammatical, sociolinguistics, discourse, and strategic (Brown, 1987; Canale, 1983; Hymes & Halliday, 1979; Richards & Rodgers, 1986). A plethora of frameworks has emerged based on the CLT, such as task-based framework (Littlewood, 2004) and communicative competence (Celce-Murcia, 2007).

Contextual language teaching accounts for local individual, institutional, social, and cultural contexts (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, 2003). Contextual language teaching holds that the previous language teaching methodologies are a one-size-fits-all methodology. In addition, Kumaravadivelu (2003) maintained that because most theories were established in English-speaking environmental contexts, theorists tended to exclude the contexts in which English was used only on special occasions based on individual and institutional needs. Kumaravadivelu also advocated for a focus on learning L2 learners' own culture instead of the culture of the target language to strengthen the learners' identity.

Linguistics and Language Teaching

Historically, the field of linguistics has had profound influence on foreign language teaching. Kaplan (1980), Stern (1983), and Richards and Rodgers (1986) suggested that modifications in the language teaching methodologies often mirror suggestions proposed by linguists. While linguistics focuses heavily on the description of language, teachers usually concentrate on how language is used in communication (Widdowson, 1978). Accordingly, linguistics is often concerned with the correctness of the language, whereas language teachers are often concerned with the use of language.

Language teachers are expected to understand the organization of the language being taught as well as to teach the target language using a variety of teaching methodologies.

Sociolinguistics and Language Teaching

Sociolinguists study language and the society in which language is used. In many cases, two cultures may have different usage of a certain expression. For example, it is common in Indonesian contexts for someone who is delivering a speech to end her speech by requesting an apology to the audience for "honest mistakes", whereas in other cultures, such a custom may not exist. Language teachers are expected to understand the culture of the target language including the dialects and the native speaker's actions in a specific situation (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983; Lado, 1964). Living in the society where the target language is used contributes greatly to teachers' experience and knowledge of the culture of the target language. The assimilation, in turn, encourages language learners to participate actively and to learn continuously about the expected behavior of the target community. Therefore, a profound knowledge of sociolinguistics of the target language is imperative for language teachers.

Psycholinguistics and Language Teaching

Learning a first and second language is certainly different. While language learners learn both first and second languages from their environment, there are several other factors that make learning the two languages different, such as age (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991) and individual differences (Brown, 1987; Jakobovits, 1970; Stern, 1983). Age determines the way learners learn a language. Children, for instance, learn a second language differently from adults. Individual differences relates to

learners' cognition and attitude. In short, language teachers' understanding of these issues helps them find the language teaching methodology that suits their students.

Education Theory and Language Teaching

Knowledge of education theory includes knowledge of teaching methodologies and the diversity of learners (Halliday, McIntosh, & Strevens, 1964). The principles of sound pedagogy as well as instructional techniques are closely related to the success and failure of language learning. Knowing how to assess students' proficiency is also another essential skill so that L2 teachers can measure how far learners have learned the language and what to teach next.

Teaching L2 Reading: Implementation of Stern's Framework

This section presents a modification of Stern's model, which is presented in Figure 3. The modification, which is presented in Figure 4, is called the Teaching of L2 Reading. The first level of the modified figure is the foundation or general theory of teaching L2 reading. Bamford and Day (1998) proposed that there are two main approaches in teaching L2 reading: intensive and extensive reading. Intensive reading consists of three parts, which are grammar-translation, skill and strategies, and comprehension questions and language works. Level 2 of the modified figure is the implementation of the reading approaches. Nation's *Four Strands* is used in this study. The Four Strands model consists of the aspects of meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning, and fluency development. Level 3 is the procedure commonly found in English classes. They are pre-reading, whilst-reading, and post-teaching activities. Each aspect of Nation's Four Strands may be used in one of the activities listed in level three.

Level One of the Modified Figure

a. Intensive reading

i. Grammar-Translation (GT)

Reading knowledge of the target language becomes the priority in most foreign language teaching environments. Grammar-translation requires teachers and students to translate texts into the native language and read them in the target language. A typical day of a class that applies GT consists of the teacher's reading the text aloud and the students' repeating after the teacher or following along in the textbook. Using this model, the teacher encourages the students to pay attention to the meaning at the sentence level. Thus, the meaning of the text is constructed via the first language of the learners.

ii. Skills and Strategies

A skills and strategies approach concentrates on the skills and strategies that readers use to comprehend a text. In a class in which the teacher adopts this approach, a teacher usually teaches the vocabulary used in the text before they start to read the passage. In addition, the teacher tries to activate the students' background knowledge by asking them to read short passages. Activating background knowledge aims to help the students comprehend the text. The teacher then lets the students read the text silently to find the answers of the previously given questions. The teacher then assigns the students to small groups to discuss their answers and gives them some questions that require them to use various reading strategies such as finding the main idea, making inferences, or guessing the meaning of a word from a context.

iii. Comprehension Questions and Language Work

The comprehension questions and language work approach is still commonly found in most L2 workbooks favoring the GT approach (Williams & Moran, 1989). Textbooks contain short passages to highlight the use of certain vocabulary or grammatical rules in the target language. Students are encouraged to read the passages word-for-word and answer the comprehension questions and exercises that follow the passages. Williams and Moran (1989) asserted that the purpose of the comprehension questions is not well substantiated.

b. Extensive Reading

The other approach that is commonly found in EFL reading class, according to Bamford and Day (1998), is extensive reading. The purpose of the strategy is to encourage the students to be good readers in a second and foreign language. When adopting this strategy, the teacher gives the students freedom to choose the books they want to read. The students usually read the books at home. The teacher then provides post- reading activities ranging from requiring the students to answer the questions to asking them to write a book report. The extensive reading classroom may include reading the same books with the teacher's guidance and silent reading when the students read their books of their choice at their own reading rate. There has been a proposal that extensive reading should be promoted in foreign language classrooms because reading will likely make students' reading rates higher (Beglar, Hunt, & Kite, 2012).

These four approaches are never applied independently (Bamford & Day, 1998). Teachers and textbooks may use a combination of the four approaches. For example, a

teacher would assign her students a text that adopts the grammar-translation approach.

The text may also contain instructions to use an extensive reading component, or similarly, a skill-based reading course may include instructions that require the students to use their individual skills and strategies to understand the text. In addition to this, Bamford and Day (1998) argued that grammar-translation and comprehension-based approaches are still commonly used to prepare students for tests both national and international.

Level Two of the Modified Model: Nation's Four Strands

Stern's interlevel, or level 2, acts as the mediator between level one and level three of his theory. In Figure 3, Nation's design, "The Four Strands," serves as the mediator between the foundation level and the practice level. This is based on the argument that L2 teachers reading face a unique challenge of becoming the mediator between L1 and L2. Apart from encouraging their students to love reading, or at least comprehend the English texts they read, they have to account for the students' attitude toward reading in their first language. The students, especially older students like high school students, already have knowledge of their language (Nation, 2007). For example, most of they may have very limited problems to decode the words, possess a significant amount of vocabulary, or build a sentence using correct grammar in their first language. They have the cognitive ability to understand abstract concepts and may have basic reading skills, such as skimming and scanning. On the other hand, older students who learn to read in a second or foreign language also come with some challenges to the teachers. Materials, for instance, need to be chosen wisely to make sure that they are at

the level of the language proficiency of the students. Wisely chosen materials affect the students engagement to the reading.

Nation (2007) asserted that "reading should be used a way of developing proficiency" (p. 6). At the end of the day, the ultimate goal of teaching EFL is to enable the students to communicate using the language. Nation (2007, 2009) offered a theory to teaching reading effectively. He theorized that distributing time between the four aspects equally when teaching reading helps the students' vocabulary improved. The four aspects are:

a. **Meaning-focused input.** Meaning-focused input refers to the listening and reading activities that are "using language receptively" (Nation, 2007). The aim of this strand is to direct the students' attention to the reading activities so that they understand and gain knowledge from the reading. Meaning-focused input also aims to make the learners enjoy reading. The condition for this particular principle includes materials at the students' proficiency level. By this, it means that the students understand 98% of the vocabulary used in the text, and they to guess the meaning of the remaining 2% from the context. Listening stories, extensive reading, and having a conversation are examples of activities that can be done in the classroom. To make this strand effective, large inputs should be provided.

b. **Meaning-focused output.** Meaning-focused output refers to the activities in which the students try to convey their understanding of the text to someone else. Unlike the first strand, this strand aims to train students to use language productively. This can be done mainly in oral and written forms, although listening can also be used in a way related to the activity. Activities like writing letters, writing diary entries,

having show-and-tell presentations, and having a discussion on a certain topic are

typical activities to implement this strand. Nation (2007) argued that there are

conditions underlying this strand. Learners' familiarity with the discussed topic and

language is central to this strand. This strand also allows students to make use of

dictionary to minimize the gaps between the existing knowledge and the new

knowledge aimed. Opportunities to use the language productively are extensive.

c. **Language-focused learning.** Language-focused learning activities are those that

concentrate on the language features. The main objective of this strand is to learn

something intentionally. This strand requires students to think deeply about what is

being learned and may require them to do the same activities repeatedly to gain the

new knowledge. Instances of language-focused learning activities are using

dictionaries to look up new vocabulary, looking at the grammar features, and

receiving teachers' feedback on their writing assignments. Teaching reading

strategies is also included in this principle. Strategies like previewing, connecting

to background knowledge, guessing words from the context, critiquing, and

reflecting on the text are needed to train students to do effective reading. Nation

(2007) maintained that to have this strand be successful, these language-focused

learning activities might occur in the other strands.

d. **Fluency development.** Fluency development refers to the development of a

student's reading fluency. This strand involves using the four language skills to

succeed. Strategies such as repeated reading, paired reading, scanning, and

skimming are some strategies relevant to reading fluency development. In addition

to this, students read for pleasure.

Level 3 of Stern's model refers to the execution of the design. In the next diagram, it is indicated by the three main strategies for teaching L2 reading: pre-reading, whilst-reading, and post-reading activities. Nation's four strands do not provide explicit standard procedures to apply the design. However, he recommended distributing teaching time equally among the four strands.

There are two examples of comprehensive reading procedures: reciprocal teaching and concept-oriented reading instruction (CORI), proposed by Palinscar and Brown (1986) and Guthrie (2003), respectively. Palinscar and Brown (1986) offered an interactive teaching to promote independent learning from text. They proposed sequential steps of teaching reading between adults and children, *reciprocal teaching*. The steps in reciprocal teaching consist of predicting, question generating, summarizing, and clarifying. The main point of the procedure is to involve the students in a dialogue so that both the teacher and students work cooperatively to understand a text. The first step aims to activate students' background knowledge. This step leads the students to recognize the text format that can help them anticipate what they will find next. Question generating is to ask the students about the text and to train the students to ask themselves questions; thus, they do not wait for their teachers' questions and not only respond to the text questions. The summarizing step is to integrate the information read in the text. The clarifying step is to focus on the difficult points of the text. This step is to encourage the students to be aware of the challenges that prevent them from comprehending the text. Palinscar and Brown (1986) argued that reciprocal teaching was effective in improving the students' reading performance by 70% after a few

meetings. In addition, Palinscar (2003) claimed that this approach is most effective for students who have significant challenges in understanding texts.

CORI aims to improve the students' reading engagement and motivation. This reading program is designed based on the hypothesis that motivation, cognitive, and behavior are interrelated; thus, one component affects the others. It is claimed that these intervention strategies are effective to improve students' reading motivation (Guthrie, 2003; Guthrie, McRae, & Klauda, 2007).

CORI includes six steps of instruction: activating background knowledge, questioning, searching for information, summarizing, organizing graphically, and structuring stories (Guthrie, 2003). This approach is different from other reading approaches because it provides the steps for the students to organize their comprehension graphically by creating diagrams, charts, or concept maps. At the end of the instruction, the students are encouraged to utilize diagrams to construct a story. For effective results, one strategy should be taught at least 30 to 60 minutes daily for 6 to 10 weeks depending on the students' comprehension ability. CORI proposes five instructional practices to ensure students' success in reading comprehension: knowledge goal, real-world connection, optimal student choices, interesting texts, and collaboration for comprehension.

The first aspect, knowledge goal, refers to students' familiarity with concept used in the text. The students are likely to struggle to understand a text with which they are less familiar. Real-world connections are most helpful to younger students because abstract concepts are challenging for them. Thus, learning a concept with which they have experience improves students' comprehension skills. The third instructional

practice, optimal student choices, refers to students' independence in making choices to increase their motivation. This can be in the form of letting the students choose which page they want to read or how they show their teacher their understanding of the text. CORI also recommends utilizing different varieties of texts in its instructional practice. Maps, narrative texts, posters, and pictures are valuable in building the relationship between students and the text. Working collaboratively with friends is one of the most important practices suggested in CORI. This activity promotes engagement between the students and the text, which leads to better comprehension. Students in CORI classrooms are described as "motivated, strategy-oriented, and sociable" (Swan, 2003).

These two procedures for teaching reading are applied mostly in environments where English is used as the first language. Furthermore, the main purpose of these procedures is to enable the students to apply the strategies in the content area readings. As the nature of the current research is different from the two first theories mentioned, the research uses the third theory to serve as its theoretical framework. These two procedures utilize systematic steps to provide scaffolding to the students. In addition, the steps are designed in such a way that one step should follow the other so that the students' engagement with the text remains during the lesson. Nation's design is flexible enough to be applied to teaching EFL reading. For example, extensive reading can appear in meaning-focused input and fluency development.

Level Three of the Modified Model

Level 3 describes the general procedures that L2 teachers usually do to organize the class. Nation's theory does not specify which strands should be included in the pre-

reading, whilst-reading, or post-reading activities, which provides L2 reading teachers freedom to adjust their teaching strategies.

To facilitate understanding of the description, Figure 4 is presented below:
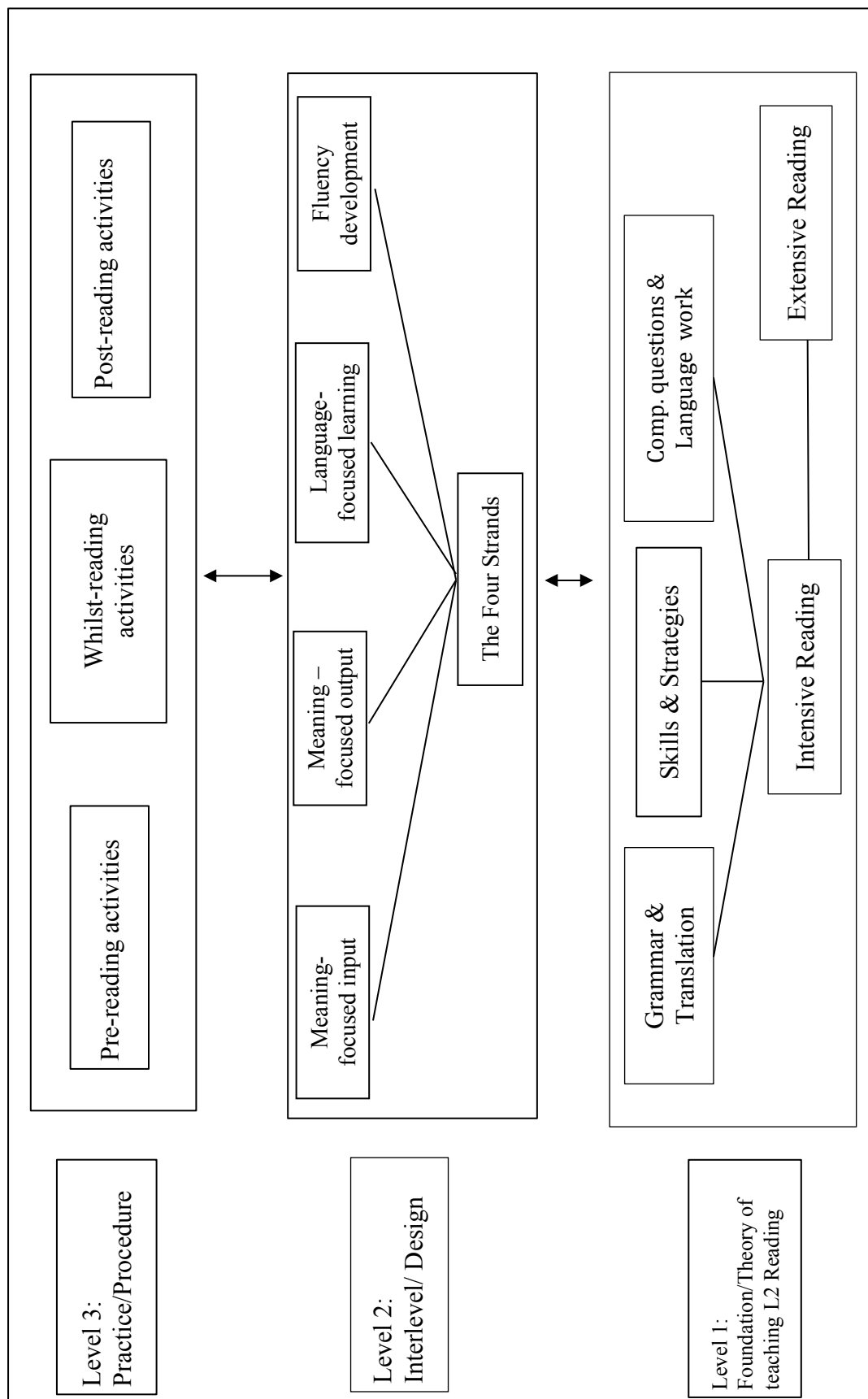
Figure 4. The teaching of L2 reading (modified by Murtiningsih).

The model shows that there are four different approaches in teaching reading in the L2 context. Each approach focuses on different areas of L2 reading. In many cases, a teacher uses different approaches to meet the needs of the students in a certain time and, at the same time, to avoid boredom. On the other hand, many reading texts designed for L2 reading classes combine the four approaches. For example, a reading text consists of grammar-focused activities and provides comprehension questions at the end of the passage. Some reading texts also provide instructions to help improve students' reading skills and strategies, grammar and translation activities, and suggestions for the readers to read extensively.

The four strands combine the four approaches in its design. In addition, this design also proposes the idea that reading activities should aim to improve students' language proficiency, as other language skill activities should do. Guthrie (2003) implied that interaction with the texts occurs when the readers are able to translate the text into spoken language. This is in line with the meaning-focused output in the four strands, in which the aim is to enable the students to let others know their understanding of the printed texts.

In his design, Nation put an emphasis on the amount of input that L2 students should receive to prepare them for the next activities. The input is usually closely related with the vocabulary mastery that the students possess. Studies show that vocabulary plays an extremely important role in reading comprehension (Chung & Nation, 2003; Folse, 2010; Krashen, 2013; Laufer & Ravenhorst-Kalosvski, 2010) and that vocabulary can be learned through subconscious language acquisition (Krashen, 1978, 2013). The teacher can provide this opportunity through the activities in meaning-

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focused input and extensive reading. The third strand, language-focused learning, is where the incremental learning takes place. This part of the design allows teachers to create activities that focus on developing students' skills to read effectively. Training in reading strategies, grammar-focused learning, and metacognitive strategies are included in this strand. Fluency development is the strand in which the teachers encourage the students to enjoy reading and provide access to a wide variety of books.

Literature Review

Teachers' Beliefs

The study of human behavior has received attention from theorists in a variety of fields of study such as psychology, cognitive psychology, and social cognition. Bandura (1986), for example, suggested that each individual has internal force that drives him or her to do what he or she does. There has been no agreement among researchers in defining the term *beliefs*. However, there have been many attempts to define what beliefs actually are. For example, Borg (2001, p. 1) pointed out that beliefs have several common features, such as the truth element, which means that the individual accepts the *beliefs* as truths. In addition, she argued that one may be conscious or unconscious of their beliefs and that one may evaluate one's beliefs.

Beliefs are also interpreted as a means to reach the ultimate objective of an activity. Nespor (1987) argued that beliefs consist of *existential presumption, alternativity, affectivity and evaluative aspects*, and *episodic storage*. By this, he meant that teachers' beliefs are the propositions that involve affective and evaluative components, which are organized in a way that can guide them to achieve the ideal situations. For example, a teacher that organizes her class in a specific way believes that

her way of organizing her class will help her reach her ultimate goals. In short, Nespor (1987) suggested that we need to understand the ideal situations that teachers would like to pursue as well as their perspectives of teaching learning processes. This, in turn, helps us understand their teaching practices.

After reviewing a number of seminal works, Pajares (1992) maintained that "beliefs may also become values, which house the evaluative, comparative, and judgment functions of beliefs and replace predisposition with an imperative to action" (p. 314). Indeed, for teachers, beliefs have significant roles because beliefs can help them learn new knowledge and interpret new phenomena before finally deciding if they will adapt their beliefs with the new knowledge.

According to Kindsvatter et al. (1988), there are two types of beliefs: *unexamined beliefs*, which are based on their experiences and intuition, and *examined beliefs*, which come from readings and rational bases. Unexamined beliefs may come from practice that has been conducted for an extended period of time and with which teachers have already felt comfortable performing. Meanwhile, examined beliefs come from research findings and scholarly practice.

Although Pajares (1992) indicated that some scholars use *beliefs* and *perspectives* interchangeably, Kindsvatter et al. (1988) differentiated the two, and this study followed the latter approach. As stated in Chapter 2, beliefs are entities that are held unconsciously, and they often manifest in one's practice. Perspectives, on the other hand, are opinions about the appropriateness of one's practices.

Relationship between Beliefs and Practice

Teachers' beliefs are related to many aspects of teaching and learning. These beliefs are closely correlated with "how they think about teaching, how they learn from their experiences, and how they conduct themselves in the classrooms" (Grossman et al., 1989, p. 31). This statement suggests that teachers teach their students the way they do based on the beliefs they have about teaching and learning. Some studies indicate that beliefs do relate to teachers' classroom practices (Burns, 1992; Li & Walsh, 2011; Richardson, Anders, Tidwell, & Lloyd; 1991).

Richardson et al. (1991) investigated the relationship between the two entities in reading comprehension instruction. They studied 39 teachers of grades 4, 5, and 6 and observed their classroom practices. The interviews on the teachers' beliefs about teaching reading comprehension found that the majority of these teacher participants taught reading using a word approach to understand the meaning conveyed by the author of the text. Very few participants taught reading to construct meaning out of the text. The study concluded that there was a relatively strong relationship between teachers' beliefs about reading process and instructional practices.

Although teachers' beliefs and practices are closely related, the relationship is often complicated and complex. Li and Walsh (2011) described the relationship of beliefs and practices as symbiotic relationship. By this, they argued that the "beliefs are both shaped by and shape ensuing interaction" (p. 53). This was visible in their two participants, who demonstrated what they believed about L2 teaching and learning in their class.

That beliefs usually remain invisible but observable was also evident in a study by Burns (1992). She studied an L2 teacher who taught students with a low level of L2 proficiency. The study showed that although the teacher's beliefs were not articulated, there was interplay between these beliefs and the decision-making performed by the teacher. The study suggested that people in a teacher education program attempted to understand teachers' personal beliefs.

Beliefs and Change

Although beliefs may be resistant to change, it does not mean that beliefs cannot change. After all, changing teachers' beliefs often becomes the agenda of professional development and most educational reform initiatives (Prawat, 1992). This goal is usually challenging to achieve. The challenge to change is particularly true when teachers are asked to adopt and implement new teaching concepts and techniques.

Beliefs may adapt to new knowledge if one is confident that her current beliefs are unsatisfactory. However, reading research rarely promotes changes in beliefs by itself (Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992). Although changing beliefs is not impossible, in general, one's beliefs about something may change if one has witnessed that one's beliefs are no longer relevant through experience. Even so, experiences alone may not be sufficient to change an individual's beliefs. Peacock (2001) conducted a study involving 146 student teachers at City University of Hong Kong. The study, which was conducted for three years, showed that the trainee ESL teacher participants' beliefs did not change after taking a TESL methodology course. Over the course of three years, the participants still believed that learning a second language was a matter of learning vocabulary and grammatical rules, which would inevitably be manifested in future

instructional practices. Inozu (2011) conducted a similar study that had 326

participants, including freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors in college. They

were asked to complete a 12-question survey on foreign language learning. The study

showed that there were no significant differences among these four groups of students

despite their taking several years of courses in an education program. This means that

the courses they had taken in college may not have an effect on their beliefs in language

learning.

Other studies, however, showed that new experiences could influence beliefs to

change. A study conducted by Borg (2005) investigated a trainee who was studying in a

private language school in England. The data was gathered in a four-week period during

which the trainee had to take courses, such as guided preparation for teaching practice,

practicum, and teaching practice feedback. The results showed that the participant's

beliefs "changed in a complex way, involving limited change, some elaboration and, in

other areas, little development of her beliefs" (p. 25). These beliefs included using

affective strategies, giving feedback, being knowledgeable in the subject matter, and

projecting the voice when teaching. The variety of changes in different areas of teaching

skills in Borg's participant after she participated in a short course indicated that pre-

service teachers might have experiences that could influence her beliefs.

Similarly, Rust (1994) found that experiences contribute to changing beliefs.

Rust's longitudinal research, which involved new teachers, found that in the first year of

their teaching career, these new teachers held beliefs that reflected an ideal educational

process. In the second year, these two teachers had different beliefs from their first year,

which were heavily influenced by their experiences. They believed that teaching should emphasize on taking control of the class, which contradicted with their initial beliefs.

<div align="center">*Student Teachers' Beliefs*</div>

Pajares (1992) described students of teacher education programs as different from students in other departments, like medicine and law. According to Pajares, future doctors and lawyers have preconceived notions about what they are going to do in the future. However, students who come to teacher education programs bring their own conceptions of teaching with them that are often unorganized and inconsistent (Kagan, 1992; Goodman, 1988; Barnes, 1989). Student teachers may assume that the method that a teacher educator uses is one-size-fits-all.

Teacher education programs must deal with pre-existing beliefs as a routine matter because beliefs sometimes conflict with the practices advocated in the program. Unfortunately, teacher education institutions often have limited influence in changing pre-service teachers' beliefs (Barnes, 1989; Brousseau & Freeman, 1988). Teacher educators agree that beliefs should be shaped in some way; however, there is no agreement among teacher educators regarding the ways the student teachers' preconceptions should be shaped.

Bernat and Gvozdengko (2005) argued that student teachers' preconceived beliefs could be positive or negative. Positive beliefs, like motivation and attitude, can help student teachers overcome problems they encounter during the course of their study. However, pre-service teachers may also come into a program with negative preconceived beliefs, such as frustration, anxiety, and unrealistic expectations, which can influence performance (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). For example, a foreign

language student teacher may experience anxiety, which might result in procrastination and avoidance.

It is important for teacher preparation programs to understand the beliefs of student teachers because beliefs influence the way pre-service teachers understand the subject knowledge, organize the class, structure the class, and teach the class (Bernat & Gvozdengko, 2005; Hollingsworth, 1989; Pajares, 1992). Hollingsworth (1989) conducted a comprehensive investigation of student teachers' beliefs before, during, and after a teacher education program. Hollingsworth (1989) started with interviewing a group of 14 participants to ascertain their philosophies, educational experiences, and other issues related to teaching and learning in effort to establish a baseline profile. Teaching observations were carried out to support the interview data. The study showed that there were mixed results in the changes in participants' beliefs and knowledge. The study implies that "it *might* be possible to educate pre-service teachers who will challenge conservative school models" (p. 186).

Some scholars acknowledge that teacher educators and teacher preparation programs should attempt to modify beliefs. Bernat and Gvozdengko (2005) suggested that shaping beliefs could be done by simply paying attention to teaching. Through self-analysis, positive beliefs would be cultivated, and negative beliefs would be eliminated. Horwitz et al. (1988) pointed out that, in relation to teaching, teacher educators can create classroom environments that help student teachers learn to cope with anxiety and make the learning environment less stressful. These steps may help change student teachers' beliefs so that they can be effective teachers in the future.

In addition to preconceived beliefs, student teachers that do not have enough experience or have minimal experience in teaching may possess an unrealistic optimism (Pajares, 1992) and overly idealistic views of teaching (Rust, 1994). Pre-service teachers also tend to have a self-serving bias in that they tend to identify the attributes most important for successful teaching as attributes they already have (Pajares, 1992).

Johnson (1994) pointed out that second-language teacher education has been neglected by mainstream educational research in its attempts to understand the cognitive dimensions of second-language teaching. Only recently have scholars begun to explore the cognitive dimensions of how second-language teachers' thoughts, judgments, and decisions influence the nature of second-language instruction. Johnson (1994) argued that, apart from exploring teachers' beliefs, the field of second-language teaching should establish instructional considerations that are unique to second-language learners. The explorations, Johnson claimed, are useful in determining how pre-service teachers conceptualize their initial teaching experiences, interpret new information about second-language learning and teaching, and translate this information into classroom practice.

Johnson (1994) administered a study that aimed to explore the relationships between pre-service ESL teachers' beliefs about L2 learning and teaching and their perceptions of their instructional practices during the practicum. Four pre-service ESL teachers participated in the qualitative study. The data were collected from the participants' narratives, interviews, and instructional practices during the practicum experience. The study showed the strong influence of the participants' prior experiences on their own opinions of teaching, being a teacher, and their instructional practices. The

participants were critical of their own teacher-directed instructional practices.

Furthermore, they mentioned that they felt powerless to enhance their practices because

of a lack of new experiences and knowledge. The participants also described classroom

constraints and management as overwhelming, which became the justifications of

maintaining the flow of instruction and retaining authority in the classroom.

The Teaching of Reading

The ability to read English texts has been less popular in the past, when

language teaching was focused on speaking ability. In many parts of the world where

English is not used in daily conversations, reading ability may have become the only

way to assess students' English proficiency. This does not necessarily mean that

students want to be able only to read in English (Alderson, 1984; Hadley, 2001). Grabe

(2009) pointed out that second language (L2) learners, who are learning to read in

different settings, at different institutions, and with varying levels of instructional

training and resource support, will have different goals in L2 comprehension.

There has been a handful of studies on the influence of first-language (L1)

reading comprehension on L2 reading comprehension. Hudson (1998) and Nation

(2009) stated that L2 readers are different from L1 readers due to several factors: L2

learners' literacy in L1, differences between L1 and L2 orthographies and literacy

practices in L1, and the learning contexts. Still, reading in L2 requires L1 and L2 to

interact to make sense of a text.

Reading in L1 has been approached in different ways, including bottom-up, top-

down, and interactive approaches (Hudson, 1998). The bottom-up approach looks at the

cognitive information processing that allows the readers to construct meanings from the

text. On the contrary, the top-down approach assumes that readers approach a text with the knowledge that they have. The interaction approach, which considers that reading works in a two-way direction, involves a higher order of mental processes, background knowledge, and text processing. The interaction approach, according to Hudson (1998), requires hierarchically organized skills, which include sight word recognition, phonetic decoding skills, relational knowledge and prediction from context, and comprehension skills.

William and Moran (1989) suggested that in the case of intensive reading, the use of skills and strategies approaches are more popular than comprehension-based activities. According to Bamford and Day (1998), skills and strategies-based reading activities receive more attention for several reasons. First, unlike the translation- and comprehension-based reading activities where the teacher helps with the language, the skills and strategies approach actually requires the teacher to teach. If students' mastery of reading skills and strategies improve, then they will likely be able to comprehend all types of texts better. The skills and strategies approach supports the theory that reading is an interactive process. Background knowledge activation and various reading strategies help the students interact with the texts.

Several factors play important roles in reading instruction, especially in foreign language teaching (Bamford & Day, 1998). First, basic reading skills such as automaticity of word recognition, vocabulary, attitude, and motivation become major factors that influence reading instruction. Second, reading instruction is affected by sociocultural factors. Bell (1995) argued that western and non-western cultures have different understandings of literacy. Bell, an English-speaking Canadian, conducted a

narrative inquiry study in which she became a learner in a Chinese class in Canada. In her study, she found that Chinese literacy was very different from English literacy, which was her first language literacy, and that Chinese literacy requires a different learning style. Bell's teacher, whose first language was Chinese, also used different teaching styles when she taught the two different classes. Thus, cultural backgrounds make learning a foreign language more complicated. Bell (1995) pointed out that "ESL literacy teachers have to recognize that they are teaching far more than the letters of the alphabets" (p. 702).

Bell encourages teachers to assign time reading in L2. Extensive reading has been closely correlated with reading fluency and rate. Beglar et al. (2012) and Iwahori (2008) found that extensive reading has a significant positive effect on their participants' speed. However, there is little research on the effects of extensive reading on reading comprehension (Grabe, 2004).

Day and Bamford (2002) argued that extensive reading would be easier to achieve when the teacher provides materials that are reader-friendly to encourage a positive attitude towards reading. In extensive reading, students are given opportunities to choose the genre of book that they want to read. The availability of reading materials is important so that students can read for pleasure and at their own speed. In addition, Day and Bamford (2002) maintained that teachers should become the model for students to read extensively.

In response to the article, Robb (2002) argued that promoting extensive reading in Asian contexts using Day and Bamford's principles is almost impossible. He taught in a university in Japan in which non-English department students have only a few

hours a week for the English class. Aside from that, EFL classes in Japan, according to him, focus on the four language skills; therefore, the opportunity to have the extensive reading is very slim.

Reading strategies are important to language learners. They are "the comprehension processes that readers use in order to make sense of what they read" (Brantmeier, 2002, p. 1). EFL teachers usually teach these strategies to answer reading comprehension questions. McNeil (2011) pointed out that reading comprehension strategies counts more than background knowledge does in his participants' comprehension scores. McNeil (2011) argued that background knowledge of EFL learners contributed to only 1% of the participants' reading comprehension. He noted that other reading comprehension strategies, like self-questioning, accounted for more than 50% of the participants' comprehension score.

Knight, Padron, and Waxman (1985) asserted that reading strategies are important for both monolingual and bilingual. Citing the work of Chou Hare and Smith (1982), Knight et al. (1985) used reading strategies such as rereading, selective reading, imaging, changing speed, assimilating with personal experiences, concentrating, assimilating with passage events, noting, summarizing, predicting outcomes, self-generated questions, student perceptions of teachers' expectations, and rehearsal in a study with monolingual and bilingual speakers. The study reveals that monolingual students use the reading strategies twice as many times as the bilingual participants. According to the researchers, this influences the low student achievement in the bilingual participants' reading scores. In addition, Anderson (1999) asserted that reading strategies help the learners understand the texts and make the reading fluency.

The more strategies a reader masters, the more likely she or he succeeds in her or his reading. Koda (2005) argued that what differentiates successful and less successful readers when they have to read a difficult text is the way they deal with the difficulties in understanding the text. Metacognitive strategies are one such technique that successful readers use when dealing with texts. The ability to understand the way to perform a strategy helps the readers apply the right strategies for a variety of texts. Thus, good readers always evaluate whether the strategies they use to understand a text is effective (Koda, 2005). In other words, the readers take control of their own learning and decide what the best way to solve the problems is. Citing Hacker (1998), Hudson (2007) asserted that metacognitive strategies are not able to work well if the readers lack basic reading strategies, such as a lack of vocabulary. A research conducted by Zhang (2001) indicated that language proficiency seems to hinder the readers from using the metacognition strategy. EFL learners at two universities in China participated in his study. His participants had different levels of English proficiency, but they had high levels of reading in their first language. The result shows that the participants with lower English proficiency did not use any metacognitive strategies. Their statements indicated that they did not want to use the dictionaries to help them although they did know the meaning. Meanwhile, the participants with high proficiency showed a higher level of awareness in using metacognitive strategies.

Research on Teachers' Beliefs about Teaching Reading

Most studies in teaching reading are conducted in an L1 environment. Hall (2005), for instance, investigated content-area teachers' beliefs about teaching reading to their students. The study showed that some of her content-area teacher participants

did not need reading instruction in order to be successful with the texts that the teachers assigned. Asselin (2000) conducted another research study in Canada on teachers' beliefs and teaching reading and literature. The study, in which 39 student teachers participated, sought to find the influence of what teachers think of reading and literature relative to the implementation of literature-based reading instruction. The research showed that teachers' beliefs influence the way they implement the instruction in the course as well as their students' opinion on the course. Furthermore, the study showed that the student teachers believed that reading is an interactive process. The participants also suggested that textual meanings vary across readers and that reading for pleasure should be a part of reading instruction.

Recently, research on teaching reading in second and foreign language contexts has also received attention. Graden (1996) found that there were inconsistencies between beliefs and reading instruction in six secondary foreign language teacher participants. The participants believed that reading proficiency was facilitated by providing students with frequent opportunities for reading practice, using the target language for reading instruction, and minimizing oral reading because it interferes with reading comprehension. However, all teacher participants compromised these beliefs through poor student performance.

El-Okda (2005) studied 57 EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs about reading instruction at Sultan Qaboos University. The research had three major findings. First, the participants showed strong pre-existing beliefs about teaching and reading skills. Most of the participants believed that it was important for the teacher to model reading because it helps improve the students' pronunciation rather than facilitating independent

silent reading. The research also showed that the pre-service belief systems on reading could host conflicting beliefs. The final finding of the study was that sociocultural background influenced the participants' beliefs.

Farrell's (2001) study focused on the reading strategy instruction, and it was conducted in Singapore. One of the results of the study was that the teacher participants believed that the traditional approach to the teaching of reading that is used in Singapore did not help the students improve their reading ability. The traditional approach referred to the strategy in which students were asked to review relevant vocabulary, read the text, and answer comprehension questions. In addition, the study implied that the teachers had to be prepared to change their practice so that the ideal strategy meets their beliefs, students' needs, and local contexts. Farrell suggested that much time will be necessary to implement such a change in practice.

Teachers' beliefs about teaching reading are also closely related to the professional development received by the teachers. Kuzborska (2011) conducted a study in Lithuania in which she used video-stimulated recall to obtain measures of teachers' beliefs. The study found that the teachers' beliefs were congruent with the practices of many teachers who adopted a skills-based approach to reading instruction, emphasizing vocabulary, reading aloud, translation, and whole-class discussion of texts. In addition, the research showed that the participants did not have sufficient exposure to have an understanding of alternative instructional practices, as they were unable to recall any specific training in reading instruction.

Chapter 3: Methodology

The aim of this study is to examine student teachers' beliefs about teaching reading in Indonesia during their teaching practica. The research aims to investigate the implementation of student teachers' beliefs in practice as well as factors that influence student teachers' decision-making.

Research Design

This study is *descriptive* (Merriam, 2009), which means that this study provides "a rich, 'thick' description of the phenomena under study" (p. 43). Thick description refers to "the complete, literal description of the incident or entity being investigated" (Merriam, 2009, p. 43). Teacher education is a complex process involving continual integration of knowledge and experience. Doyle (1990) asserted that teacher education comprises "a loosely coordinated set of experiences designed to establish and maintain a talented teaching force" (p. 3). As an enterprise that contains complexity and contradiction, teacher education consists of pre-service, induction, and in-service levels of membership in the teaching profession. Murphy (2000) assumed that a teacher's world is cyclical and that the behavior of students and teachers affect one another. The interaction among pre-existing learning experiences, individual interpretation, social interaction, and individual knowledge in teaching becomes a factor in helping make sense of the teachers' world.

This case study describes the beliefs of student teachers in an attempt to understand the meanings that participants ascribe to the *bounded system* (Merriam, 2009, p. 40) or the cases being studied. The role of the researcher in this study is to get as close as possible to the participants being studied (Creswell, 2007) to minimize the

distance between the researcher, the participants, and contexts being studied. Naturally, this qualitative case study is an inductive process, in which data is gathered "to build concepts, hypotheses, or theories rather than deductively testing hypotheses" (Merriam, 2009, p. 15).

Research Sites

The research sites were Islamic high schools where student teachers were assigned to conduct teaching practica. There were three types of Islamic high schools in the city used for data collection: girls-only, boys-only, and mixed-gender. While male and female student teachers had to meet the girls-only and boys-only restrictions of gender-restricted schools, the rest of the student teachers were randomly assigned to mixed gender schools. The gender-restricted schools consisted of middle and high school levels, which meant there were six grade levels in the schools (seventh through twelfth grades). The mixed gender schools only served three high school grade levels (tenth through twelfth grades). Both types of schools had more than one class for each grade level depending on the number of students admitted every year. For example, there were five seventh-grade classes in the girls-only school and three tenth-grade classes in the mixed-gender schools. There were 69 student teachers in the university with up to 12 student teachers assigned to each school. There were six schools in total to which student teachers were assigned to conduct the teaching practica.

Based on government regulations, one school hour equated to 45 minutes of class time. All schools were required to have at least eight school hours per day six days a week. Schools tended to arrange the eight-hour school day in one of two ways. Some divided the eight hours into three parts with 15-minute breaks in between. The first and

second parts consisted of three hours each, and the third part was two hours. Other schools had a slightly different school time arrangement, consisting of four school hours in the first part followed by a 30-minute break. The second and third parts were two school hours each with 30-minute breaks in between to perform the midday prayer collectively.

English lessons were usually given in individual sessions of 1.5 to 2 hours, with at least four school hours devoted to teaching English each week. Gender-restricted schools had every Friday off, as it is a holy day for Muslims, and, therefore, students at these schools had to go to school on Sundays. The mixed-gender school students attended school Monday through Saturday. For both types of schools, the day began at approximately 7:00 A.M. and concluded at approximately 2:00 P.M. The diagram below provides a graphic representation of the school schedules commonly found in Indonesian schools.

7:00 - 10:00 am: first four lessons | 30 minutes break | 10:30 am-12:00 pm: second two lessons | 30 minutes break | 12:30 - 2:00 pm: third two lessons
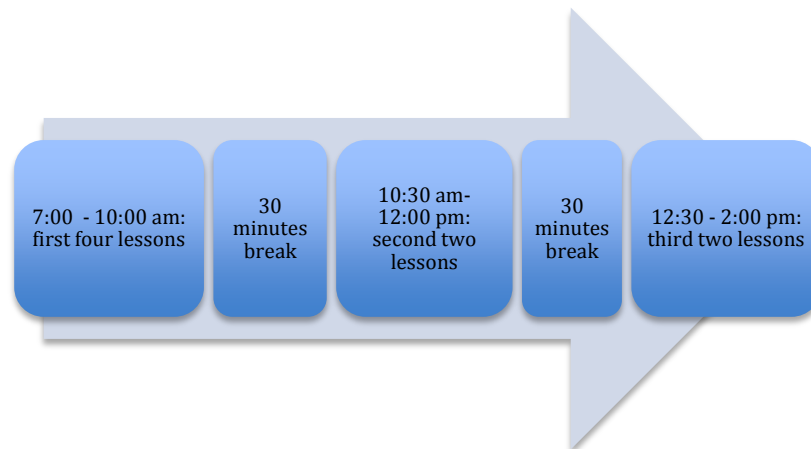
or
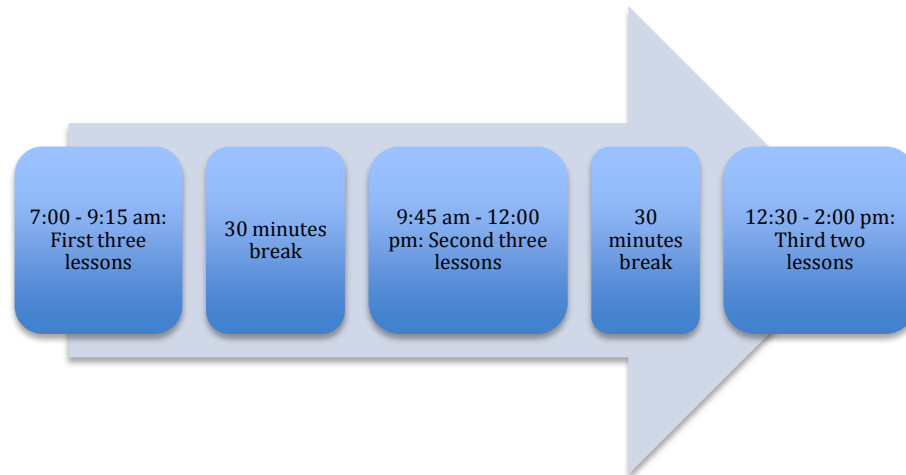
Figure 5. School hour distribution in typical Indonesian high schools.

The cooperating teachers in some schools gave student teachers opportunities to choose which language skills they wanted to focus on when teaching. This was done by showing them the syllabi and the parts of the curriculum that had yet to be covered for the period in which the teaching practica was conducted. Upon selecting topics for teaching, student teachers designed and prepared lessons. The student teachers consulted the cooperating teachers to ensure that lesson plans were in line with the school syllabi. Often, a cooperating teacher suggested modifications to student teachers' lesson plans based upon their perceptions of student needs, personal preferences, and the requirements of the syllabus. Each school usually had at least two English teachers.

During the ten weeks of field experience, student teachers generally used the first few weeks to do class observations. They sat in the cooperating teachers' classes and took notes on what happened during lessons. The amount of individual teaching time was different for each student teacher depending on the school and cooperating teacher. However, based on the requirements of the university, student teachers were

required to perform at least two lessons to allow sufficient time for the cooperating teacher to assess performance.

Typically, each student teacher had to go through two types of field experience: a guided practicum and an independent practicum. In the guided practicum, the cooperating teacher was present for the whole lesson and provided feedback at the end of the lesson. In the independent practicum, the student teachers were given total control of the class without the presence of the cooperating teacher.

Participants

All participants were student teachers in a teacher preparation program for English teachers in a city in Indonesia. The program was a part of an Islamic university, which admitted male and female students who received the same levels of opportunity to participate in various academic activities.

Twenty-one student teachers, consisting of seventeen females and four males, agreed to participate in preliminary interviews. Three of the male student teachers taught in the boys-only school, and the other taught in the mixed-gender school. Meanwhile, seven female student teachers taught in the mixed-gender schools, and ten female student teachers taught in the girls-only school.

Of the 21 student teachers who agreed to participate, one male and one female student teacher dropped out after the pre-observation interviews. The male student teacher, Adi, left for a student exchange to another country after the pre-class observation interview and could not be contacted. Meanwhile, the female, Hira, experienced unexpected teaching assignments that made the post-class observation interview impossible to conduct.

Participants' Backgrounds

The student teachers in the study came from various educational backgrounds. While most had attended public elementary and secondary schools, six participants (Isma, Galuh, Fina, Erna, Kurnia, and Dian) attended Islamic boarding schools in middle school and high school. Bintang attended an Islamic boarding school in high school only.

The boarding schools applied a rule where the students were strongly encouraged to speak in either Arabic or English in their daily conversation when studying and living in school dorms. Each language was used biweekly, English, then Arabic, one after another. In the boarding schools, speaking in the L1 or in a dialect was forbidden. However, adults did not supervise students 24/7; therefore, students had nobody to correct their English if they made mistakes. During English-only speaking weeks, students would switch to Arabic when they encountered difficulties with English vocabulary. Despite the frequency of speaking English, most of these boarding school students still had low self-confidence in their English proficiency. When they were admitted to the English department, they stated that they were astonished by how different their English was from the English of their teacher educators.

Those who did not attend Islamic boarding schools had regular English lessons at school. These students did not have the luxury to use English in their daily conversation like their counterparts who attended boarding schools. Some student teachers mentioned that they attended English courses in which they focused on the tips and tricks to gain higher scores on English subject tests. These student teachers attended either public or religious schools but not boarding schools.

Participants' Teaching Experiences

The English department assigned student teachers to teach in Islamic elementary and middle schools in the first and second year of their studies. However, the student teachers usually team-taught classes with four or five colleagues at a time, and often, they were in charge of the English extracurricular activities in the schools. Most participants did not have any formal teaching experience with high school students before the teaching practica. Three teacher participants, Fina, Isma, and Pita, stated that they were teaching in English training centers at the time of data collection. The other three, Lina, Maria, and Oesman, used to be English instructors in an English club at the university. Prior to student teaching, all participants were required to conduct microteaching, where they had to perform a lesson in a simulated class with their fellows as students.

The activity of microteaching was incorporated with other courses such as Classroom Management. In microteaching, student teachers were to design the lesson plan for a specific grade level and apply the plans to a simulated class. In this class, other student teachers acted as students based on the designated grade level of the lesson plan. Each student teacher was given a specific amount of time, such as 90, 45, or 30 minutes, to deliver the lesson. Although teacher educators were present during the microteaching, the student teachers were not allowed to ask for help during microteaching. Performance was assessed based on certain criteria, such as time management and teaching methodology. The teacher educators also provided feedback to each student teacher.

The English Department required all student teachers, like schoolteachers, to be present at school sites during school hours. Student teachers, who taught in the girls-only and mixed gender schools, complied with the regulation. When they were not teaching, schools assigned student teachers to various administrative tasks, such as supervising examinations and cataloging library books. When these student teachers were not busy with a task, they were in their school-provided office, which was separate from the school teacher's office. Those who taught in the boys-only school, on the other hand, did not follow the department's requirement. This group of student teachers only came to the school when they had lessons to teach. This apparently had become an issue within the English Department. Apart from having to be present at school every day, the student teachers were enrolled in some courses they had to attend in the afternoon.

Data Collection Process

Although teaching practica were conducted from February 13 to April 13, 2013, the main data collection was conducted between March 18 and April 11, 2013. Ancillary data, such as student teachers' lesson plans and narratives, was collected after main data collection. The activities of data collection can be described as follows:
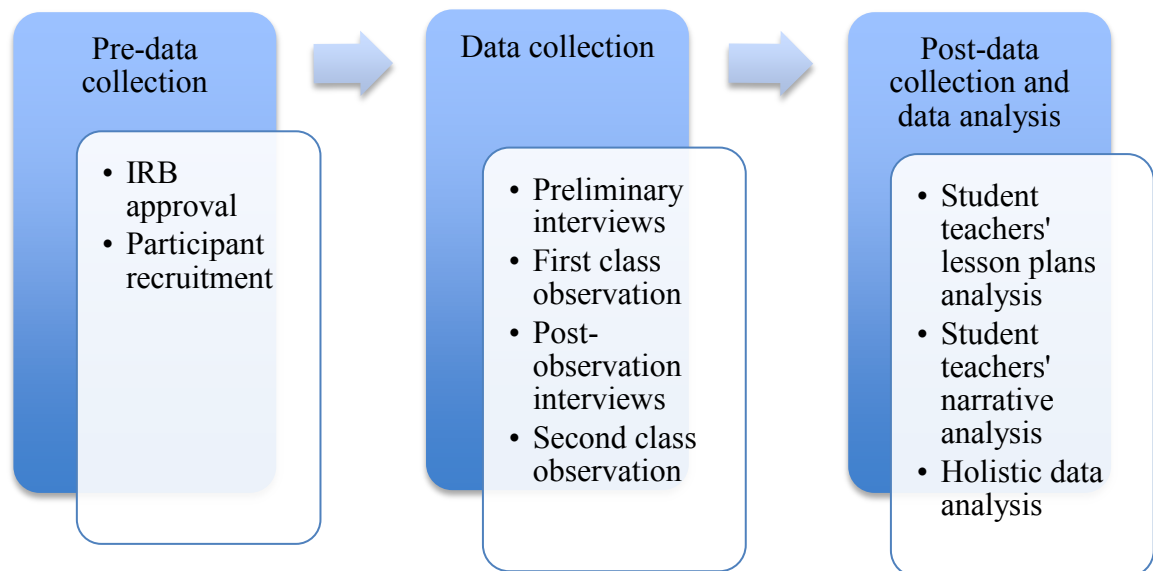
Figure 6. The data collection process.

Pre-Data Collection

The pre-data collection was conducted to ensure that the data collection was valid and reliable. After IRB approval was obtained on February 15, 2013, I began the recruitment process by sending flyers to the points of contact, who were also university professors of the student teachers in Indonesia. The flyers contained information on contacting these professors or me should they be interested in participating.

Five individuals contacted me and stated that they were ready to participate. They were three males (Oesman, Adi, and Jaka) who were teaching in the boys-only school; Chandra, a female who was teaching in a mixed-gender school; and Bintang, another female who was teaching in the girls-only school. There was another female, Fina, who contacted and informed me that 11 student teachers who were teaching in the girls-only school were also interested in participating in the study. She was the coordinator of student teachers teaching at the school and provided a list of potential participants. While I did not find any challenges in setting up appointments for

preliminary interviews, I did not obtain accurate information on when class observations could be carried out. The potential participants were not yet able to provide information on their teaching assignments because teaching assignments were usually set a week in advance. Some of these potential participants were still in the midst of conducting classroom observations. Participant recruitment was an on-going process during data collection.

Data Collection

a. Interviews

When the data collection started, a few student teachers approached me; some were ready to be interviewed on the spot. After I began conducting interviews at the schools, a few more student teachers informed me that they were willing to participate. By the end of data collection, there were 21 student teachers. The interviews were conducted at the participants' convenience in a location such as the student teachers' office at the schools or the university professors' office at the university. Student teachers (Oesman, Adi, and Jaka) who taught in the boys-only school selected the university in the afternoon because they were not completely sure about the school regulation concerning having an opposite sex guest at the school. Moreover, they did not have a specific time schedule to be present at school other than to be there to teach assigned classes. During data collection, it was obvious that the requirement for privacy and confidentiality was not an issue for participants. When a participant selected their office as the venue for interviews, other potential participants left the room.

Before preliminary interviews began, I asked participants to sign informed consent forms. I also asked participants about the language they preferred to use during

the interview and the names they preferred I used to address them. All participants

selected L1 during the interviews and used L2 at their convenience. All participants

stated that they had no objections if their full names were used both during the

interview and in the research report. The interviews were about 45 to 60 minutes long

per participant, audio recorded using my computer.

The study focused upon teaching a specific language skill, reading; however, the

interviews were organized to appear as if it was not specifically about delivering

reading lessons. Although I had the approved interview guideline, the questions in the

actual interviews, in many cases, developed into larger and more general issues. The

purpose was to get honest answers and thorough information about the participants'

beliefs concerning reading and teaching reading as well as to gain insights about the

factors that influenced their instructional decisions. Because of participants' familiarity

with each other, my strategy was aimed at minimizing opportunities for participants to

share information. The first set of questions mainly concerned their experiences in

learning English and their beliefs about teaching and learning English in general.

Personal activity preferences, their beliefs about teaching language, and teaching

material preferences were among the topics in the interview. I also had informal and

friendly conversation with the participants and their colleagues to obtain more

information.

I faced several challenges during data collection. First, discovering how student

teachers taught reading was not easy. For example, when the discussion reached the

topic of the participants' hobbies, only one participant revealed an interest in reading. In

general, participants seemed reluctant to discuss reading, despite the fact that most of them were assigned to teach reading skills.

b. Class observation videos

The classes to be observed were selected by the participants. Like the interview, class observations were structured to appear less focused on the teaching of reading. In this regard, the videos obtained were not exclusively about the participants' activities of teaching reading in class. The lessons delivered by participants were indicated by their lesson plans and the details of lessons and grades taught by student teachers are presented in Table 3.4.

One of the student teachers, who taught in the girls-only school, openly expressed during the pre-class observation interview that she felt uncomfortable with my presence in her class. She mentioned that the presence of any professor would make her feel less confident to perform the task. Despite my efforts to convince her that I was not a threat, she asked that a peer record her video.

Chandra, Galuh, Erna, and Isma let me sit in on their classes and video tape their lessons. Their videos were the first four I recorded. Although some of them appeared to be nervous, they were generally able to carry out the lesson well. When I recorded Kurnia, who was the fifth participant, I could see that she was extremely nervous. She was not able to speak clearly or loudly enough for the whole class to hear, she did not often stand in front of the class when giving instructions and when she did, she kept looking at the video camera. Although I understood that her anxiety might have been caused by a variety of factors, after about 20 minutes, I approached her and asked if she wanted me to leave. She agreed.

After these two experiences, I gave participants a choice of who would operate the video equipment. Most of them expressed that they did not miss my presence. Upon their request, I handed over the video recording equipment and they had a colleague take the video for them. Thus, their colleagues recorded most of the videos.

This arrangement presented advantages and disadvantages. The advantages were that participants felt more comfortable so it helped them teach the class more naturally. Also, the student teachers who helped operate the video equipment, were able to see additional models of teaching and also served as a teacher assistant. For example, when the students on one side of the class needed help with vocabulary, these colleagues were able to provide help to them. On the other hand, this arrangement resulted in problems of quality control. Some videos were choppy or of uneven quality because I had no control over the production of the videos.

c. Post-observation interviews

The post-observation interview appointments were set up with participants before the second videos were recorded. Most of the student teachers had their last two teaching practices during data collection before their teaching practica ended. Most post-observation interviews were conducted between the first and the next class that the participants were assigned to. The time span ranged from two days to a week because the classes were assigned weekly.

During the post-observation interviews, the video was played to help participants recall what happened in class. I asked student teachers to explain what they were doing and their rationale for the activities. The video was paused while student

teachers provided explanations and these interviews were about 20 to 45 minutes for each participant.

Post-Data Collection

Prior to class observations, I asked student teachers to provide lesson plans for the particular lesson they would be teaching. The participants stated that the paperwork was still in progress because they had to consult with supervising teachers and it was evident that student teachers were not comfortable sharing these documents with me. Thus, the lesson plans were obtained after the teaching practica, and either the supervising teachers, participants, or both could have altered the lesson plans. It is also possible however, that there was no alteration to the lesson plans after the class observations were conducted. In this study, participants' narratives were obtained from the notes they wrote and what they learned from the experience. The narrative was the report they submitted to their teacher educators to be graded. In the narratives, student teachers reported their general impressions of the activities carried out at school. Other ancillary data that was used for this study was Horwitz (1988)'s BALLI questionnaires, supporting materials, and other documents relevant to the study.

The following table is provided to give a general description of participants and data obtained.

Table 1
General Description of Participants and Data Obtained

No	Name (Pseudonym)	Preliminary interview	Schools taught	First class observation and grade levels	Post-observation interview	Second class observation and grade level
1	Qisti	Yes	GO	Reading skills (10th)	Yes	Reading skills (10th)
2	Rima	Yes	GO	Reading skills (5th)	Yes	Reading skills (5th)
3	Maria	Yes	MG	Grammar (10th)	Yes	Grammar (10th)
4	Nora	Yes	GO	Reading skills (7th)	Yes	Reading skills (7th)
5	Chandra	Yes	MG	Speaking + reading skills (10th)	Yes	Reading skills (11th)
6	Isma	Yes	MG	Speaking skills (10th)	Yes	Speaking skills (11th)
7	Galuh	Yes	MG	Reading skills (11th)	Yes	Speaking skills (10th)
8	Ni'mah	Yes	GO	Reading skills (8th)	Yes	Video not obtained
9	Erna	Yes	MG	Reading skills (11th)	Yes	Reading text (10th)
10	Lina	Yes	MG	Grammar (10th)	Yes	Grammar (10th)
11	Kurnia	Yes	MG	Listening + Speaking skills (11th)	Yes	Video not obtained

Note. GO = Girls-only school
MG = Mixed-gender schools
BO = Boys-only school

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Table 1
General Description of Participants and Data Obtained (continued)

No	Name (Pseudonym)	Preliminary interview	Type of schools taught	First class observation and grade levels	Post-observation interview	Second class observation and grade level
12	Oesman	Yes	BO	Reading skills (10th)	Yes	Speaking skills (10th)
13	Pita	Yes	MG	Grammar (10th)	Yes	Grammar (10th)
14	Adi	Yes	BO	Withdrawn	No	No
15	Hira	Yes	GO	Withdrawn	No	No
16	Sarah	Yes	GO	Speaking skills (10th)	Yes	Reading & Speaking skills (10th)
17	Bintang	Yes	GO	Writing skills (11th)	Yes	Reading skills (11th)
18	Tia	Yes	GO	Reading skills (7th)	Yes	Reading skills (7th)
19	Umi	Yes	GO	Writing skills (7th)	Yes	Writing skills (7th)
20	Dian	Yes	GO	Reading skills (8th)	Yes	Writing skills (8th)
21	Jaka	Yes	BO	Reading skills	Yes	Video not obtained

Note. GO= Girls-only school
MG = Mixed-gender schools
BO = Boys-only school

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Data Analysis

The data were analyzed based on processes suggested by Merriam (2009). The following figure illustrates the process of the data analysis.

Figure 7. Process of data analysis.

Transcription Analysis

Data was transcribed in L1 to maintain originality of the feeling of participants and the data inventory was created based on participants' pseudonyms. The next step in analyzing the data was to code the transcribed information. This was done by making notation with descriptive words in the margin of the data to summarize what the section was about (Murphy, 2000). The data was coded manually.

To improve validity, I used the member check strategy as suggested by Merriam (1998). Member checks are "taking data and tentative interpretations back to the people from whom they were derived and asking them if the results are plausible" (p. 204). I returned the coded transcripts to participants and asked them if they agreed or wished to make any changes to the information that they had given me. No changes were suggested. I then proceeded to organize these codes into themes. Figure 8 provides an example of the coding I did to one participant's transcript. The coding was all conducted in L1.

Transcription (translated)	Coding
Q: What are the characteristics of a good teacher? A: Good teachers are those who are able to deliver the materials and achieve the objectives of the lesson. This is measured by whether the students are able to perform the stated basic competence. That's what I think. Q: Anything else? A: Teachers need to have an entertaining personality. And just like what I said, a good teacher has to be able to be a friend to the students not only as a teacher. I think, if they [the students] are open to their teachers, they will be more relax and find it easier to study. Q: From those characteristics, which one reflects you as a teacher? A: The characteristics? Oh,… I try to be their friend. More as a facilitator rather than teaching them. Q: How about the first one? The ability to deliver the materials? A: I am trying my best.	Teachers' ability to teach. Teachers' ability to entertain. Teachers' ability to be friends of their students. Try to be their friends rather than be their teacher.

Figure 8. Sample of data analysis (coding).

Using a spreadsheet on my computer and different colors for each participant, I organized my thinking. I had all transcripts printed out and input the codes, one-by-one, into the themes. When a code appeared more than once from a student teacher, I used them only once. Some of the codes were not used because they did not fit any of the themes. I highlighted each input code from each transcript to ensure that I input all necessary codes. I also used markers attached to certain pages of the transcripts to highlight key statements made by participants. I grouped the coding based the similarity of themes. For example, all coding that described student teachers' beliefs about choosing teaching materials were grouped together and similarly, all coding that

decoded student teachers' beliefs about instruction in teaching reading were put in the same group. Having finished inputting the data, on my computer, I color coded the codes and themes to see how often a code occurred across the data. This process helped me discern the major findings.

I did not put any codes in the last sub-theme (student teachers as teachers) because I did not collect any data from the students with regard to student teachers as their teachers. Mackey points out that what students get is "the result of the reaction of all these forces upon [their] psychological make-up" (Jackobovits, p. x). In addition, the results of the student teachers' action were not the focus of the study.

After I completed the data entry, I attempted to find a major study, theory, or model that aligned with my findings. I automatically turned to Stern's theoretical framework because I used his model in the Model of the Teaching of L2 Reading described in Figure 4. However, the themes that I obtained from the data did not specifically show the Level One of Stern's theory, which included student teachers' knowledge of language teaching such as sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics. In addition to this, while the data showed rich information on several items included in the Methodology section, very limited information with regard to the Organization section of Level Three of Stern's Conceptual Framework of Language Teaching. After reviewing several other frameworks, such as Vygotsky (1978), Lantolf's (2006) Sociocultural Theory and the Genesis Second Language Development, and Kumaravadivelu's (1994, 2001) Postmethod Pedagogy, I decided to review the frameworks mentioned in Chapter Two and found that Mackey's model of the language teaching, learning, and policy best fitted to the major findings of my data. Mackey's

model included materials, teachers, instructions, contexts, and students. Having decided the framework, I reviewed the data holistically. I, then, found that not only did the data reflect student teachers as language teachers, but it also revealed their experience as language learners. With this in mind, I created sub-themes whenever necessary and reorganized my coding to fit into the sub-themes.

The categories or themes were the results of the study, which are presented in Chapter 4. Table 2 is the table organizer I used in the data analysis.

Table 2
Table Organizer for Data Analysis

| Main themes | Sub themes | Names of participants | | | | |
		A	B	C	D	E
Student teachers' beliefs about teaching materials	Student teacher as a learner					
	Student teacher as a teacher					
Student teachers' beliefs about the roles of teachers	Student teachers' beliefs about an ideal teacher					
	Student teachers' beliefs about themselves as teachers					
Student teachers' beliefs about teaching instructions						
Student teachers' beliefs about sociocultural contexts	Social context					
	Educational context					
Student teachers' beliefs about what learners get	Student teachers as learners					
	Student teachers as teachers					

Analysis of Videos

The videos were analyzed using an instrument I designed to investigate if the participants' practices fulfilled the activities proposed by Nation (2009). The instrument was designed to fit the Model of Teaching L2 Reading presented in Figure 4. The observation guide was structured based on Nation's Four Strands. There were three options in the observation form: observed (O), not observed (NO), and not applicable (NA). O indicated that the research participants performed the activities in the categories in which it was classified. NO denoted that the activities were not relevant to the teaching reading categories. NA indicated that the research participant did not perform the activities during classroom instruction. Henk, Moore, Marinak, and Tomasetti (2000) proposed a similar format, where they used the format to articulate their expectations of what an effective teacher should do when teaching reading in the first language. The observation form for class observations is presented in Appendix E.

To analyze the videos, I watched the first class-observation video of a participant and had the observation form in front of me. I used my notebook to write down the codes O, NO, or NA for each video. Additionally, I took notes that would serve as a prompt during later analysis. The notes referred to things, such as sequences of the participant's teaching instructions or my comments on specific information I gathered from the videos. I then proceeded to analyze the second class-observation video of the same participant and completed the same process again. Once the coding of the videos was complete, I compared the two analyses. A sample of my video analysis can be found in Appendix F.

Analysis of Ancillary Data

Ancillary data refers to the questionnaires distributed to all student teachers who participated in the first interviews. I let them do the questionnaires in their free time. From 21 student teachers, 18 questionnaires were returned. Two student teachers, Adi and Hira, did not return the questionnaires after their resignation from participating. I manually entered questionnaire results into the spreadsheet. The results of the questionnaire are presented in Appendix C.

Chapter 4: Findings and Discussion

This chapter presents findings obtained from analysis of the transcription, class observation videos, and other ancillary data. Included are general descriptions of the research contexts, the high schools and activities relevant to data collection. After describing the contexts, I organize the findings around the research questions.

Descriptions of Contexts

Twenty-one student teachers participated in the study. They are presented in Table 3 below.

Table 3
General Description of Participants

No.	Name (Pseudonym)	Type of schools taught	No.	Name (Pseudonym)	Type of schools taught
1	Qisti	Girls-Only	12	Galuh	Mixed-Gender
2	Rima	Girls-Only	13	Chandra	Mixed-Gender
3	Nora	Girls-Only	14	Kurnia	Mixed-Gender
4	Fina	Girls-Only	15	Pita	Mixed-Gender
5	Sarah	Girls-Only	16	Maria	Mixed-Gender
6	Bintang	Girls-Only	17	Erna	Mixed-Gender
7	Umi	Girls-Only	18	Lina	Mixed-Gender
8	Tia	Girls-Only	19	Adi	Boys-Only
9	Dian	Girls-Only	20	Oesman	Boys-Only
10	Hira	Girls-Only	21	Jaka	Boys-Only
11	Isma	Mixed-Gender			

Although student teachers taught in four schools, Mixed-Gender School I, Girls-Only School, Mixed-Gender School II, and Boys-Only School, I personally only visited three of them because the student teachers who taught in the Boys-Only School had a different arrangement, to be discussed later in this section.

Mixed-Gender School I

My first on-school site interviews were with Chandra, Galuh, and Erna, who were teaching in an Islamic high school, designated Mixed-Gender School I. I arrived at the school in the morning. The school was located on one of the busiest streets in the city and had three floors. Around the school were other Islamic schools, which included a middle school, an elementary school, and an early childhood institution. These schools were built so close to each other that they could hear most of the noise produced by the other. Mixed-Gender School I had one way in and out, and it was gated and had security personnel based near the gate.

After meeting the principal to let him know the purpose for coming to the school, I met two student teachers, Chandra and Galuh, who were sitting at the secretary's desk located outside the teachers' office. During one of our later conversations, I found out that the secretarial duties were among the tasks student teachers had to perform during their teaching practicum. They showed me student teachers' office, located in the Southeast corner of the school. Student teachers called their office *the Basecamp*. From its appearance, the Basecamp used to be a classroom. There was a big table in the center of the room and a black board on one of the walls. A number of chairs were set around the big table and extra chairs and small tables were set against the wall.

There were other student teachers already in the Basecamp and we had friendly conversation about the teaching practicum. During this conversation, I noticed all male student teachers were wearing dark trousers and collared shirts and all female student teachers had dark colored, long skirts and blouses as well as headscarves on. Some of

them wore university jackets. They stated that the jackets were to differentiate between them and the school's full-time teachers. In addition, they stated that although the jackets were supposed to be worn at all times while they were at the school, there had been no official complaints from the school if they were not wearing them.

Chandra was the first participant to be interviewed. I asked her if she wanted to find another place to ensure the confidentiality of her comments. She mentioned that she was comfortable having her colleagues in the Basecamp hear her answers. Galuh and Erna, who were also there, excused themselves. After Chandra's interview, I interviewed Galuh and Erna separately. As the interviews lasted for several hours, other student teachers came and went to the Basecamp to prepare their classes or to have a rest in between tasks. Sometimes, we had to stop for a moment when there was too much noise from students coming into Basecamp during break times. Between the interviews, I observed that some student teachers asked Isma to help them solve some of their instructional problems. They asked for his suggestions on games or slides for their next classes. Apparently, he was considered to be the most successful and experienced student teacher among them. Isma actually came to me between my interviews and stated that he would like to participate. Later in the interview, I learned that he was also working part-time teaching in a private English training center. Among the student teachers in the school, Isma was unquestionably the most confident regarding his English proficiency.

I observed Galuh's, Chandra's, and Erna's classes first. They were teaching on the second floor. I observed Isma's class on the following day. Every room in the school had a projector installed on the ceiling and a large rolled-up screen. They had

whiteboards and chalkboards in front of the class. The student desks were arranged in rows, turned to face the teacher. The desks were large enough to be shared by two students. On the walls were pictures of national heroes and posters, which were quite eye catching. When I looked at the poster in more detail, I noticed that it contained students' names who were in charge in the class, such as the class leader, the treasurer, and secretary. On the poster, there were also names of the school days with several names of students underneath each day. Students were responsible for preparing the classroom on particular days. Their responsibilities included cleaning the floor, picking up chalk or markers from the teachers' office, and cleaning the boards for the teachers.

Galuh taught at the beginning of the school day at 7:00 A.M. She had her personal notebook computer ready on the table. She was about to start the class when her students reminded her that they were supposed to cite the *Holy Qur'an* before starting. I noticed that her supervising teacher was sitting at the back of the class. Upon reading the Holy book, Galuh began her class. She had some trouble with the projector. After a few minutes, she decided to write the text on the white board. Although they acknowledged their teacher's presence in the room, the students did not really pay attention to the lesson. They talked to each other and did anything else but pay attention to Galuh. They did answer Galuh's questions when she addressed them by their names. However, Galuh carried on with her lesson. At the end of the class, I congratulated her for getting through the class. Immediately, she told me that she was extremely nervous and frustrated with the students.

Right after Galuh's class, I observed Chandra's class. Her class was also on the second floor. She had her computer ready and had her slides on the screen. I noticed

that many chairs were empty. Chandra carried on teaching the class. Some students came in to the classroom 30 minutes after the lesson started. They went to the empty seats right away, and some of them shook the student teacher's and my hands and put them on their forehead as a symbol of respect to older people, a gesture that was culturally promoted. Once they sat down, they ignored the lesson by browsing the Internet with their smartphones, listening to music from earphones, or laying their heads on the table and taking a nap. Some students, however, did pay attention and did the tasks Chandra assigned them to do. A few minutes before the time was up, she showed some videos about the lesson she just explained. At first, the students were interested in the video, but they lost interest because as the students stated, the actors spoke too fast for them. Chandra paused the videos every few seconds and translated the lines spoken by the actors in L1. After the bell rang signaling the end of class, I had to leave Chandra in the classroom because she had a conversation with her supervising teacher, who sat at the teacher's desk during the class. Later that day, Chandra told me that the supervising teacher was not very happy with the way she taught, although she designed the lesson based on the supervising teacher's instruction. She further shared her frustration working with her supervising teacher who criticized her most of the time. Chandra looked a bit concerned with this and asked for my advice. I told her to do what she felt comfortable and confident with and to see the students' response to the materials.

While waiting for Erna's class, I sat in the Basecamp and had a conversation with the other student teachers. During this break, I noticed that all student teachers had their personal notebook computers and smartphones. They shared their problems and

experience during the teaching practicum, such as the way they had been mentored. They seemed especially concerned with students' attitudes. They had difficulties taking control over the class. According to student teachers, the science program students were better behaved than social program students were.

I also had the opportunity to visit the school library, which was located in the other southwest corner of the school under the staircase. There was a librarian's desk and a computer by the entrance door. The student teachers who were assigned with library work sat around a table in a corner. Later during the interview, I found out that the students' attendance in the library was low and only a few full-time teachers at the school enjoyed reading the newspaper that was put on the bulletin board in front of the library.

When I arrived in the room where Erna taught, she was there already and had her computer and slides ready. Her first class was with the students from a science program class. Most of her students paid attention to her lesson and actively participated in the discussion. The classroom was the closest to the other schools, which were also in the middle of their activities. There was a constant, noisy disturbance caused by one of the neighboring schools practicing marching band. Apparently, everybody was accustomed to this. Like the students in Galuh and Chandra's classes, some students came in late and Erna and the supervising teacher who sat at the back of the class did not address this issue. From my observation, Erna did not have many problems in controlling the class. The students' behavior was not as rowdy as Galuh's class. More students participated in the lesson and were able to answer Erna's questions correctly.

Some students were still playing with their smartphones. Erna had a male friend standing at the back of the class who was ready to help her if needed.

When I was observing Isma the next day, he appeared very relaxed. His voice was loud enough to be heard clearly throughout the entire room. Unlike the other student teachers, Isma's supervising teacher was not in the class. He informed me that he had had his official class assignments. However, due to being involved in my study, he asked his supervising teacher to assign him two more classes so I could observe him. He was highly confident with his English and used relatively more English during the interview than most of his colleagues. He seemed to enjoy teaching his class. Like most students in the other classes I had observed, Isma's students also had a low level of respect for the lesson. They talked among themselves. However, Isma managed to draw their attention by showing them many pictures on slides and asking them questions about the pictures. Later I observed that the pictures had nothing to do with the lesson he taught. Unlike his other colleagues who ignored disrespectful students, he did certain things such as saying a few words louder to get students' attention. His students usually responded to the questions and paid attention to instructions.

Isma spent approximately 45 minutes doing a warm-up before moving to his lesson. For the lesson, he asked his students to repeat after him, to read the dialogues aloud, and to participate in vocabulary enrichment activities. He showed all the materials on the slides and he did not ask the students to write down nor read any passages. However, he did give the students questions about vocabulary. At the end of the class, he played a 10-minute video that had little or no connection with his actual lesson. Throughout the 90-minute lesson, he took control of the class and spoke very

clearly, despite misbehaving students. One of his students mentioned that Isma was the best student teacher they had ever had. He said it loud enough that the class could hear him.

Girls-Only School

This school was not far away from the Mixed-Gender School I previously visited. As a matter of fact, this school was located less than half a mile from the Mixed-Gender School I. The school consisted of two buildings. The main building was where the classrooms and the teachers' office were. There was a basketball court in the middle of the school and the classrooms were built around it. Each room had an overhead projector, screen, a whiteboard, and/or chalkboard. I realized the classrooms were bigger than the classrooms in the Mixed-Gender School I. Later in the interviews, I found out that there were over 40 students in most classes. Some students, according to the student teachers, had a higher level of English proficiency than theirs.

The building was gated and opened only at break times. When the bell rang at the end of the break time, the gate was locked and no one would be able to enter the area. The student teachers' Girls-Only (GO) Basecamp was in the building with the library and a hall. When I was in the GO Basecamp, I could see the gate from where I sat. During my observation for a period of time, there were some students who were locked out. They asked the officer to let them in, but he refused to do it. These students did not appear worried about being locked out and continued whatever they were doing at that moment. After approximately 15 minutes, the gate was opened and the students headed to their classes. When I asked the student teachers what the school or teachers did with late students, they did not have any information about it.

Like other student teachers in the Mixed-Gender School I, the student teachers teaching in the GO School did not mind having their friends around when the interviews were in progress. There were 12 student teachers in this school, and 10 of them signed up to participate in the study. On one of the days of the interviews, the school assigned all student teachers to supervise exams or to do other administration activities. However, they would take turns to cover each other's assignment so that my interview schedule would run as planned.

Unlike student teachers in the Mixed-Gender School I, I did not hear any complaints about the students' mischievous behaviors. On the contrary, at one point during my observation, a student teacher, Hira, informed her colleagues that she asked her students to write feedback for her, and many students gave her positive feedback. Hira showed the cards to her colleagues and let us read them. Some of her colleagues spontaneously expressed that they would do what she did with their students. Unlike her colleagues who were assigned to teach on different days, Hira was assigned to teach several classes in a row on the same day. She was forced to quit from participating in my study because she did not have sufficient time to have a second interview.

The student teachers arrived a few minutes before the school started at 7:00 A.M. and left around 2:00 P.M. every day except Friday, and they usually stayed in the Basecamp. The school provided lunch for them every day. In the Basecamp, there was one big table in the middle of the room and everybody sat around it. Each student teacher had her own computer laptop, which they always brought to class. When they did not teach or perform any other tasks, they usually watched films on the computer.

Mixed-Gender School II

This school was located approximately three miles from the two schools described previously. The school was also a three-floored building. I met the student teachers whose Basecamp II was in the library, which was in the southwest corner of the school. There were four student teachers participating in my study: Lina, Maria, Kurnia, and Pita. Like the other student teachers, they did not mind having other student teachers in the room while being interviewed. To minimize the chance that other research participants might hear the questions, we went to a corner of the library. I had the opportunity to observe Kurnia teaching the next day.

Kurnia taught 90 minutes with a 30-minute break after 45 minutes of her class time. When I arrived in the Basecamp II, she was getting ready and testing the audio from the computer and had brought two extra portable speakers of her own. She looked extremely nervous. When I approached her, she informed me that she was experiencing a malfunction with the audio. After a few minutes, we were able to solve the problem. We headed to her classroom on the third floor. When we were in one of the classrooms, she stated that she was not sure in which room she was supposed to teach. She eventually found the room, and she prepared her lesson. Some students were not in the room yet, and she started to call her students' names. Her voice was barely audible. After finishing calling the students' names, she started her lesson. She was nervous and her students could see that she was. Kurnia kept walking around the class, giving instructions to the students by approaching the students individually. Her voice was so soft that, later when analyzing the video, I could not hear her. She also lost words when explaining the lesson or giving instructions to the class, especially when she wanted to

use English. Many times, she could not make up a full sentence to give instructions either in L1 or L2. After a few minutes, she played the audio files from her computer, which later in the interview I found out that it had been dubbed by other student teachers. Upon listening to the audio, she gave instructions to the students to do group work. Although I understood that her anxiety might have been caused by many factors, I approached her and asked her if she would feel more comfortable if I left the room. She approved of my suggestion.

The conversations I had with the student teachers in this particular school were not as engaging as those that I had with student teachers in the other schools. When I was in the library, students and librarians were present, which caused less freedom for us to discuss issues. Another reason that caused limited conversation was that the student teachers taught more classes in this school. Unlike the other schools that arranged two school hours for each English lesson, this school had one school hour of some English lessons and more meetings per week. Thus, the student teachers appeared busier than the other student teachers from the other schools did.

The purpose of this chapter is to present the findings of the study as well as to answer the research questions. The questions of the research were formulated as follows:

1. What are Indonesian pre-service teachers' beliefs about the teaching of reading in English classes?

2. How do these pre-service teachers' beliefs about reading get manifested in their classroom instruction?

3. What are the differences between their beliefs and practices of the pre-service teachers relate to reading? What are some potential causes the differences or similarities?

Indonesian Student Teachers' Beliefs about Teaching L2 Reading

My first interviews were mainly asking about student teachers' experiences in learning English, their personal preferences, and teaching English in general. I proceeded to talk about teaching reading skills when I believed that the respondents felt comfortable discussing it. The fact that reading comprehension was mainly used in major English tests and students' English proficiency measurement, in general was a good turning point for me to draw student teachers' attention to reading.

Most student teachers mentioned their schoolteachers as figures that inspired them. Surprisingly, many of those inspirational teachers were not English teachers. Fina, for example, said her chemistry teacher was her inspiring figure. Most of them described their inspiring teachers as figures who were able to make them understand the concepts of the lessons the teachers were teaching. In addition, the student teachers said these inspiring teachers also had pleasant personalities.

Student Teachers' Beliefs about Reading Materials

I brought their attention to their educational backgrounds - some of them had attended Islamic schools and, at the time of the data collection, were going to an Islamic university, and that they were, at that moment, assigned to teach in Islamic schools. I then asked them to what extent this strong Islamic background influenced their decisions in selecting teaching materials.

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An interesting finding concerning material use was that not all of the student teachers selected reading materials that contained religious topics despite the fact that they were studying and teaching in Islamic institutions. Instead of religious materials, eight student teachers expressed that they used topics that were popular among the students. They used pictures of one of the most famous boy bands in Indonesia, played contemporary songs, and selected topics, such as the president of the USA and their favorite pets, for reading materials. All 21 student teachers articulated that they were given freedom by the university and the school to choose the topics for their materials, as long as they did not divert from the syllabi. In fact, Chandra asserted that she found teaching materials that contained religious values were challenging to teach.

Jaka indicated that he used the biography of a prominent figure in Islam when he taught his class. However, he did not use the story for its religious values. He used the topic because his students were already familiar with the story so it would be easy for them to understand the story in English. Jaka and seven student teachers stated that they selected materials based on the popularity of the topics among the students. Students' familiarity with the topic, according to the student teachers, would provide background knowledge for students. This was used to draw students' attention to the lessons. A few student teachers added that when they used videos in their lesson, they made sure that the actors in the videos wore clothing that was generally accepted by the culture and religion.

All student teachers also mentioned that they turned to the Internet to help them obtain teaching materials. They did not particularly prefer authentic materials such as English newspapers articles or advertisements because there would be too many

unknown words. Chandra, Umi, and Fina explained further that the Indonesian government provided a website for English teachers in Indonesia. If materials were taken from other sources they found online, then they made adjustments whenever necessary to accommodate the students' English proficiency.

Apart from the Internet, school textbooks and workbooks also became sources of teaching materials. Three student teachers: Fina, Dian, and Oesman stated that they used the school recommended books to teach in their class as part of their teaching materials. The school usually required students to purchase a specific textbook(s) and workbooks, so student teachers went along with the school's books. Local publishers usually published these books; thus, the level of difficulty had been adjusted to the students' English proficiency. Authenticity of teaching materials was not the student teachers' concern when selecting reading texts. Fina had different reasons for selecting materials. She asserted:

> For reading passages, I prefer to use the ones published by Indonesian publisher. My students will understand the language better [than the authentic materials]. I once downloaded from the Internet; the language was too difficult to understand. However, I choose native speakers for listening materials.

Like Fina, Tia also used textbooks she found in the school library for her material resources. She added that she selected the materials based on her students' language proficiency. She discovered her students' proficiency when she observed the class prior to class assignments. In addition, her supervising teacher advised her to avoid long passages as long as the students understood the structure of the text genre and the meaning of the texts in L1. The other four student teachers mentioned that they considered students' English proficiency in selecting the materials.

Five student teachers clearly stated that they chose their materials based on the curriculum or syllabus. Chandra, for example remarked, "[I chose the materials] based on the curriculum. I downloaded the materials from the government's website. I used it to help me design my lesson plan. I had to achieve the standard competence stated in the syllabus." Apart from following the syllabus, Bintang still focused on the students' interests and made sure that students still had fun in class. Maria, Rima, and Kurnia referred to the length of texts when they had to select materials to teach reading. They chose short passages that contained several paragraphs to prevent students from being bored while reading them. Lina considered the appropriateness of the materials with her students' age. She related the appropriateness with the language that may have contained profanity, especially when she used videos.

Student Teachers' Beliefs about the Importance of Teaching Reading

When we eventually discussed the teaching of L2 reading, many student teachers commented negatively. Seven students openly stated that speaking skills were more important than reading skills. For Umi, focusing on speaking skills was important because she would easily run out ideas when she taught reading. Qisti and Rima believed that their students' overall language proficiency was automatically improved when speaking skills improved. They stated that teaching reading was boring and associated teaching reading with repetitive techniques and learning vocabulary. Their beliefs about the importance of teaching reading were influenced by the way they thought about teaching reading. Isma further remarked,

> Teaching reading is all about applying the same teaching methods over and over again. The point of teaching reading is that you have to read and it is boring. I think that is one of the reasons why they do not like English.

Qisti did not like teaching reading because teaching reading is "all about reading a book and that it sends the students to sleep immediately." Chandra avoided selecting reading skills to teach. Her cooperating teacher gave her and her colleagues freedom to select the standardized competencies they would like to teach. Chandra showed her feeling about teaching reading and why she selected other skills to teach:

> I choose speaking materials because I know reading materials and reading long texts are going to be boring. I will be overwhelmed to tell them the meaning of each word in L1. I can apply group work when teaching speaking and it will be effective. Besides, teaching speaking skills is much more than teaching the structure of a text genre.

Tia and Maria, although they came from different cities in Indonesia, mentioned that oral communication skills were very important because they were disappointed with the way they were taught English. They stated that their high school teacher focused more on grammar and rote learning, which led to their lack of verbal communication skills. Maria asserted:

> Honestly, I do not have a lot of experiences in teaching reading, so I don't know how to teach it. I was supposed to teach reading skills yesterday. I had reading materials in my hand, but I diverted to a listening lesson.

Another student teacher stated that reading skills were skills that she never taught to her students. Galuh stated, "I am fully aware that my students need to know what reading skills are for and how to use them. Unfortunately, I personally do not know what skills are included in reading skills."

In general, student teachers said that L2 reading was not as important as other skills, especially oral communication skills, to improve students' English proficiency. They believed that their students' overall language proficiency was automatically improved when speaking skills improved. The belief that oral communication skills are

more important than reading skills was consistent with findings from the BALLI

questionnaires. Many student teachers expressed that being able to communicate orally

in English was the true goal of foreign language teaching.

I received 18 questionnaires out of 21 questionnaires that I distributed. Of 18

questionnaires returned, 12 student teachers agreed with the statement number 29, "It is

important for the people in my country to be able to speak English." In addition, four

student teachers strongly agreed and 12 student teachers agreed that oral

communication skills would help them to get a good job. This statement was indicated

in number 26 of the BALLI questionnaire. The complete results of the questionnaire are

described in Appendix C.

Seven of their colleagues expressed their opinion on the importance of teaching

reading, and Oesman and Chandra mentioned that it was important to teach reading,

although they suggested that oral communication skills were also essential. To them,

teaching reading was not as challenging as their colleagues had supposed. Following the

lesson plans was the reason why teaching reading was not difficult because the lesson

plans would show them every class activity to perform.

Student Teachers' Beliefs about Classroom Management in Reading Classes

After discussing oral language competency with each student teacher, eventually

I tried to turn the conversation to the fact that students' proficiency was measured using

reading comprehension tests. I asked them what, in their opinion, was the ideal way in

teaching reading to their students. Qisti stated:

> The test is just the formality of measuring students' English proficiency. So, what we [teachers] do is to teach them [students] the basics to do the tests. We teach them the tricks and tips to understand the texts. We discuss the main topic of the passage, the structure of the texts, and the points of the texts.

Qisti's statement about teaching the "tricks and tips" of doing well on tests of reading without having to read the text was apparently common among student teachers. Several other student teachers also expressed this sentiment: Maria, Kurnia, and Rima. Tia and Chandra learned tricks and tips during their after-school program they had when they were in high school. When I asked them how they would teach the reading strategies, some of them explained to me that passages used recurring patterns and structures. For example, a spoof text would consist of a certain number of paragraphs, where each paragraph was designed to indicate a certain characteristic. The student teachers taught their students to read only the first sentence of each paragraph.

When I inquired how they would actually teach the tips and tricks, five student teachers provided similar elaborative answers. In fact, they used the same terms to describe the steps they would do in class. The words that frequently appeared were *review*, *generic structure*, *model of text*, *group work*, and *individual work* respectively. A number of participants in informal conversations, which, unlike the formal interview, were not recorded, also mentioned these terms. During informal conversations, student teachers mentioned that they learned these steps from one of their professors at the university.

Tia, for instance, described a technique, which she believed was the best way to teach reading to her students as presentation, practice, and production:

> First, I would give reading materials to the students, I would discuss the basic information on the text and provide them with another example of a similar text. I would ask the students to come in front of the class and tell the friends on the generic structure of the text. That is for the presentation. For practice, I would ask the student to write the answers on questions around the generic structure of the text. In production phase, students try to write a text with a similar structure.

On the contrary, two student teachers stated that they did not have any specific

ideas about teaching reading. They mentioned that they had never been taught how to

teach reading skills in their preparation programs. Galuh, stated:

> I know it [teaching reading skills] is important. Reading skills will be used every
> time and everywhere. The students need to know the importance of reading
> skills, too. Unfortunately, I, at this stage, am not sure which ones are referred to
> as reading skills in English.

Another student teacher, Chandra, admitted that she was not a skilled reader

although reading was her hobby. Similar to Galuh, she agreed that lack of knowledge

about teaching reading was mainly because they had not seen any models of reading

strategies. As a result, they were not able to show their students how to use reading

strategies effectively. In addition to classroom management, eight student teachers

viewed a main objective of instruction as maintaining students' engagement in class, so

they made tremendous efforts to create a fun atmosphere in the class. Maria and

Bintang, for example, defined "fun" as playing games.

Others had different opinions about how to teach reading. Maria, Tia, and Umi

asserted that they would do a comprehension quiz game to teach reading. Tia, Umi, and

Abbas added that they usually provided awards like stickers or pencils for their students

to motivate them to participate in class. Jaka and Pita provided a short answer to this

question by stating that they would focus on reading aloud and correcting students'

pronunciation.

Student Teachers' Beliefs about Their Students and Their Roles

The data generated from this theme resulted in two sub themes: student teachers'

beliefs about an ideal teacher and student teachers' beliefs about themselves as teachers.

a. Student teachers' beliefs about an ideal teacher

In the first few interviews, I posed questions to student teachers concerning their beliefs about the ideal teacher and their beliefs about themselves as teachers. Of 21 student teachers, 10 of them answered that a good teacher should have sound pedagogical knowledge. The ability to deliver materials to achieve curricular objectives was deemed the most important skill that an English teacher should have. Pita, who used to teach small classes in an English training center, found that teaching a class with 32 high school students was quite challenging. While Umi stated that a good teacher should be creative in delivering the lessons, she also mentioned that a good teacher should stick with the curriculum. Fina suggested that the pedagogical knowledge skills included the ability to motivate the students to apply what had been taught.

A good English teacher, according to nine student teachers, should have profound knowledge on the subject matter. Oesman stated that his professor told him that a good teacher should know his or her subject well. Fina provided an example of having this skill as a teacher:

> English is not our language, so we [teachers] have to give examples. Sometimes it is crucial to let the students know how to pronounce the words [when teaching]. As good teachers, apart from being able to motivate the students, we have to be able to pronounce well.

Nine student teachers believed that a good teacher needed to have a likable personality. By this, they referred to the ability to put themselves as a friend rather than in a position of authority over students. The student/student teacher relationship was considered formal and limiting for student teachers. This formality, according to the student teachers, would cause students to feel reluctant to participate in class. Having a more casual relationship with their students would break the formality. However, having a casual relationship backfired on some student teachers because the students

thought that these teachers would not give them punishment when they did not follow the student teachers' instructions. Lina conveyed,

> At this stage, I do not know [the characteristics of a good teacher]. Well, in my opinion, she has to be able to be a friend with the students. But, at the same time, she needs to be able to gain respect from her students.

Isma and Nora mentioned that, apart from having the pedagogical and professional competence, a teacher should have social and personal competence. They referred to these two competencies as the ability to talk to students, parents, and other stakeholders and to recognize students' unique characteristics. In Maria's opinion, a good teacher should not be too strict. This opinion was similar to Bintang's, who said that being too strict would lead to students disliking a teacher. Like Umi, Jaka believed that teachers needed to be creative. Jaka added that being able to manage a class was more important for a teacher than having a high level of language proficiency.

b. Student teachers' beliefs about themselves as teachers

After posing the questions about the characteristics of an ideal English teacher, I asked the student teachers to identify the characteristics they had as teachers and asked them why they thought they had these qualities. Seven student teachers believed that they had the personality factor, being likable or being able to be a friend to their students. Dian, for example, remarked that she got close with her students quite easily, which made her students feel comfortable to ask questions if they did not understand the lesson.

Like other student teachers, Galuh and Erna shared that an ideal teacher should be loveable and have pedagogical skills; however, they stated that they did not have any of the criteria that they mentioned. Galuh shared that she tried to be friendly to her

students, but it was hard for her to get their respect at the same time. The informal relationship with students, according to her, sometimes led to her students thinking that she was easy on them. Galuh and Erna were two student teachers who enrolled in the English Education Department due to the urging of parents, although they preferred other fields of study. In addition to Galuh and Erna, Rima asserted, "Every time I do my independent teaching practice, my students always see me as a friend at their age. I am in contact with them all the time. We are friends on Facebook and I am close to them."

Another quality that appeared in this sub theme was pedagogical knowledge, which was mentioned by eight student teachers. Bintang, for example, once brought her students outside of the classroom when they let her know that they were bored. She assigned her students to work in groups to observe, write a report, and draw pictures of other people's activities. She stated that her students appreciated the activities she designed.

Isma also believed that he had high quality teaching skills because he selected his own materials and was able to make the class fun. He also explained that he always had back-up plans if his initial plan did not work out as well as he had expected. Like Isma, who had a high level of confidence on his pedagogical knowledge, Dian mentioned that she was good at teaching because she used to study in the Arabic Education Department prior to enrolling at her current university. She relearned some courses in teaching in her present university. Like Dian, Sarah also stated that she was good at managing her class and making her students interested in her lesson.

Although Fina, who was working as a tutor for a small English training center at the time of the interview, was confident in her teaching skills, she stated that she lacked

knowledge of teaching reading. She had not seen a teacher who inspired her to teach the particular skill. Like many of her colleagues who were confident with their teaching skills, Maria viewed herself skillful in making students comfortable in performing tasks she assigned. She believed that a good English teacher should ensure students' understanding of the lesson. Maria argued:

> So far, I have been trying to make my class as comfortable as possible for my students, so when they want to ask me questions or do something, they are not shy to ask. I do this by playing a fun game in the first five to ten minutes of the class. My students are usually ready to start the class after the game.

12 student teachers that I interviewed, however, were not confident with their level of English proficiency, especially in vocabulary and pronunciation. Bintang expressed that many of her students had English proficiency better than that of college students. Bintang, however, did not teach reading because she thought teaching reading was not as challenging to her. Finally, answering my question on how student teachers viewed themselves as teachers, one student teacher stated that he was a role model for his students because he wore "appropriate teaching outfits" to school.

Student Teachers' Beliefs about Contexts

a. Student teachers' beliefs about socio-cultural context

There was a wide variety of factors included in this sub theme, such as the student teachers' family influence, beliefs about teaching English, experiences in going to different types of schools in different areas of Indonesia, and general opinions on teaching. Thus, this sub theme was unique from one student teacher to another because of the wide variability.

Concerning the student teachers' motivation for majoring in English, eight student teachers took the major due to family influence, especially from their fathers.

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English majors, as the student teachers were advised, had a bright future because the demand for English teachers would increase from time to time. Galuh preferred to enroll in the Arabic Education Department, especially because she graduated from an Islamic boarding school and she believed she had a higher proficiency in Arabic than in English. Her parents did not allow her to major in Arabic Education because they concerned about her finding a job upon graduation. When I was at the department office and Galuh came in, she spoke to me and other English professors in L1 (Indonesian). She usually headed to the Arabic Language Department office afterward, and spoke fluent Arabic most of the time with the professors in the department.

Family also influenced student teachers' habits in reading. Pita, for example, had an older sister, who always brought books home and encouraged her to read them. Erna stated that when she was little, her family never allowed her to buy books if they were not for important purposes, such as school. As a result, she did not like reading and confessed that she was struggling with her courses. Erna also went to an Islamic boarding school for her middle and high school. Although her teachers in the boarding school encouraged her to read, her teachers only recommended textbooks. Reading for pleasure was minimally encouraged.

When I asked student teachers about their hobbies, only Chandra mentioned that reading was her favorite activity. Chandra explained to me that she liked reading non-fiction books because they inspired her. She also pointed out that no one in her family really liked reading. Unlike Chandra, Tia stated that her alternate hobby was reading both in L1 and in L2. When I asked her what English book she was reading, she pointed at a textbook she put on the table that she used in one of her courses. Oesman and Sarah

preferred to read English short articles they found online and they admitted that they usually only scanned them.

The student teachers also thought that most of their friends and students did not enjoy reading. The student teachers who taught in the boys-only school stated that their students seemed to love to read because they spent most of their break time reading at the school library or doing assignments. Most of the students who went to the gender-specific schools lived in the school dorms and televisions and cell phones were not allowed in the dorms. However, student teachers who taught in the girls only school did not have the same impression about their students' reading habits as that of those who taught in the boys-only school.

Finding English texts to read in their leisure time, Oesman, Maria, and Umi expressed that they had easy access to English texts online or from the university's library, but they were not allowed to check the books out. They mentioned that they were free to read English books in the American Corner. The American Corner was part of the university library, which was established because of the cooperation that the university had with the US Embassy. The American Corner had a wide collection of books, magazines, and audiovisuals that were mainly about the American context. In addition to the English text availability in the American Corner, their professors also used current English textbooks in their classes. Student teachers also had relatively easy access to English texts online. Apart from getting free access to university Wi-Fi when they were on campus, each student teacher had a computer notebook and a portable modem with them, which looked like a USB drive. To get the Internet connection, they

had to purchase a service card and refill the account whenever necessary. The service cards were quite affordable and easily obtained.

Although student teachers attended an Islamic university and taught in Islamic schools for their teaching practica, they did not have pressure to teach Islamic values in their class. A student teacher, who taught in the girls-only school, believed that her students' religious knowledge was more profound than hers because they received more lessons on religion both from schools and from the dorms. As a result, she was extremely cautious to infuse religious lessons in her lessons. In addition, another student teacher, who taught in a mixed-gender school asserted that she was not a Muslim; thus, she was not able to teach the Islamic values to her students.

b. Student teachers' beliefs about the educational context

After discussing the teaching of L2 in general, I pointed out that students' proficiency was assessed mainly on reading skills. After asking for opinions on this issue, I asked about the teaching of L2 reading during their teaching practica. The student teachers stated that teaching reading to high school students was quite challenging because most of their students had negative attitudes toward reading activities in particular and toward the lessons in general. Seven student teachers mentioned that in general girls had better attitudes toward student teachers and the lessons they taught. These student teachers believed that students' attitudes toward English lessons, especially reading lessons, were the biggest challenge. The student teachers stated that the students became bored very easily when they were instructed to read a passage. Those who taught in mixed-gender schools maintained that their students talked among themselves, used their cellphones, and did not pay attention. The

participants' general opinion was that a class that focused on reading activities would not work because their students, aside from having a low level of vocabulary mastery, would not be able to comprehend what they had read.

Chandra, who taught in Mixed-Gender School I, claimed that most of her students had very low motivation to learn and had behavioral problems. She maintained that her students did not respect student teachers as much as they respected supervising teachers due to their younger age. She remarked:

> Actually [teaching reading] is not that challenging. It becomes challenging when I have students who do not really pay attention to me. My students are usually engaged either with their friends or with their gadget. As long as I followed the syllabus, I will unlikely find challenges with the students. I do have to work hard to get their attention.

When I was in Basecamp, Chandra and her colleagues, who did not participate in the study but taught at the same school, shared similar opinions that they had to work extra hard and speak louder to get students' attention. In this informal conversation with these student teachers, they noted that teaching in mixed-gender schools was more challenging because they had to be able to take control of the class. All student teachers in the mixed-gender schools had problems diverting students from their smart phones. From this conversation, I also found out that the students, especially tenth graders, were grouped in classes based on their academic achievement. Those who were grouped in Class A, for example, generally had a higher level of academic achievement than the rest of the classes in the tenth grades. This was also expressed by Maria, who was teaching in the other mixed-gender school.

For student teachers in gender-specific schools, having control over the class was rarely mentioned as a problem. These schools banned cellphones in class. These

student teachers pointed out that the size of the class was a challenge for them; however, it did not grow into a problem because they still could gain their control of the class. The Girls-Only School had 40-42 students in each class, whereas the mixed gender schools had 30-33 students in a class. The other challenge when teaching reading and English was that students would constantly ask to play videos or films during the lesson. When I asked them what they did to handle the situation, Bintang and Qisti answered that they played random short videos to keep the students happy. During the class observations, Bintang showed slideshows of her trip to her students and a well-known university in America, whereas Qisti played a popular movie in her class.

In addition, student teachers believed that supervising teachers played a significant role in helping them make instructional decisions. Tia, for example, stated that she used short texts when teaching her class because her supervising teacher told her to do so; however, the supervising teachers gave her freedom to choose the topics for the texts. Sometimes, the supervising teachers instructed the student teachers to teach a class with a specific method, which did not align with the student teachers' beliefs. Dian, for instance, asserted that her supervising teacher asked her to exclude any writing activities when teaching reading. Dian did what she was told.

Student Teachers' Beliefs about What Learners Get

A subtheme, student teachers as learners, was meant to see what the student teachers received from their teachers, from other people, or from themselves as independent learners when learning English. Student teachers' language learning experiences may have contributed to their beliefs about teaching L2.

With regard to what the student teachers as learners, almost all student teachers believed that they had a low level of L2 vocabulary, including those who attended the Islamic boarding schools who spoke English in their daily conversation. However, they believed their English was different from their professors' English. To solve the vocabulary problems when reading English books assigned by their professors, they used dictionaries installed on their computers. No student teacher stated that he or she used a printed dictionary to help understand the texts. Some of them, like Dian and Qisti, stated that they would copy and paste or type in the whole paragraph to the computer to save time translating the text.

When they were in high school, Tia, Maria, and Kurnia, who did not go to Islamic boarding schools, stated that their teachers used a traditional approach when teaching. By this, they meant that they read aloud texts, memorized vocabulary, translated word per word, or focused on grammar. They focused very little on speaking skills. Chandra and Tia expressed that they also took extra English lessons after school that focused on familiarizing themselves with tests.

Manifestations of Beliefs in Student Teachers' Practices in Teaching L2 Reading

To answer the second research question, this section presents the student teachers' activities when teaching their classes. The data for this section was mainly obtained from class observations and post-class observation interviews.

Student Teachers' Practice in Reading Instruction

Table 3.1 describes the classes observed during the data collection. The data shows that the classes assigned to the student teachers by supervising teachers were not exclusively reading classes. To answer the second research question on how the student

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teachers' beliefs were manifested in practice, I relied upon the reading classes each student teacher designated. As previously mentioned, eight student teachers believed that teaching reading was less exciting than teaching other skills. Therefore, according to these student teachers, teaching reading should be fun and that playing games was important for them to keep students away from being bored in class.

The student teachers had different groups of students, although they might teach the same topics and skills. For example, in her two classes I observed, Rima was assigned to teach reading skills using hortatory texts. She was assigned the same text genre and skills to the Grade 5A and Grade 5C. During the teaching practicum, Rima was assigned to teach eight classes all together with different language skills. Her report showed that she was never assigned to teach the same skills to the same group of students. For example, out of eight teaching assignments, she taught reading skills, speaking skills, and listening skills respectively with hortatory exposition genre to Grade 5B for three consecutive meetings.

Based on class observations, student teachers demonstrated consistent patterns in teaching EFL reading when they actually taught reading. Typically they reviewed the previous lesson, discussed the structure of the genre of a text, assigned group work, and assigned individual work. They used similar strategies when assigning group work to test the students' comprehension of a particular text. The group work that was commonly conducted in the reading lesson was a comprehension quiz. Individual work was not always assigned due to time constraints. All of these activities will be discussed in detail later in this section.

a. Pre-teaching activities.

All student teachers started class by reviewing the English lesson that students

had learned in their previous lesson. A student teacher, Erna, used random pictures that

had little connection with her lesson, which was discussing spoof texts. The following

excerpt is the description of the pre-teaching activities of Erna's reading lesson:

> Erna looked really nervous when starting the lesson. She started the class by
> showing cartoon pictures and had a little discussion about them. After a few
> minutes, she informed the students about the goal of her lesson, which was to
> understand spoof texts. She asked the students about a comedy television
> program that was quite popular in Indonesia, and related it with the humorous
> genre of the text. She proceeded explaining to the students the definition, the use
> of the genre, and the structure of a spoof text. She, then, showed a passage on
> the screen.

The observation from Fina's class showed what she did during the pre-teaching

activities. She designed the activities a little bit differently from what many other

student teachers did. She was assigned to teach reading skills, which, according to the

class assignment, should be integrated with writing skills. Like her fellow teachers, she

did not have a choice of what she wanted to teach because she had to follow the school

agenda. In the beginning of the post-observation interview, she mentioned that she

preferred teaching how to write to teaching how to read. Below is the description of

what Fina did in the beginning of her class:

> Prior to her class, her colleague taught the students on the same topic, that was
> hortatory text. She reviewed the lesson by asking the students what they learned
> with her fellow student teacher and directly informed the students that they were
> going to read a few expository texts because similar texts might come out in the
> national tests. Before she distributed the first text and started with the
> comprehension quiz, she divided the students into groups.

Like her peers who were concerned about their students' engagement, Fina used

a comprehension quiz game to prevent the students from being bored. Apparently, the

game was quite popular among student teachers because almost all used the same game,

especially in reading lessons. The purpose of the game was to find the group who scored the highest by answering the oral comprehension questions.

To play this game, Fina divided the class of 40 students into four groups. She asked them to find a distinctive noise to indicate a bell of their group, such as sounds of animals. She distributed a page that consisted of two passages to each student. She provided a certain amount of time for the students to read the text and, at the same time, to comprehend the text. She told her students that she would give comprehension questions orally based on the text. For each question, the students, in groups, competed to answer the questions by "ringing the bell" of the sounds of animals. Although the students were supposed to work in groups, based on my observations, students did not move from their seating position or have discussions with group members.

They read the text quietly and sometimes asked their nearest neighbor or Fina the meaning of new words in L1. By the time they finished reading the text, it was time for the game to start. Fina asked students to get ready to answer the questions. Fina threw comprehension questions to the class and students raised their hands and made the noise. She chose a student in a group that had to answer the question. The student would answer the question. She gave the score based on the correct or incorrect answers. When Fina was ready to give the next question, she gave a sign with her hands. The students fell silent and were ready to raise their hands. She threw another question and the students raised their hands. The students looked enthusiastic to participate in the comprehension quiz game. Some student teachers, like Tia, provided rewards for winning students. In every class that this game was played, the students became extremely loud for "ringing the bell" and answered the questions.

Unlike her colleagues who had the game in the middle of the lesson, Fina had the game at the beginning. She was a strong believer in knowing each word in the text was not necessary. She explained:

> Not knowing the meaning of each word in the text is common. They do not need to worry about it because they have to answer the questions based on their general understanding of the text. It was my plan to give them a small amount of time to understand the text and not to say anything about the information content. I told them to keep reading even if they did not know the meaning of a few words. They still can understand the text without knowing what those words mean in L1. They will always encounter unfamiliar words when reading texts.

She spent the first seven minutes giving instructions and describing the rules of the game. She let her student read the text quietly for five minutes before she began the game. She believed that the students were able to understand the texts without her help as she believed that the texts she selected were at the level of students' proficiency.

b. Whilst-teaching activities

For these activities, many student teachers provided a text consisting of several paragraphs. The number of paragraphs was based on the structure of the text genre they were teaching. The text was intended to be a model of the genre and its structure. Nora, for example, did the following activities in the whilst-teaching activities.

> She was reading the text she showed on the screen. She explained the meaning of some words, which she believed to be new to her students. She also translated the sentences into L1. In the middle of her explanation, she sometimes stopped to let the students know the function of each paragraph based on the structure of the genre.

Her rationale for asking students the aim of each paragraph in the text was that the school syllabus required students to understand structural features of the text as questions about structure were commonly appeared in the exams. Also, her supervising teacher reiterated that it was important for students to know the structures of text

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genres. For example, a passage of a descriptive text, which was usually consisted of three or four paragraphs, always had identification and description part on the first two paragraphs. She continued her class by playing the comprehension quiz game. The game was especially popular with those who taught in the Girls-Only School. Almost every student teacher used this game in her class.

While Erna did not do the game, she taught a genre of spoof text:

She asked one of her students to come in front of the class to read aloud the paragraphs. She, then, read the text aloud and, together with her students and translated each sentence. Upon finishing reading the text, she instructed the students to work in groups to answer the questions that followed the text. She gave students more than thirty minutes to do this group work to answer four questions based on the structure of the text.

Despite the fact that she designed the activity for students to work in groups, during the post observation interview, Erna admitted that the group activities did not work as she had expected. She spent almost 30 minutes in class for the group activity. When she was asked why she spent a relatively long time for the group work to answer four questions, she said softly to me "Isn't group work supposed to be longer than other activities?" She went on to give another text for the students to work individually. The text contained similar information to previous texts she had used. The students were asked to respond to the same questions as the previous tasks.

Many student teachers tended to integrate teaching reading skills and speaking skills because, according to them, speaking skills encouraged the students' engagement with the lesson. While the intention of teaching speaking was to gain control over the class and promote students' engagement, student teachers, who taught in mixed gender schools, were not always able to gain class control in speaking classes. Chandra, for instance, taught speaking and reading skills for her first class. During the whole class

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interaction, her students, especially the male students, did not participate. Despite

Chandra's instructions to participate or to pay attention, the students listened to music

from earphones, took a nap, or played with their smartphones.

c. Post-teaching activities.

When asked about their post-teaching activities, Dian, Qisti, and Rima referred

to the individual exercises they assigned as the post-teaching activities. Dian's

individual exercise involved students writing an autobiography and reading it aloud in

front of the class. Qisti asked students to write a description of a cartoon character from

the film they just watched while Rima indicated that the post-teaching activity was to do

the exercises in the workbook. Meanwhile, Oesman and Erna briefly addressed the

structures of the genres and reviewed what they learned that day. Galuh, Chandra, and

Umi pointed out that they were running out of time to do post-teaching activities.

Galuh, who taught at the beginning of the school time, admitted that she miscalculated

her teaching time because the school required every class to read the Holy book in the

morning when school started. This activity usually took up to fifteen minutes. Another

student teacher, Tia, stated that she spent so much time doing group work that she did

not have time to do any post-teaching activity. Right before the class ended, Tia

collected students' work and ended the class.

Student Teachers' Practices in Reading and Vocabulary

Vocabulary mastery became a central are of concern in reading comprehension

both for student teachers and their students. Dictionaries were not commonly used to

deal with new words. Only one of 21 student teachers brought a printed dictionary to

class and handed it to her students when they asked the meaning of a new word. When

student teachers were asked about a new word, which was also new for them, they utilized the online dictionary.

Of course, translating from L2 to L1 can be found in many EFL classes. In this study, all student teachers employed the translation method to help their students understand the meaning of new words. The following description was taken from my observation of Nora's teaching practice:

> Nora shows a passage "My Pet" on the screen and she asked the students what "a pet" was. Everybody told her the translation of the word in L1. She, then, asked the students the generic structure of a descriptive text. She picked the students randomly to read aloud every sentence and she, together with her students, translated what they read. She asked her students to write down the passage in their book along with the translation.

During the post-observation interview, I asked Nora about the rationale for the decoding technique. She stated,

> The cooperating teacher asked me to. Besides, the aim of the class was that the students were able to read and translate, so they could answer the comprehension questions, which I gave later. They answered all the questions correctly. So I think it was effective.

Apart from the student teachers' beliefs about instructional techniques, the cooperating teacher had a big influence on student teachers' decisions in class. For example, Nora used L2 in a slow rate when explaining her lesson. Many times, she repeated instructions or questions in L2 to ensure students understood instructions. She only used a few sentences in L1 during class. The cooperating teacher, who was observing her, asked her in L2, to speak more slowly and use more L1 when explaining so her students understood her lesson. Nora, then, used more L1 for the rest of the class or used L2 and translated what she said into L1. When she was asked why she used L2

when teaching, she said that she believed that exposing students to L2 encouraged language automaticity.

Galuh's class also had the same activity when discussing spoof texts. She explained that, apart from having a significant contribution to comprehension, the students asked her to translate the passage. She was teaching a mixed gender class, and she was struggling to gain her students' attention. The excerpt below is the description from the class in which Galuh taught for the first time.

> After discussing the first text, Galuh distributed a copy of the second text to her students. She asked students if they found unknown words in the text. Some students mentioned new words and she wrote the English words on the board. She, then, asked her students the meaning of the words in L1, and wrote the correct answers on the board.

The rationale behind her pedagogical approach, according to her, was that asking students new words and writing the students' correct answer on the board would encourage students to actively participate. In addition, according to her, the students did not overly rely on her to solve their vocabulary problem. It boosted students' confidence when their answers were correct and praised by the teacher. Unlike Galuh and Nora, Rima did not utilize translation activities in her class. In her opinion, word-per-word translation was not a contributing factor to students' comprehension. Instead, skimming and scanning helped her students with reading comprehension. Thus, she employed the skimming and scanning in her class before she asked comprehension questions. This belief was partially influenced by the cooperating teacher who informed her that the word-per-word decoding technique was not effective.

Reflections on Practice

In post-class observation interviews, aside from asking questions about the rationale on the student teachers' actions, I asked them to reflect on their teaching practice. Farrell (2007) argues that self-critical teachers become better teachers. The questions used to address reflections-on-practice were the ones proposed by Farrell (2007), which were included in sets of questions used in the post-class observation.

The findings of the study indicated that Dian, Tia, Bintang, Sarah, Maria, Umi, and Fina were happy with their practice. In addition, they believed the goals they set in lesson plans were achieved. They articulated that some of their students did not do as well as they expected, but these student teachers were happy with what they did in class. Maria stated that she was impressed with the high level of participation of her class.

When I asked student teachers how they felt about their teaching, Qisti, Galuh, Chandra, Isma, Erna, Kurnia, and Pita were not happy with their classes for various reasons. Qisti and Galuh expressed a high level of anxiety. Qisti stated that her anxiety was caused by being recorded and being supervised by her supervising teacher. Galuh, Chandra, Kurnia and Erna believed that they were not able to handle their students as well as they had expected. When I asked student teachers about their way of teaching that they liked most and least, Tia shared that she liked her students' participation in her class:

> What I liked from my class was when my students comprehended the texts. I also liked the time when my students looked interested when I was explaining the lesson and some of them even voluntarily raised their hands.

Like Tia, Erna appreciated the participation of her science program students in her first observed class. She said, "Most of them actually paid attention to the lesson. Not like other students in the other classes." When I asked her what she liked least from her teaching, she answered

> What I liked least was when in a group work session, they actually worked individually. Only students who got access to the texts did the work. On the contrary, they did the assignment in groups when they were supposed to do it individually.

> When I asked Rima what she liked about her practice of the observed class, she

also attributed her success to her students' enthusiasm. She expressed to me,

> What I liked most was my students' enthusiasm when answering my questions. Also, I liked the part when I asked them about hortatory texts, they remembered everything about the genre. When I played the game, they also paid attention.

> Sarah shared what she liked least about her speaking class that she taught when I

observed her:

> I don't really like the work-in-group part. They were supposed to work in groups. I know sometimes it becomes very busy. I saw some of them going out of the classroom. Some of them didn't even do the assignment.

Nora also shared her feeling about her observed teaching practice. She stated,

> I am a bit disappointed in the part when I did the pre-teaching activities. They did not remember anything about what a descriptive text was and I knew that they had a lesson on it before. They claimed that their teacher had not taught them the structure of the text nor its definition. I was not blaming them because they did not get the explanation in details.

> Pita, who taught grammar in the Mixed-Gender School II, shared her experience

of her observed class. She said,

> [What I liked from my way of teaching] is when they seemed to be interested when I gave them some examples. Some of them even realized that their sentences contained some grammatical mistakes. They were really enthusiastic.

Other student teachers had different opinions about their own teaching practice. They were looking at themselves individually. Oesman, for example, reflected on his teaching practice by sharing:

> I did not do a lot of explanation today. Most teachers would explain the lesson thoroughly so the students get a good amount of knowledge. I gave a little explanation and gave the students more time to practice their English. But, I was shy especially when I did not know some vocabulary. I think a good teacher needs to know more English words than the students.

Qisti looked at her classroom management when I asked her what she thought about her teaching practice that day. She remarked:

> I was not able to manage my time as I had expected. As a teacher, I should have been able to help all students. So next time, I will focus on the classroom and time management. I will give more time for students' activity.

Rima, who also attributed her success to her students' participation, shared what she thought about her teaching practice. She remarked, "I wasn't prepared to teach. I was confused about what I had to do because I did not prepare the activity for individual assignment." Dian also remarked, "I couldn't manage my class time. I spent too much time on the beginning of the class. So, the individual exercise I gave was supposed to require each student to read aloud their work in front of the class." When I asked Fina what she liked least about her way of teaching, she stated:

> I did not like the part when I did not build students' background knowledge of the text content. I just distributed the text to them. That's it. I had had a plan to make them curious about the text, but I did not do it. I think that's what made them not read the text. They were not curious enough about the topic of the text.

These answers indicated that doing self-reflection was new to some student teachers, such as Tia, Erna, Sarah, and Nora. These student teachers attributed their success or failure of their classroom activities to the level of students' engagement rather than looking at the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of their own instruction. For

example, when I asked Sarah what she liked about her teaching practice today, she answered,

> I don't really like the work-in-group part. They were supposed to work in groups. I know sometimes it becomes very busy. I saw some of them going out of the classroom. Some of them didn't even do the assignment.

I then reworded my question to encourage her to look at her actions. She briefly said, "None." Similarly, when answering my question, "What did you like most from your teaching practice today?", some student teachers, such as Bintang and Rima, mentioned that they liked that their students participated in their lesson and gave a considerable amount of respect to them. Because I wanted to encourage the student teachers to reflect of their own practice, I rephrased my question and I asked them specifically what they liked about their own personal teaching practice. They simply answered, "I liked everything." During the post-class observation interviews, I avoided using the terms *reflection* or *to reflect* because student teachers used the terms with *review* or *to review* interchangeably. These terms also existed in the Indonesian language and had the same meanings as that of in English. I noticed this when I discussed classroom instructions in reading classes during my initial interview with Umi and Tia. It was evident that, to some student teachers, doing a self-reflection was a challenging activity.

No significant changes were observed between the first and second observations in most of the participants. Nora stated, in the post-class observation interview after the first lesson, that she would use different teaching methods next time. However, during the second lesson, she employed the comprehension game that she played in the previous class with almost zero changes even though she was assigned to teach a

different focus from the first lesson. Like in her previous class, the students also looked enthusiastic playing the game. Nora still used word-per-word translation like what she did in the first class

When she was asked what she would do to improve her teaching of reading after her first lesson, Erna pointed out that she wanted to have better preparation for her second lesson. In the first lesson, Erna asked her students to read aloud and asked them if they knew what the text was about. Her students said that they did, but Erna went on translating each word. During the second lesson, she used her first thirty minutes to play a game to make the students feel comfortable with the situation. This was the activity that she did not do in her previous class. In regards to the reading instruction, she still employed reading aloud, translation, and comprehension questions.

In her first class, Rima taught in a hall with no projectors and had a lot of disturbance from another class, with whom she had to share the hall. The hall had a poor insulation, so it was extremely crowded and her voice could not be clearly heard by her students nor recorded by the video camera. The hall did not have any chairs, but the school provided short desks that were arranged in rows. Thus, students sat on the floor and had the desk to write. She had a desk, a chair, and a whiteboard in front of the class. She started the class by reviewing the lesson of hortatory text, especially the structure of the text. After grouping the students, she proceeded with distributing a piece of text to everyone and she started the comprehension contest. The game took almost the whole class time. During the interview, she stated that she was not really prepared for the class because she found out she was going to teach at the hall at the last minute. She explained that she did not design an individual activity for her students and

that she spent too much time on group work, which was the comprehension quiz game. In addition, she pointed out that she had had run out of ideas, and she still had plenty of time before the bell rang. So, she tried to stretch the activities just to wait for the bell to ring.

In her second teaching practice, Rima was assigned to teach, again, the hortatory text genre in a regular classroom. The following is the description of what she did in her class, which was different from the other participants' reading lessons.

> She explained that the hortatory exposition text structure consisted of thesis statement, argument, and recommendation. She showed the slide and asked the students to provide an example of an argument. No student responded. This activity took place for about five minutes. She proceeded by showing an ad of a woman smoking a cigarette on the screen, along with questions for group discussion. After approximately fifteen minutes, she asked the students to share their discussion with the class. After that, she handed out a reading text to the students as well as the comprehension questions. The students answered the questions individually on a piece of paper.

Unlike her first class where she spent most of the class time playing the comprehension quiz game, in her second class assignment, she was able to demonstrate the instructional sequence that was mentioned earlier: review, structure of the text genre, model of the text, group work, and individual work. Although she still spent a lot of time in group work in her second lesson, Rima also moved around to inspect or help her students although she did not encourage her students to use L1.

Differences between Student Teachers' Beliefs and Practices

This section discusses the differences between student teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching L2 reading in particular and teaching L2 in general. The categories used to differentiate beliefs and practices are

a. grammar-translation,

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b. comprehension questions and language work,

c. skills and strategies, and

d. extensive reading.

These categories were proposed by Bamford and Day (1998) and were described in Figure 4 (Model of Teaching L2 Reading). Based on the interviews and observations, a student teacher may fall into more than one category as they combined several methods when they were teaching. The result of the categorizing is described below:

Table 4
Classifications Classes Involving Reading

Grammar and Translation	Comprehension Questions and Language Work	Skills and Strategies	Extensive Reading
Nora (1st class)	Nora (1st class)	Tia (1st class)	None
Fina (1st class)	Galuh (1st class)	Tia (2nd class)	
Galuh (1st class)	Rima (1st class)	Nora (1st class)	
Dian (1st class)	Fina (1st class)		
Erna (1st class)	Maria (2nd class)		
Oesman (1st class	Erna (1st class)		
Erna (2nd class)	Tia (1st class)		
	Tia (2nd class)		

a. Grammar Translation

Nora, Fina, Galuh, Dian, and Erna fell into this category because they performed the activities that are typically done in this type of class in which they learned grammar rules and word-by-word translation. A grammar translation reading class includes reading aloud, repeating after the teachers, translating the words from L2 to L1, focusing on the meaning at the sentence level, and following the textbooks. Nora, for example, showed her students a text on the slides at the beginning of the class. She asked different students to read different sentences aloud and translated them in L1. In addition to this, she translated the sentences on her own to provide a more accurate

translation. When she showed her students the second text, she read it aloud and translated each sentence for her students. Nora also instructed her students to write down the whole texts both in L2 and L1 on their note books. When I interviewed her and asked her reasons for designing the lesson in such a way, she stated that writing down the texts in L2 and L1 would help her students recall the words because they had heard and written the words multiple times.

Fina, who played the comprehension quiz at the beginning of her class, did not ask students to translate the texts. She gave her students a few minutes to understand the text before she asked them the comprehension questions orally to the students. However, at the end of her class, like Nora, Fina assigned her students randomly to read the texts aloud together. After asking her student the meaning of some words in L1, she translated the whole text aloud.

While Galuh also instructed her students to read aloud, she did not do this activity as a class activity. For the first text, she assigned a student to read the whole text aloud and asked the rest of the class if they understood the point of the text. One male student voluntarily answered her question by translating the text. On the second text, Galuh wrote L2 new words, asked her students their meanings in L1, and wrote the L1 translation of the words on the board next to the L2 words. She asked one of her students to come in front of the class, to read the text aloud, and to explain to the rest of the class. The student, the same student who voluntarily answered her questions previously, explained to his friends by translating the text. When I asked Galuh why she asked this particular student to read the text, she answered,

> I asked him because I wanted to encourage students' participation. When this
> student read, the rest of his friends actually listened to him, so I said to myself,

"Why not?" Besides, his English was not bad, and his pronunciation was okay. But it looked to me that he knew a lot of vocabulary.

In another reading class, Dian read a text aloud before she eventually showed the text on the screen. She then asked her students to repeat after her reading some vocabulary in the text. She repeated each word twice. After that, she asked her students to read the text from the screen aloud. She distributed the second text to the students and instructed the students to practice reading the text and to ask her if they found any new words. Dian proceeded with instructing two students to come in front of the class and to read the text aloud. She made several corrections on the pronunciation. She did this for the rest of the class time.

When I asked her in the post-observation interview about her activity, Dian answered that she concentrated on the students' pronunciation and instructed the other students to continue on practicing reading the text before they had their turns. I then asked her to discuss the texts she used in her class. Dian explained to me that the texts did not include comprehension questions. Then she added, "I was teaching reading, so I focused on reading aloud and correct pronunciation." I also inquired if she included teaching other reading skills. She answered, "Well, I did teach vocabulary. I asked them to repeat after me and told them the meaning of new words."

Like Galuh and Dian, Erna performed word-by-word translation in her class. She distributed a copy of the text to each group of approximately ten students and showed the text on the screen as well. Upon her students reading the text quietly, she asked her students if there were new vocabulary words. She asked if her students would volunteer to read the text in front of the class. One male student volunteered while other students listened. Erna did not make any corrections to the student's pronunciation.

After the students finished reading, Erna asked her students, in L1, if they understood the text. Several students replied her that they understood, but Erna proceeded to read the text aloud and to translate the text anyway.

Not all student teachers provided a copy of the text to the students and asked them to read it. Oesman, who taught in the Boys-Only School, was assigned to teach narrative texts to his students for his first observed class. To start the class, he asked his students what narrative texts were about and some students participated in the discussion. After the discussion, he provided examples of narrative texts. He mentioned some folklore and encouraged his students to mention other narratives with which they were familiar. He proceeded to ask his students to write on one of the stories from folklores in L1 and he then called several students to come forward to retell the story they had written in L1. At the end of the class, he grouped the students into three groups and asked them to write a ten sentences narrative story in L2. He then asked the group representative to read the sentences aloud in front of the class.

The grammar-translation method was also employed by Chandra who was assigned to teach reading and speaking skills in the Mixed Gender School I. I recorded her first observed class when she taught *expressing surprise and amazement and reading news items*. She taught these two skills independently. When teaching the first part of the class, Chandra showed a list of language expressions on the screen. After reading the expressions aloud and translating for the students that the students had to complete in group. She then distributed a handout for her students containing an information gap activity. When Chandra taught the second part of her syllabus *reading news items*, she assigned one of her students to come in front of the class and read aloud

the text she provided and there was no further activity following the reading aloud. After this, Chandra played a music video that had no relation with her lesson. Apparently, she still had plenty of time before the bell rang.

b. Comprehension question and language work

In a typical day of a reading class that employs comprehension question and language work, the teacher usually uses passages and assigns her students to read and work on the grammar of the passages. While none of the student teachers used a text to discuss how L2 grammatical rules worked, Nora, Galuh, Rima, Fina, and Erna fell into this category. Nora, Tia, Maria, Rima, and Fina also fell into this category because they played the comprehension quiz, which provided comprehension questions. Tia, who taught descriptive texts, provided a text for her students. After reading the text aloud, she gave comprehension questions orally to her students. Tia also asked her students to provide detailed information on the answers, such as what paragraph the answers were in. Tia did all this activity before playing the comprehension quiz using the same text.

While Galuh did not play the game, she provided comprehension questions for all the passages she used and instructed her students to write their answers on a piece of paper. Erna provided her students with questions concerning the text, but the questions were not comprehension questions. Rather, they were concerned with the structure of the discussed genre of the text.

Those who taught grammar in class – Lina, Pita, Maria, and Umi – did not utilize any texts to analyze the language. Lina, Maria, and Pita, who were assigned to teach in the Mixed Gender School II, taught active-passive voice. They sometimes team-taught the classes. They employed a similar strategy when teaching grammar to

their students, which was instructing their students to create active voice sentences. Student teachers wrote students' sentences on the board and asked the other students if the sentence was correct. Some students participated in the discussions by correcting the sentence if the sentence was false. After that, student teachers and their students manipulated the sentences into passive voice.

c. Skills and strategies

A teacher who taught a reading class using this strategy would activate the students' background knowledge to prepare the students with the new information they were about to receive. Furthermore, the students would read the text on their own and answer the questions. Although all student teachers who taught reading classes reviewed the previous lessons that the students had performed, Tia and Nora conducted an activity that aimed to activate her students' background knowledge. Tia was assigned to teach descriptive texts to her students. After reviewing the previous lesson, she asked her students about their mothers. The following is the description of her class:

> Tia: [In L2] I would like to start the class by asking you a question. Who love your mother?
> Students: [Quiet]
> Tia: [Talked to a student near her in L2] Do you love your mother? Why do you love your mother? [Student answered in a soft voice]. [Tia in L1] Patient, kind, a good cook. [In L2] Great. Anybody else?
> Students: [in L1] Friendly. Caring.
> Tia: Good. [In L1] What do we have to do to know someone's physical appearance or characteristics?
> Students: [In L1] Observation. Interview.
> Tia: [In L1] Right. Anything else? Do you know what a descriptive text is for?
> Students: [in L1] Describing things.
> Tia: Yes. [Tia wrote on the board. "Generic structure of a descriptive text consists of 'identification' and 'description'"]. [In L1] "Identification" is usually used to describe the physical appearance of someone. For example, the description of your mom. Her hair is curly. Her skin is tanned or whatever. "Description" refers to

describing the personality of someone. For example, my mother is friendly and beautiful. Okay. Now we are going to continue our lesson [She handed out copies of texts to students and let her students read silently for a few minutes] [Still in L1] Okay. Who knows where the identification part is in the text?

Students: [In L2] Beautiful.

Tia: All right. [In L1] Please read it. [The student shook her head] [Tia in L1] It's okay. Please read. [The student spoke something softly]. Okay. [To the class in L1] The identification part is located in the first paragraph. [She read the paragraph aloud]

Tia proceeded by playing the comprehension quiz by giving the questions orally. Her first questions ranged from finding the topic of the paragraphs to making inferences. From the video, I found out that the text was mainly about someone's physical appearance and personal characteristics. In short, the vocabulary used in the background knowledge activation activity was similar to the ones used in the text.

Nora, in her first observed class, also tried to activate her students' background knowledge although she had different topics between the first activity and the text. In the background knowledge activation activity, Nora showed a picture of a boy band that was widely known. With the boy band's most popular song played as the background music, she asked her students questions about this boy band. When the response was not what she had expected, she showed another picture of a popular girl-band and asked the same questions to her students. She encouraged her students to participate in the discussion by saying in L2, "Please, be active." After several minutes, she showed the text "My Pet" on the slide. Unlike Tia's questions, the questions that Nora orally gave to her students focused more on the accuracy of the information presented in the text. Her questions were like "What is the color of the pet?" and "What animal is described in the text?"

d. Extensive reading

A class that engages its students with extensive reading activity provides students opportunities to read various books in the target language. Book reports are encouraged in this type of class. In this study, none of student teachers who taught reading promoted extensive reading to their students. Student teachers who used texts in their classes did not encourage their students to perform post-reading activities on other texts either in L1 or in L2. Although they selected various texts in their class and used more than one topic in each class, student teachers did not provide choices of texts for their students.

While the four categories are valuable in differentiating student teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching reading, they may not be as useful to student teachers who did not teach reading. The data shows that there were 19 non-reading classes performed by student teachers, such as grammar and writing classes. The details can be found in the Table 5.

Table 5
Classifications of Non-Reading Classes

Grammar Competence	Sociocultural Competence	Discourse Competence	Strategic Competence
Maria (1st class)	Isma (1st class)	Sarah (2nd class)	Oesman (2nd class)
Lina (1st class)	Chandra (1st class)	Umi (2nd class)	
Pita (1st class)		Bintang (1st class)	
Umi (1st class)		Bintang (2nd class)	
Qisti (1st class)			
Sarah (1st class)			
Nora (2nd class)			

For this reason, I include these classes in different categories: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence, and discourse competence - following the criteria suggested by Communicative Language Teaching proposed originally by Canale (1983). Like the previous classifications on reading classes, a student teacher may fall into more than one category. In this study, each student teacher was observed twice. In each class, they might have been assigned two different skills to teach. Thus, it is highly possible that a student teacher's name appears both in reading class classification and non-reading class classification. The classifications of non-reading classes can be seen in the following table.

a. Grammatical competence

Some experts refer to grammatical competence as linguistic competence (Celce-Murcia, 2007). This competence includes learning the lexicon, morpheme, syntax, and phoneme of the target language. Student teachers who taught non-reading classes and fit into this category were Maria, Lina, Pita, Umi, Qisti, Sarah, and Nora. Maria, Lina, Pita, and Umi focused on teaching syntax to their students. They taught basic sentence types, word order, and their modification. Maria, Lina, and Pita taught the basic sentence structure of constructing active and passive voice. They asked their students to create

sentences with either active or passive voice and explained to them how to change them in the other form.

Umi also focused on the grammatical competence when she was assigned to teach writing skills in her first observed class. She stated the class by reviewing the previous lesson at the beginning of her class, which was descriptive text. After having a discussion on the topic, she explained to her students about what a noun phrase was and how a noun phrase was constructed. She then gave instructions to her students to make groups and to write a sentence that contained a noun phrase. In the post observation interview, Umi told me that her next objective was to enable her students to be able to use the sentence in a paragraph.

In the second observed class, Nora's strategy to teach writing skills in descriptive text was quite different from Umi's. I was not able to see the materials that Nora showed in the slides in the video. However, based on the video, I observed that Nora asked her students to fill in the blanks in a number of sentences. Like what she did in the previous class, she explained what the function and the structure of a descriptive text as well as the function of each paragraph in a descriptive text. Upon doing this, she asked if her students understood the basic sentence structure in L2, which was the use of *be* in simple present tense and simple continuous tense. She then showed sentences on the screen. From her explanation to her students, the sentences were incomplete sentences. Some sentences were missing different parts of speech, like the adjectives, nouns, verbs, or adverbs. She gave instructions to her students to complete the sentences with appropriate parts of speech that they could think of. Like when she was playing the

comprehension quiz in which each group competed to answer questions correctly, Nora

evaluated her students' understanding of the sentence structure using the same strategy.

b. Sociolinguistic competence

This competence includes the knowledge of the culture of the target language.

Out of the non-reading classes observed, none of them contained the teaching of the L2

culture. Some student teachers touched slightly on the culture. Isma taught daily

expressions used in verbal communication in both of his observed speaking classes. He

explained to his students what the vocabulary meant in L1 and showed dialogues that

used the expressions. He modified the dialogues so they fit into the L1 cultures. He

changed the names of people and the context of the dialogues with the ones popular in

L1. Another example was taken from Chandra's class when she was teaching the

expressions of amazement. She showed a video in which the actor used an expression

commonly used by an L2 native speaker. However, neither Isma nor Chandra provided

any activity for her students to use the expressions nor provide further explanations on

the L2 culture with regard to the expressions. As matter of fact, the culture of target

language did not come up in the interviews from any of student teachers, except Umi.

During the pre-class observation interview, Umi briefly stated that it was important for

L2 teachers to know the culture of the target language they were teaching. She brought

up this topic when I asked her opinion of an ideal English teacher.

c. Discourse competence

This competence requires student teachers to be able to encourage their students

use their knowledge of language, background knowledge, and new information in a

meaningful activity. This competence focuses on how to use the knowledge about

language appropriately in certain contexts. This requires teachers to create contexts for their students to be able to use the materials they have delivered previously. Umi's second observed class falls into this category and so does Sarah's first observed class.

Like her first observed class, Umi was assigned to teach writing skills used in descriptive genre. In her first observed class, she taught noun phrase. This time, she taught a different group of students. The following is an excerpt of her second observed class:

> Umi started her class by showing a close up picture of a famous American singer on the screen. She asked her students if they knew who this person was. Most students did. She then showed several paragraphs that contained the structure of the genre she discussed on the left column and the function of each paragraph on the right column. She then provided an explanation about the paragraphs. After that, she grouped her students into five groups and asked all of them to stand on one side of the class. She arranged the supplies – glue, pieces of papers that contained sentences, and a green paper with a picture on it – on the table for each group. She gave instructions to her students. One person from each group came to the table and arranged the sentences. When they finished the game, Umi asked each group to show their work to the class. After this, Umi distributed a piece of paper to every student and asked them to write a letter to their parents to describe a person they just met. She showed several pictures on the screen and asked the students to choose one of them. The cooperating teacher asked the students to continue writing the letter due to time constraints.

Although Umi's first observed class was also teaching writing, she chose a different focus on her second class. In her second observed class, she asked her students to rearrange jumble sentences and write a letter. Unlike Umi who taught a writing class, Sarah was assigned to teach speaking skills on describing people's appearance in her second observed class. Apparently, this group of students had repeatedly discussed descriptive genre because I could hear from the video a student asking when they would move on to the next topic. Sarah did not provide any response on the student's comment.

After asking about the previous lesson, Sarah showed a vocabulary list on the screen and instructed her students to repeat after her. She also explained the meaning of some words in L1. She then played a video in which an L2 native speaker described some people's appearance. The video also contained the subtitle of the narrative. After having a discussion about the video, Sarah grouped her students and handed out pictures for each group. The picture consisted of a family that had different physical appearance. Each person in the group was to imagine that they were one of the family members. Then, they were asked to describe the physical appearance of the person of their choice. Sarah also explained to her students that they would have to present their passage to the class. She then gave an example on how to do the presentation.

Umi and Sarah were student teachers who attempted to use the language they had learned in a specific context. They created a scenario in which students were encouraged to use what they had learned in a certain context. Both Umi and Sarah did not teach their students how to construct a correct sentence that the students could use.

d. Strategic competence

This competence encourages students to use different strategies to communicate with other people in the target language to help themselves when communicating. Students also need to be able to recall the vocabulary or grammatical rules so other people understand them. This study finds that while they relied on rote memorization, none of student teachers who taught non-reading classes encouraged their students to utilize this competence. Although all student teachers, except Isma, instructed their students to work in groups, they did not monitor if their students used the target language when they were having the discussions.

A total of 21 student teachers participated in this study. A total of 36 class observation videos were collected because two student teachers withdrew and some videos were not obtained. Out of 36 videos, 23 were non-reading classes and 13 involved at least some reading. Some classes could not be classified into any of the categories for several reasons. First and foremost, some videos did not provide meaningful data to be analyzed due to the process of recording. The videos obtained from Jaka and Kurnia's classes did not reflect the actual class organization and stopped at some points of the class. Dian's second class was another example of a class that could not be classified. After calling the students' names, Dian started the class by explaining narrative texts to her students. She then gave her student a task to write a narrative text based on the comic strips she showed on the screen. These activities were all conducted in 20 minutes. The next part of the video of her class showed her students working on the task for about the same amount of time. Almost at the end of this part of video, she asked her students if they wanted to watch a movie. The video stopped at 40 minutes of her class time.

The second reason is that the student teacher did not teach English. In her second observed class, for example, Lina taught French to her students. The last reason that inhibited me from classifying the classes was due to lack of organization of the class. Qisti's second observed class was included in this category. In this particular class, Qisti did not have a focus on her teaching although her report indicated that she was assigned to teach speaking skills. She spent the first twenty minutes to have a chat with the students in L1. In addition, she did not give clear instructions for her students when she was referring to the workbook. This also created confusion among her

students, which I could hear from the video. From the video, I observed that she had two students came in front of the class and read something from the workbook. After this activity, she instructed her students to work in groups to do the exercises from the workbook. She received several questions from her students with regards to the instructions. Ten minutes later, she asked her students in a group of three to read something from a piece of paper. While three students were doing this, other students were doing different things. She proceeded with explaining something to the class while her students were still on the task she gave to them, after this, the video stopped.

Conclusions

The study found student teachers' beliefs and practices in L2 reading were closely related with their beliefs and practices in L2 in general. Student teachers believed that reading materials that were effective for students were the ones that were short, non-authentic materials. English exams usually used short passages that contained several paragraphs; thus, student teachers selected reading materials that looked like English exams. Non-authentic materials were preferred because they were usually at students' L2 proficiency and more contextualized. Student teachers believed that reading skills were less important for themselves and students than other skills, especially speaking because, according to them, L2 proficiency would automatically improve when one's speaking skills improved. Student teachers believed that effective ways to teach L2 reading was to follow a certain sequence with the focus of group work. Some student teachers even stated that they had limited knowledge on teaching L2 reading because they had never seen their teachers teaching it.

This study also found that student teachers regarded themselves as teachers who were able to break the typical formal and rigid student-teacher relationship although they believed that ideal teachers should have a higher degree of subject matter and pedagogical knowledge. They believed that a more informal and casual student-teacher relationship would encourage students to like their teachers, which in turn, would love the subject and learn more. But, at the same time, informality had also caused student teachers some problems, such as students thought student teachers were easy on them.

Another finding obtained from this study was that socio-cultural contexts were influential towards student teachers' decision making in many aspects. For example, family influenced their decisions in enrolling in the English Department or other departments. Culturally, it was common in Indonesia that parents are still financially responsible to their children until they are married. Thus, parents and family play an important role in many aspects of children's life, including choosing majors in university. Reading for pleasure was not one of the most popular activities within local societies in many parts of Indonesia. Thus, student teachers' beliefs about the importance of reading both intensively and extensively may have been influenced by the society. However, the strong Islamic environment in which student teachers were brought up, studied, and student taught, had little or no influence towards their beliefs in material selections or teaching L2 in general.

Most student teachers' practices in teaching L2 reading aligned with their beliefs. For example, they believed that reading materials should be short and be in line with the curriculum. In practice, selected reading materials that consisted of several paragraphs and never once did student teachers read a book, e.g., picture books or

children's books together with their students. In addition, student teachers believed that teaching English, especially reading, should involve games and fun activities. Their practice showed what they expressed in the interviews. They performed pre-teaching activities very briefly. These activities mainly included asking students for what they discussed in their previous class, which usually taught by other student teachers. Student teachers usually proceeded with explaining the topics they were going to teach and went on with playing comprehension quiz game, which required students to recall certain information from the texts given by student teachers. Other than playing this quiz game, student teachers spent the majority of their teaching time to do group work to perform a specific task. Student teachers believed that group work was the most important part of L2 learning because it was the main part of student-centered learning. When assigning group work, student teachers did minimal monitoring and encouragement to students who used L1 or engaged with other activities. Student teachers rarely performed post-teaching activities, that they had already planned, because they were caught up with group work.

During the interviews, student teachers associated teaching reading with reading aloud and correcting students' pronunciation. They also believed that their students had a low level of English proficiency, which caused them to translate the text for students. In their practice, student teachers used translation methods most of the time although majority of students had little to no difficulties understanding L2 texts they used. Student teachers promoted reading very minimally because they believed students would be bored and used L1 most of the time when teaching because, according to them, vocabulary mastery still became the major problem with students. The findings of

this study also show that reflective practice needed to be promoted among student teachers. Most student teachers believed that they had done the best in teaching L2 reading and L2 in general and that they would not change anything to improve their practice.

The influence of educational contexts, such as students' proficiency and behavior, supervising teachers, and mandated curriculum, also contributed to student teachers beliefs. They believed that planning a lesson should follow school syllabi and the national curriculum because they wanted students to pass the exam. In addition, student teachers believed that they had to take recommendation from supervising teachers because they were concerned about receiving negative evaluation if they reject supervising teachers' recommendations.

Chapter 5: Conclusions and Suggestions

English Education Department students are required to complete a teaching practicum as a partial requirement to obtain a bachelor's degree in English Education. The course is usually assigned at the end of their coursework before student teachers start their coursework research project. The general practice of the teaching practicum in Indonesia is that universities work together with local high schools, and middle schools in some cases, and assign a group of students to teach English in the schools. The schools may be public, religion-based, or private schools. Aside from teaching English, student teachers are commonly assigned to help with administrative matters, such as cataloging library books, participating in extracurricular activities, and supervising exams.

In this study, the university that student teachers attended was an Islamic university that had worked collaboratively with local Islamic high schools, which included gender specific schools and mixed gender schools. There was one Islamic girls-only school and one Islamic boys-only school in the city (all secondary schools) and numerous number of mixed gender Islamic schools ranging from early childhood education institutions to high schools in the city. The city's business center, government offices, and Sultan Palace were located around the corner of the Islamic village in the city. The Mixed-Gender School I and Girls-Only School were located at the heart of the Islamic village across the street from each other. Meanwhile, the Mixed-Gender School II and the Boys-Only School were located approximately 2 miles to southwest from the two previously mentioned schools.

While I started my data collection from mid-March to mid-April 2013, the teaching practicum course commenced in mid-February and ended in mid-April 2013. Before student teachers actually taught their assigned classes, they had been involved in a series of activities, both ceremonial and academic. An orientation day was held to provide student teachers with information concerning the teaching practicum, rules and regulations, procedures, grading system, and school practices. In mid-February, the university professors met principals, supervising teacher coordinators, and English teachers of each related school to officially begin student teaching activities at the schools.

Following the activities, student teachers began observing at the schools for a few weeks. Based on student teachers' written reports, by mid-March 2013, they had completed their observations, which included getting familiar with school systems, school personnel and classroom observations. Each school usually had more than one English teacher. In Mixed-Gender School II, for example, three English teachers supervised eight student teachers, whereas there were four English teachers in the Girls-Only school and 12 student teachers. Student teachers observed their supervising teachers' classes and teaching assignments were assigned based on supervising teachers' classes. Student teachers did not perform the actual teaching until mid March 2013. The data for this study was collected from mid-March to mid-April 2013, a few days before they were ceremoniously withdrawn from the schools by the university.

This chapter presents the conclusions of the study which were guided by the three research questions:

1. What are the Indonesian student teachers' beliefs about teaching L2 reading?

2. How do these beliefs manifest in Indonesian student teachers' L2 practice during the teaching practica?

3. Are there differences between Indonesian student teachers' beliefs and practices? What are some potential causes of the differences or similarities?

Discussion of each research question is presented below.

Student Teachers' Beliefs about Teaching L2 Reading

The Sources of Beliefs

a. Former teachers

Experiences and prior knowledge play an important role in shaping beliefs (Reeves, 2009; Willen, Isher, Hutchinson, & Kindsvatter, 2000; Freeman, 2002). Indonesian student teachers' beliefs were heavily influenced by their experiences. Looking back previous years of learning, student teachers were aware of what an ideal class and an ideal teacher should look like. For example, student teachers referred to their secondary school teachers when I asked about ideal teachers. Similarly, when I asked them about ideal English classes, they inevitably referred to their high school English class experiences. However, the experiences were far from ideal. Accordingly, student teachers made attempts not to adopt teaching strategies used by their English teachers in high schools. As Reeves (2009) and Fox (1995) maintained, student teachers' knowledge is derived from different sources, which include their lived experiences, student teachers used these personal experiences to guide their own teaching.

Apart from referring to high school teachers, student teachers related their teaching methodology in L2 reading with their experiences with the teacher preparation program they attended. They mentioned their university professor's name when asked for the source of information regarding specific teaching methodology for teaching L2 reading. The comprehension quiz game that showed up repeatedly in student teachers' classroom had been suggested by a university professor, who tried the activity out when she was teaching them. In this case study, the teacher preparation program served its student teachers with the pedagogical content knowledge that they needed to survive in class time. Student teachers designed their classes as their university professors advised them. Student teachers also made use of videos and games they learned from their professors that would help them spend the time although many of these games and videos had little or no relation to learning English. In short, the student teachers seemed to have learned the "technical aspects" of teaching (Cole & Knowles, 1993, p. 470) fairly well from university faculty.

b. Student teachers' perceptions

Of course, student teachers' beliefs mainly come from experiences, which can be considered as unexamined beliefs and may originate from intuitions and assumptions (Kindsvatter et al., 1988). Student teachers in this study frequently used their beliefs to guide their instructional decision making. For example, student teachers believed that L2 reading was boring and that their students would be bored when they read. However, not once did student teachers actually ask students if they liked reading or what kind of books they liked to read. Student teachers made the

assumption that, because they did not like reading, their students would not like it either.

Another common perception with regard to L2 reading and L2 learning, in general, was that students' English knowledge of English vocabulary and general proficiency would automatically improve through speaking. Reading ability was believed to be the least important skills in learning an L2. The fact that students were mainly assessed by their reading ability seemed to have minimal influence on their beliefs about teaching although some of them clearly stated that they believed that goal of learning in secondary school was to pass major English exams. Accordingly, they believed that following school syllabi was important to help student pass the test. The beliefs about the importance of speaking skills and following school syllabi was contradictory due to the fact that school syllabi put a minimal emphasis on speaking skills.

c. Student teachers' teaching preferences

Willen et al. (2000) argued that beliefs are also influenced by teachers' personal needs. In this study, student teachers believed that reading skills were not as needed as speaking skills. They also felt that speaking skills and general language proficiency were not improved by a focus on reading skills. Furthermore, student teachers tended to teach speaking skills because they personally felt that they needed to improve their own oral L2 proficiency. Student teachers preferred to teach speaking skills because speaking skills encouraged students to actively participate and make sounds that, according student teachers, would improve students' engagement.

Teachers' Knowledge about Subject Matter and Pedagogical Issues

The idea that English teachers should possess a high level of English proficiency is central in teaching the language. Shulman (1987) argued that the *what* of teaching should be mastered by teachers. Grossman et al. (1989) also maintained that the knowledge of subject matter contributed greatly to their knowledge of teaching because it affects "how [student teachers] critique textbooks, how they select material to teach, how they structure their courses, and how they conduct instruction" (p. 28). In this study, only a few student teachers were confident with their L2 proficiency, even though most of them agreed that English teachers should have a sufficient grasp of the language to serve as model uses of the L2 for students. Erna and Dian, for example, believed that teachers' English proficiency was essential; however, they used very limited amount of L2 when giving instructions. Student teachers' lack of lexical diversity in the target language became a challenge in teaching L2 reading. Lack of knowledge of subject matter was also evident in choosing reading materials in particular and English materials in general. Student teachers, especially those who taught in the Girls-Only school, selected materials that were relatively easy for them. They believed that familiarity with reading topics was important because it provided students with background knowledge that helped students understand texts presented in the L2. The fact that they taught in religion-based schools had little or no influence on student teachers' beliefs about using non religion-related materials.

Shulman (1987) also indicated that teachers have to know the *how* of teaching the subject matter. In this study, student teachers believed that teaching L2 should be fun. Student teachers believed that having a fun lesson would keep their students

engaged, which, in turn, would enhance their understanding of the lesson. Student teachers' understanding about teaching L2 reading was limited to reading aloud and pronunciation. Broader understanding of teaching L2 reading was rarely explored. As a result, student teachers' pedagogical knowledge in teaching L2 reading mainly involved assigning students to read aloud and checking students' pronunciation.

In terms of teaching L2 reading, student teachers believed that the *genre approach* was the most effective method mainly because it was the comprehensive approach taught by the professors and it also appeared in the major school tests. The approach that was originally proposed by Hammond, Burns, Joyce, Brosnan, and Gerot (1992) consisted of four steps to teach reading. The stages were Building Knowledge of the Field, Modeling of Text, Joint Construction of Text, and Independent Construction of Text. Hammond et al. (1992) proposed a number of activities that could be employed in the first stage, Building Knowledge of the Text, such as cross-cultural knowledge, grammar discussions, and vocabulary building. These activities were aimed at building a knowledge base. Meanwhile, the second stage, Modeling of the Text, highlights the activities in which the students learned the text they needed to know outside the classroom. In the Joint Construction of the Text stage, Hammond et al., (1992) asserted that the aim of this stage is "for the teacher to work with the learners to construct a similar text" (p. 21) as modeled in the previous text. The last stage of the theory, Independent Construction of Text, was when the students were assigned to construct the text individually.

Hammond et al., (1992) designed these four stages in *English for Social Purposes: A handbook for teachers of adult literacy*. The main purpose of the book was

for ESL teachers in Australia to work with non-English speaking people so they could function socially in the new environment: the Australian context. The writers suggested the use of authentic materials, such as job vacancy ads, newspaper articles, and flyers and did not particularly address the text genres or promote reading activities. The steps covered all skills needed to perform interpersonal communication both orally and in writing. How the beliefs of the genre approach manifested in student teachers' practice will be discussed in the subsequent section.

Student teachers believed that student-centered learning and cooperative learning were effective because these approaches encouraged teachers to be less dominant. Therefore, student teachers considered group work a progressive, contemporary style of student-centered teaching. Spending many hours in group work was likely influenced by beliefs that group work was a form of student-centered learning. Similarly, when student teachers explained a lesson in front of the class, they thought they were performing a teacher-centered approach.

Nora, for example, shared that "when I am in class, I try not to dominate like what happens in teacher-centered learning. So I used student-centered learning and teacher-centered learning in balance." She thought that students working in groups was a successful strategy promoted by her university teacher while giving instructions was ineffective. While student-centered instruction may require students to work in groups some of the time, all group work does not necessarily reflect student-centeredness. Group work that reflects student-centeredness is when students work on critical thinking, problem solving, and inquiry (Huba & Freed, 2000). A principle of student-centered learning is to understand actual instructions from the student's perspective,

encouraging students to go beyond their current proficiency and learn new aspects of language.

Influence of Contexts

a. School contexts

Student teachers' beliefs were influenced by the socio-educational context and the socio-cultural context of the schools in which they taught. The educational context included students and supervising teachers. Kindsvatter et al. (1988) maintained that what commonly happens in classrooms is that teachers expect that all students should have high levels of motivation and willingness to try to learn. Student teachers believed that students were not motivated to study English because, according to student teachers, their students loved watching videos more than reading. Student teachers in this study seemed to understand the need for motivation, but did not know how to achieve it. As a result, they designed their lessons in a way that, according to student teachers, would improve students' motivation to learn. Giving less homework, showing more videos, using short passages, and having more informal student-teacher relationship were believed to be able to motivate students to learn and love English.

In relation to reading, only few student teachers articulated that they enjoyed reading for pleasure. All indicated that their students had a little interest in reading. However, student teachers who were assigned to teach in the Boys-Only school remarked that many of their students seemed to enjoy reading, which was demonstrated by the fact that the school library was always full of students doing homework or reading local newspapers. However, the Boys-Only school banned the

use of cell phones and televisions in school and dorms. Apparently, regulations that banned electronic devices to school greatly contributed to the time that students spent reading outside of class. The effects of banning electronic devices on students' attitudes toward reading were not specifically observed in this study. Apparently, reading habit was more obvious in the environment where electronic devices were prohibited.

Cooperating teachers also influenced student teachers beliefs in teaching L2 reading in particular and L2 in general. In many cases, student teachers were forced to modify their lesson plans and practice based on recommendations from cooperating teachers. For instance, Chandra shared that her cooperating teacher provided Chandra with an overwhelming number of suggestions, which were not always constructive. Rejecting supervising teachers' suggestions was a rarity among student teachers. This was likely caused by the Indonesian tradition, which discouraged young people to oppose and reject older people's suggestions regardless conflicts of beliefs. Indonesian tradition also considered teachers, who were usually older, as sources of knowledge. Students were expected to pay full respect to teachers and older people, in general, with total obedience. Thus, rejecting cooperating teachers' suggestions would have been considered rude. Student teachers might have concerned that they would receive negative evaluation if they did not do what was recommended by cooperating teachers.

b. Mandated curriculum

The mandated curriculum also influenced student teachers' beliefs about teaching L2 reading. The Indonesian government mandated curriculum was used as

a benchmark to measure the minimum requirements for English proficiency of high school graduates. The scope of the minimum requirement included, communicative competence, comprehension skills, and "other supporting competence." According to the Education National Standards Board or BSNP (2010), the curriculum essentially aimed to enable students to comprehend and produce certain types of short texts, which included procedural, descriptive, recount, narrative, analytical expository, spoof, explanatory texts, report, news items, discussions, review, and public speaking. Meanwhile, the supporting competence included linguistic competence, strategic competence, sociocultural competence, and discourse competence. The curriculum determined the types of texts to be discussed each semester. For example, texts to be discussed in grade 10 semester 1 were recount, narrative, and procedural texts. Narrative, descriptive, and news items were to be discussed in semester 2 of grade 10. These types of texts would likely appear on the tests in the respective semesters. In short, students' language proficiency was not the focus of the curriculum because students would have to learn specific texts regardless their knowledge the texts. The sample of national guidelines for English subject can be seen in the Appendix D.

As a result, schools designed their syllabus solely based on the guidelines for examination, which became the curriculum followed by student teachers. The sample of student teachers' syllabus can be seen in the Appendix H. Student teachers believed that L2 teaching materials should strictly follow the curriculum and that teaching to test was important. Although student teachers also believed

that teaching L2 should involve creativity, they seemed to feel comfortable

following the curriculum and the syllabus.

Freeman (2002) argued that socio-cultural environments play an important

role in transforming teachers' learning. In this study, student teachers' beliefs were

influenced by the environment in which they taught, by the norms of Indonesian

tradition and by the societal trends, which has taken a recent turn from reading. As

a result, although their students' English proficiency was mainly assessed by

reading comprehension, student teachers believed that reading skills were not

important in maintaining the students' success.

Manifestations of Beliefs in Student Teachers' Practices in Teaching L2 Reading

Practice in Classroom Instruction

a. Focusing on group work

Student teachers' practice was influenced by beliefs about teaching L2

reading (Burns, 1992; Richardson et al., 1991; Borg, 2005). For example, student

teachers believed that the *genre approach* was the most effective method for

teaching reading. Student teachers referred to the terms proposed by Hammond et

al. (1992) in their theory both in the pre-observation and post-observation interviews

when asked to provide explanations for their actions. In practice, student teachers

adopted and adapted the genre approach in their classroom instruction and made

central to group work they assigned to students. The genre approach seemed to be

used in all classes. Student teachers in this study discussed Stage 1 (building

knowledge) and Stage 2 (modeling) briefly by showing the types of text genres they

were discussing and short explanations on the structure of the text. Cross-cultural

knowledge was never used to activate students' existing knowledge and to relate it with the new information. In fact, student teachers did not introduce any topics outside of students' familiarity. Dian and Oesman, for example, used public figures and stories well-known by students and kept using these same references. When applying step 2, the Modeling of Text, student teachers introduced the structure of the genre they taught. For example, Nora and Tia, who taught descriptive texts, explained to students that a descriptive text passage would always consist of description and identification. They examined paragraphs only through these components. Similar patterns were evident among student teachers.

Student teachers heavily relied on Stage 3, Joint Construction of the Text, by giving students many opportunities to practice their English and group work, although student teachers hardly ever monitored the use of L2 in group work. Student teachers used most of class time to do group work, especially in reading classes. In other classes, when the focus was supposed to be speaking and writing, student teachers also assigned students to work in groups and allocated a large amount of time to group work. The group work, however, did not always require students to work collaboratively with their peers.

In the popular comprehension quiz game, student teachers divided students into several groups of more than ten students based on students seating positions. In practice, students almost never worked with their peers because comprehension questions given by student teachers did not require students to solve problems collectively or to share roles. In most cases, students relied on one group member to perform the task. Thus, in a group, there were usually one or two students who were

actively engaged while other members were busy doing something else, such as playing with cellphones or chatting with each other.

In this study, group work was used to keep students busy rather than to encourage students to think critically or solve problems. Comprehension questions used by student teachers mainly encouraged students to remember facts. They minimally challenged students' L2 competence. Recalling information, according to Bloom Taxonomy, is the lowest level of learning (Kwarthwohl, 2002). To be able to learn language meaningfully, students need to be encouraged to go beyond the superficial. Based on classroom observation, most students seemed to be able to comprehend texts used by student teachers. However, none of the student teachers encouraged students to apply the knowledge they already had or to explore the comprehension level of Bloom's Taxonomy, which include interpreting and extrapolating (Kwarthwohl, 2002). As a result of focusing on Stage 3, student teachers rarely applied Stage 4, Independent Construction of the Text, because they ran out of time. Instead, they advocated for students to engage in Stage 4 for homework.

b. Maintaining class discipline

Maintaining class discipline is a major problem to beginning teachers (Veenman, 1984). In this study, student teachers rarely took actions to correct the behavior of those who acted rowdily or came late to class. Student teachers simply carried on teaching. The decisions that student teachers took with regard to classroom discipline were closely related to their beliefs of an ideal teacher and beliefs of themselves as teachers. Student teachers referred to themselves as good

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teachers because they believed they were likable, had a good sense of humor, and gave a considerable amount of freedom to students. Addressing students' misbehaviors may have resulted in reappraisal of self-image.

c. Taking-for-granted behavior

Student teachers' practice in teaching L2 reading in this study confirms a "[taking]-for-granted" approach by student teachers (Feiman-Nemser, 2001, p. 1016). Student teachers performed their activities and instructions without questioning. They seemed mostly concern about materials and did not particularly address other issues in language learning. This was evident when student teachers were questioned about their rationale for teaching strategies and beliefs. In responding to "why?" student teachers typically responded with

"My supervising teacher asked me to do it."

"It is supposed to be like that."

"That was what my university professor did."

The taking-for-granting attitude was also evident in self-reflections. Student teachers were generally happy with how they performed in class and thought that their instruction was successful. When asked what to do to improve their teaching, student teachers answered that they would not change anything. The "taken-for-granted assumption", according to Feiman-Nemser (2001), may be dangerous because it may lead student teachers to think that they know teaching more than they do and it may limit them to improvement. Sinprajakpol (2004) suggests that the take for granted assumption is a way for student teachers to find the most

comfortable teaching strategies because they assume that all students would love their teaching style and the same teaching strategies are applicable to all classes.

Practice in Reading and Vocabulary

Student teachers believed that vocabulary mastery was the main challenge in teaching reading. The beliefs manifested in practice when they translated passages for students although students already understood the texts. Student teachers' believed that teaching materials or texts ideally should fall within students' current L2 proficiency. Student teachers did not use texts to encourage scaffolding to learn new vocabulary or any other aspects of language learning, such as learning L2 culture or grammar. Student teachers used L1 most of the time when giving instructions because they believed that using L2 would hinder students in understanding the instructions. In addition, student teachers explained it was supervising teachers' request that L1 was used more often in class. In this study, student teachers kept using a word-per-word translation method although most students did not have any difficulties understanding texts assigned by student teachers. Student teachers simply translated the text from L2 to L1, and almost never asked students to make use of dictionary.

The use of the language of instruction is a debatable topic in L2 learning. Krashen (1978) contended that using the target language as the language of instruction exposes students to the language, which will encourage students' acquisition to the language because it means that teachers provide inputs for students. Input, according to Oh (2001) should include simplified and elaborated materials and through which students' reading comprehension skill may be enhanced. Elaborate input is able to improve students' reading comprehension, regardless of the level of language

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proficiency. Thus, in this case study, using L1 may not be sufficient for the students to receive adequate input.

The beliefs that reading in general was not important also manifested in student teachers' practice. Plainly, student teachers did not promote extensive reading. They believed that reading long passages would not interest students. Instead, they used short passages that consisted of several paragraphs because national exams also used short passages. Krashen (2013) argued that extensive reading was one of the keys to improve one's language proficiency because reading provides inputs, such as vocabulary, to students. Student teachers believed on the contrary. They believed that one's reading skills improved if speaking skills increased. This conclusion is in support with Kamhi-Stein (2003) that student teachers' attitudes about reading may be influenced by beliefs held about reading both in L1 and L2.

Differences between Beliefs and Practices

Of course, each student teacher had different ways of interpreting, managing, and internalizing experiences (Reeves, 2009). Some student teachers used experiences to avoid some practices substantially, whereas others made use of the experience to perpetuate those same practices. Student teachers also received and interpreted new information in different extents. These differences may have different levels of influence to student teachers' beliefs. In addition, student teachers' personality, such as openness to new knowledge or information, contributed to student teachers' beliefs and the degree of its manifestation into their practice. There may be discrepancy between the knowledge student teachers learned from the teacher preparation program and the

knowledge needed when they conducted student teaching (Reid, Dahlgren, Petocz, & Dahlgren, 2011).

Although some differences were found between student teachers' beliefs and practices, their practice most often aligned well with their beliefs. While the focus of this study is on the teaching of L2 reading, the influence of beliefs in student teachers' practices were observed in non-reading classes as well. The analysis of discrepancy between beliefs and practices is presented below.

a. With regard to selecting teaching materials, student teachers believed that reading materials that contained familiar topics were effective. In addition, the reading materials should be short to resemble the major English tests and within students' L2 proficiency. Their beliefs that non-authentic materials and school syllabi-based materials were effective were also manifested in student teachers' practice. In their practice, student teachers used reading texts that contained these aspects. Most reading materials were as suggested by Nation (2007), who suggested that 98% of the texts should be understandable and 2% should be left for students to learn new words to be used later. Students seemed not to have any problems understanding the texts used in the lessons.

On the other hand, student teachers rarely explored topics beyond assigned materials. While student teachers seemed to not encounter difficulties in obtaining non-authentic passages for reading classes, they were challenged when they had to deal with non-authentic materials for other classes. In one case, student teachers dubbed a conversation that was used in a speaking and listening class to be more

contextual. Other student teachers used authentic materials they found online, but only when teaching speaking.

b. With regard to their beliefs about roles of teachers, student teachers believed that ideal teachers should have a sufficient level of subject matter and pedagogical knowledge, provide students with a good amount of freedom, and build an informal casual student-teacher relationship. Although they were less confident with their L2 proficiency, student teachers shared that they were able to be friends with students, which according to student teachers, would motivate students to like and learn the language. In practice, student teachers seemed to be able to establish the informal student-teacher relationship, which was indicated by the informal way students addressed student teachers and the conversation they had inside and outside the class even though this had caused problems in gaining students' respects. The majority of student teachers used L1 when teaching, which may be influenced by the level of knowledge of subject matter.

c. In terms of beliefs about teaching instructions, student teachers believed that learning L2 should be fun and that teaching L2 should follow the genre approach theory, which offered a sequence of steps. In practice, student teachers promoted fun by playing games and organizing competitions, which most of the time minimally involved higher order thinking. It was evident that student teachers understood well that engagement and a fun, relax environment along with an approachable persona were essential in L2 learning. They thought students would love the lesson and teachers, which in turn, would motivate them to learn.

On the other hand, student teachers associated engagement, a fun environment, and approachability with playing games, having little discipline, and maintaining students in their comfort zone. Student teachers used materials that most of their students had reached their *actual development level* and almost never did student teachers go to the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978). The actual development level refers to the ability that students have had without others' assistance. In this study, students had already been able to understand the texts without student teachers' assistance and student teachers did little to encourage working towards higher levels of competence.

Student teachers believed that following the sequence of the genre approach would result in students' engagement. In practice, student teachers performed the genre sequence and heavily focused on group work believing that all group works and students busyness were a form of student-centered and active engagement. However, student teachers provided minimal models and assistance for students to read in L2. With regard to teaching L2 in general, student teachers believed that reading for pleasure would contribute minimally to students' proficiency; thus, in practice, encouragement was minimal.

d. Student teachers' believed that being able to speak in L2 was the ultimate goal of learning a language. Although the beliefs were manifested in their practice, student teachers did not specifically encourage students to speak in the target language. They also provided a minimal model of speaking in the target language. Student teachers taught language components, including speaking skills, reading skills, writing skills, grammar, and listening skills, independently based on school syllabi.

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As a result, when a student teacher was assigned to teach specific components, for example, speaking skills, she would not relate it with other language components.

Student teachers also believed that taking supervising teachers' suggestions were important. In practice, it was obvious that student teachers had a high level of dependence on supervising teachers. They performed what was requested by cooperating teachers even though the request was conflicting with their beliefs. When asked, student teachers provided a rationale that cooperating teachers were more experienced and more knowledgeable with school contexts and that student teachers avoided negative perceptions from cooperating teachers with regard to their attitudes. In some cases, student teachers faced confusion when aligning their perceptions with the school's policies, university professors' recommendations, cooperating teachers' expectations, and school principal's directions. For example, student teachers, who taught in the Mixed-Gender I, were overwhelmed with suggestions from these people. All student teachers in the Mixed-Gender I School created lesson plan based upon the principal's very specific advice.

Implications and Suggestions

The study has implications and suggestions for L2 teacher preparation programs in the Indonesian context to find innovations to enrich student teachers' experiences and effectiveness in teaching L2.

Implications of the Study

a. Student teachers' initial beliefs in language learning may need to be revisited or assessed to make sure that the expectations of student teachers, university professors, and university agenda are compatible. Student teachers in teacher

preparation programs come from a wide variety of backgrounds, which may influence the development of student teachers' initial beliefs. Understanding student teachers' initial beliefs may help teacher preparation programs have influence upon those beliefs.

b. Monitoring student teachers' beliefs and changes over a long period of time would provide immense data for teacher preparation programs. This would also help teacher preparation programs build student teachers' identity in language teaching and learning over time.

c. Student teachers are in dire need of reflective knowledge and skills. A course that meets these needs would certainly help improve and challenge student teachers to learn one of the most important aspects in learning to teach reflection. The course might teach student teachers to do observations and to write observation reports properly. University professors sometimes take for granted that their student teachers are able to conduct class observations properly. Doing observations and taking field notes are important skills that could be taught explicitly.

d. Apart from reflective skills, knowledge of subject matter still becomes the main concern in teacher preparation programs. The study shows that student teachers' L2 proficiency, especially L2 vocabulary, determines instructional decision-making. Models of intensive use of L2 in a classroom setting would seem appropriate.

e. Student teachers, university professors, cooperating teachers, and principals may have to agree on the emphases of the aspects of student teaching practica.

Although different perspectives between these stakeholders did not clash often during the teaching practica, agreeing on certain aspects of teaching practica would help student teachers and cooperating teachers focus on the criteria for success.

f. L2 pedagogy, especially in L2 reading, should be explored and discussed, and it may be rehearsed in a simulated class. Student teachers' ways in understanding pedagogical theories and practices may be improved with exploration and may shape their beliefs, which will benefit their future career. Student teachers' knowledge in teaching L2 reading was limited to reading the word and did not include much in reading the world (Freire & Macedo, 1987). Student teachers have to be equipped with the skills and passion to read extensively and to teach extensive reading to enable their students to read beyond words.

g. Involving electronic devices and communication tools to encourage students to be more engaged in L2 reading and L2 learning seemed to be given less attention. Instead, student teachers relied on traditional methods for teaching L2 reading. This study implies that using technology for teaching reading may improve motivation in learning L2.

Suggestions for Further Research

a. Further research may focus on how student teachers' beliefs change or remain the same after student teachers graduate from the teacher preparation programs and start their careers as teachers. Accordingly, the study should investigate how beliefs manifested in their classes over time.

b. Further research might shed light on finding more well-structured monitoring and mentoring models that work best with student teachers and other stakeholders. Further research may also focus on cooperating teachers' experiences and perceptions in relation to mentoring student teachers during teaching practica.

c. Future research might investigate the beliefs and practice in teaching L2 reading in different school contexts, such as non-religious schools.

d. Further studies may examine the extent to which the courses that the student teachers enroll in would contribute to changing the initial beliefs.

e. Finally, it is important for student teachers to understand that "although comprehension questions may have a role to play in *practicing* reading, the various forms of reading comprehension questions are not so effective for *teaching* learners to read" (Nation, 2007, p. 29, location 1089).

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Appendix A: Questions for Preliminary Interview

A. Personal information and beliefs about teaching English as a foreign language

   1. Tell me about yourself

   2. Why do you want to be a teacher?

   3. Why do you want to be an English teacher?

   4. What are the qualities of a good teacher?

   5. Out of those qualities, which ones that describe you as a teacher?

   6. Tell me about your experience in learning English?

   7. How would you define effective English teaching?

   8. Do you think you can do it in your class? Why or why not?

B. Personal reading habit

   1. What is your hobby?

   2. Do you find difficulties to find English materials?

   3. Do you find difficulties when reading English texts?

   4. How do you deal with the difficulties?

C. Teaching reading skills

   1. What do you think is the goal of teaching or learning English in secondary school in Indonesia?

   2. From the four language skills, which one is the most important for you? Why?

   3. In Indonesia, students' English proficiency is assessed mainly by their reading comprehension skills. What do you think?

   4. Do you think teaching reading is challenging? Why? How do you deal with the challenges?

   5. How would you teach reading to your students?

   6. Upon what considerations do you select your reading materials?

   7. Considering that you are now teaching in an Islamic high school, how much pressure do you have to teach Islamic values to your students?

Appendix B: Questions for Post-Observation Interview

1. What do you think about your today's teaching?

2. Why did you choose to do the activities?

3. Why did you choose to use the materials?

4. What did you like most from the class? Why?

5. What did you like least from your today's teaching? Why?

6. Did you get the results you wanted? What is the evidence?

7. How would you improve your teaching in the future?

Appendix C: Result of Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory

Please fill in the questionnaire by marking one of the boxes on the right. The numbers indicate the followings unless otherwise indicated.
1 = Strongly agree
2 = Agree
3 = neither agree nor disagree
4 = disagree
5 = strongly disagree

No	Statement	1	2	3	4	5	Total
1	It is easier for children than adults to learn English.	4	9	3	2		18
2	Some people are born with a special ability, which helps them learn English.	3	10	2	3		18
3	English is easier to learn than other languages.	2	10	5	1		18
4	English is: 1) a very difficult language, 2) a difficult language, 3) language of medium difficulty, 4) an easy language, or 5) a very easy language.		1	14	3		18
5	I believe that I will ultimately learn to speak English very well.	6	10	2			18
6	It is important to speak English with an excellent pronunciation.	8	7	2	1		18
7	It is necessary to know English culture in order to speak English.	3	9	4	2		18
8	You shouldn't say anything in English until you can say it correctly.		4	5	6	3	18
9	It is easier for someone who already speaks English to learn another foreign language.		8	7	2		17
10	It is better to learn English in the English-speaking countries.	5	10	2	1		18
11	If I heard someone speaking English, I would go up to them so that I could practice speaking English.	5	7	6			18
12	It's o.k. to guess if you don't know a word in English.	3	9	6			18
13	If someone spent one hour a day learning English, how long would it take him/her to be come fluent? 1) less than a year, 2)1-2 years, 3) 3-5years, 4) 5-10 years, 5) You can't learn a language in 1 hour a day.	2	7	5	3	1	18
14	I am good at learning a language.		8	6	2		16

No	Statement	1	2	3	4	5	Total
15	Learning English is mostly a matter of learn vocabulary words.		9	7	1		17
16	It is important to repeat and practice a lot.	12	5	1			18
17	I feel shy speaking English in front of others.		5	8	4	1	18
18	If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning it will be hard to get rid of them later on.		7	6	5		18
19	Learning English is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules.	2	7	6	3		18
20	It is important to practice in a language laboratory.	1	4	8	5		18
21	Women are better than men at learning English.	1	3	6	7	1	18
22	If I get to speak English very well, I will have many opportunities to use it.	7	11				18
23	It is easier to speak than understand English.		8	8	2		18
24	Learning English is different from learning other school subjects.		11	7			18
25	Learning English is mostly a matter of translating from English to Bahasa Indonesia		6	4	8		18
26	If I learn to speak English very well, it will help me get a good job.	4	12	2			18
27	It is easier to read and write English than to speak and understand it.	2	4	9	3		18
28	People who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages.		1	9	7	1	18
29	People in my country think that it is important to speak English.		12	4	2		18
30	I would like to learn English so that I can get to know its speakers better.	2	14	2			18
31	People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent.	1	12	4	1		18
32	People in my country are good at learning foreign languages.		3	9	6		18
33	Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.	5	12	1			18

Appendix D: National Guidelines (translated)

For English Subject

Grade X, Semester I

Standards of Competence	Basic Competences
Listening 1. Students are able to understand expressions used in transactional and interpersonal conversations	1.1 To understand expressions commonly used when introducing people, greeting and saying goodbyes, accepting requests, and making and cancelling appointments. 1.2 To understand expressions commonly used expressing happiness, showing attention, expressing sympathy, and giving instructions.
2. Students are able to understand recount, narrative, and procedural texts used in everyday life.	2.1. To understand written texts commonly found in daily lives (e.g., announcements, advertisements, invitations, etc). 2.2. To provide responses to simple recount, narrative, and procedural texts.
Speaking 3. Students are able to use expressions in transactional and interpersonal daily conversations	3.1. To use the expressions commonly found when introducing people, greeting and saying goodbyes, accepting requests 3.2. To use the expressions commonly found when expressing happiness, showing attention, expressing sympathy, and giving instructions.
4. Students are able to use recount, narrative, and procedural texts used in every day life.	4.1. To use based on short simple written texts (e.g., announcements, advertisements, invitations, etc.) using various verbal expressions. 4.2. To verbally explain recount, narrative, and procedural texts.
Reading 5. Students are able to understand recount, narrative and procedural texts to access knowledge	5.1. To use written texts (e.g., announcements, advertisements, invitations, etc) to access knowledge 5.2. To understand written texts and understand recount, narrative, and procedural texts.
Writing 6. Students are able to write recount, narrative, and procedural texts for daily life purposes	6.1. To convey messages using various written forms accurately. 6.2. To convey messages in written in forms of recount, narrative, and procedural texts.

Grade X Semester 2

Standards of Competence	Basic Competences
Listening 7. Students are able to understand expressions used in transactional and interpersonal conversations	7.1 To understand and to respond to expressions commonly used when thanking people, giving compliments, and congratulating; 7.2 To understand and to respond to expressions commonly used expressing happiness, showing attention, expressing sympathy, and giving instructions.
8. Students are able to understand narrative texts, descriptive texts, and news items found in daily lives.	8.1. To understand written texts commonly found in daily lives (e.g., announcements, advertisements, invitations, etc); 8.2. To provide responses to simple narrative texts, descriptive texts, and news items.
Speaking 9. Students are able to verbally use expressions in transactional and interpersonal daily conversations.	9.1. To verbally use the expressions commonly found when thanking, giving compliments, and congratulating; 9.2. To verbally use the expressions commonly found when expressing amazement and accepting invitation, offer, and requests.
10. Students are able to verbally use narrative texts, descriptive texts, and news items in every day life.	10.1. To use based on short simple written texts (e.g., announcements, advertisements, invitations, etc.) using various verbal expressions; 10.2. To verbally explain narrative texts, descriptive texts, and news items
Reading 11. Students are able to understand narrative texts, descriptive texts, and news items to access knowledge	11.1. To use written texts (e.g., announcements, advertisements, invitations, etc) to access knowledge; 11.2. To understand written texts and understand narrative texts, descriptive texts, and news items
Writing 12. Students are able to write narrative texts, descriptive texts, and news items for daily life purposes	12.1. To convey messages using various written forms accurately. 12.2. To convey messages in written in forms of narrative texts, descriptive texts, and news items.

Appendix E: Observation Form

Name of teacher: _____Date of observation : _____

No	Classroom activities		O	NO	NA
1	Meaning focused input	Using materials appropriate to students' proficiency			
		Asking students to skim and scan			
		Making connection between L1 and L2			
		Activating students' background knowledge			
		Asking students to predict the content			
		Introducing new vocabulary			
2	Meaning focused output	Encouraging students to write what they have read in various form of writing; letter, compositions,			
		Encouraging the students to use dictionaries			
		Assigning students to present their readings to a class or a group			
3	Language-focused learning	Focusing on comprehension			
		Focusing on sound-spelling			
		Focusing on vocabulary			
		Focusing on grammar and cohesion			
		Focusing on the information content			
		Focusing on genre			
4	Fluency development	Encouraging students to read for enjoyment			
		Providing with interesting and appropriate reading texts			

		Involving students in oral book reports individually and/or in groups			
		Encouraging the use of computer-assisted reading.			
		Encouraging repeated reading.			
		Utilizing reading aloud			

Comments:

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Appendix F: Observation Form

Name of teacher: Galuh Video 1

No	Classroom activities		O	NO	NA
1	Meaning focused input	Using materials appropriate to students' proficiency	√		
		Asking students to skim and scan	√		
		Making connection between L1 and L2		√	
		Activating students' background knowledge	√		
		Asking students to predict the content			√
		Introducing new vocabulary		√	
2	Meaning focused output	Encouraging students to write what they have read in various form of writing; letter, compositions,			√
		Encouraging the students to use dictionaries			√
		Assigning students to present their readings to a class or a group	√		
3	Language-focused learning	Focusing on comprehension		√	
		Focusing on sound-spelling			√
		Focusing on vocabulary	√		
		Focusing on grammar and cohesion			√
		Focusing on the information content	√		
		Focusing on genre	√		
4	Fluency development	Encouraging students to read for enjoyment			√
		Providing with interesting and appropriate reading texts	√		

		Involving students in oral book reports individually and/or in groups		√	
		Encouraging the use of computer-assisted reading.			√
		Encouraging repeated reading.		√	
		Utilizing reading aloud	√		

Comments:

- Galuh teaches spoof texts. She teaches reading and it is her first time teaching
- She speaks English slowly so students understand and then call students' name.
- She does brainstorming activities.
- She explains/asks what spoof text is. Not about the topic of the reading materials.
- She analyzes it together with students. Based on the structure of the text. She asks if the text is funny.
- Galuh gives similar texts to students, reads aloud → group work.
- Comprehension and questions
- She runs out of time because the 1st 15 minutes is used up to read the Holy Book.
- Reading and translating
- No particular assessment

Appendix G: Sample of Student Teacher's Reading Materials

Passage 1

My mother is a beautiful person. She is not tall but not short, and she has curly hair and brown. Her eyes color are like honey and her color skin color light brown, and she has a beautiful smile. Her weight likes 120 lbs.

She is a very kind person. She is very lovely, friendly, patient, and she loves to help people. I love my mom, because she is a good example to me. She loves being in the mosque, and she loves sing and dance too.

She is a very good child, wife and mother. She always takes care of her family. She likes her house to be clean and organized. She a very organized person and all things in the house are in the right place. She doesn't like mess.

She always has a smile on her face. She is so sweet and lovely. I like when I am going to sleep or went I wake up or when I am going to go to some places, she always give me a kiss, and when the family have a problem she always be with us to helps us and to give us all her love.

Passage 2

I live in a small house. It has five rooms: there are two bedrooms, a living room, a bathroom, and a kitchen. Indeed it is a small house; but I like living in here for wasting my spare time.

When the door is open, I can see the living room. It is so small with only three chairs and a table, nothing else. I prefer reading a novel in this room.

My bedroom is in the left side of the living room. In this room there is a night table next to the bed, a TV, a radio, and a computer. When being bored of reading, I usually play online games, chat with my friends via Facebook and so on.

Next to my bedroom is my mother's. I do not know what is inside because I never come in to see it. In the right side of the living room there is the kitchen. In the kitchen I have everything I need when I get hungry. It is very pleasure when my mother cooks; the smell fills my whole house.

I know it is a very small house; but it is the best place I have ever seen.

Passage 3

One of the most famous buildings in Washington, D.C. is the White House. It is the home of the president of the United States.

The White House is a very large white building. It has three main parts: the main building and two wings (i.e.. the West Wing and the East Wing) the main building has large central porches. The porches have tall columns. Large lawns and gardens surround the White House.

Appendix H: Sample of Syllabus of A Student Teacher

SILLABUS

███████████████

Name of School   :
Grade level/Semester   : X /2
Program   : General
Subject   : English
Standard of Competence : **Reading**

11. Students are able to undeestand *narrative, spoof, hortatory expository* texts to access knowledge

Basic Competences	Materials	Teaching Activities	Indicator	Assessment Technique	Assessment Form	Time	References	Soft skills
11.1 To use written texts (e.g. *banner, poster, pamphlet*, etc.) to access knowledge	Announce-ment, advertisement, invitations, etc.	*Identifying meanings and information in a narrative text*	• Students read aloud a *banner, poster pamphlet* individually • Students discuss the texts in pairs and in groups	Written tests	Essay	**2 x 45 minutes**	Grace, Eudia. 2007. *Look Ahead.* Jakarta: Erlangga	• Commu-nicative • Curious • Fond of reading • Honest • Work hard • Independ-ent • Tolerant

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