A COMPLEX SYSTEM OF TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND PRACTICES IN DEVELOPING LEARNER AUTONOMY IN INDONESIAN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL CONTEXTS: A MIXED-METHODS STUDY

By

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ABSTRACT

The new junior high school curriculum in Indonesia requires teachers to develop learner autonomy and create a student-centred approach in English classrooms. It is therefore important to study what perceptions Indonesian English teachers have of this requirement and how their perceptions are reflected in their teaching practices. Learner autonomy may be perceived differently by Indonesian teachers as traditionally this concept has been applied in Western countries whose teaching traditions differ from those of non-Western countries. The research site is a tourist area where Indonesian students may have access to English users and authentic English language materials unlike other regions in Indonesia. This context prompted me to investigate how teachers perceived and used these local English language resources to facilitate their students' English language learning and autonomy development. This study used S. Borg and Al-Busaidi's (2012a) survey instrument within an explanatory sequential mixed-method design to investigate 145 junior high school teachers' perceptions of developing learner autonomy. The second phase was a multiple-case study of nine English teachers in Magelang Regency, Central Java, Indonesia.

The findings from the survey and the thematic analysis show that in general Indonesian teachers had positive perceptions about learner autonomy and its development. These teachers' willingness to introduce the concept of autonomy suggests that there were no perceived cultural barriers to adopting this Western concept in Indonesia. However, the teachers did not share a common understanding of autonomy which may have affected the way they applied the curriculum. Teachers displayed complex underlying beliefs about the importance of autonomy and also about the different supports and constraints offered by their teaching contexts. These included different levels of experience in managing classrooms which appeared to result in varying levels of effectiveness in implementing learner autonomy.

This study reveals a complex interrelationship among teachers' beliefs, practices, and contextual factors in which teaching experience played an important role. Positive beliefs about learner autonomy did not always result in good practice. Conversely, lack of facilities did not always undermine the practice of developing learner autonomy provided teacher belief in it was strong. Classroom management skills appeared to exert significant influence on developing autonomy in practice, as without these skills, teachers' efforts to facilitate autonomous language learning seemed to result in teachers' losing control of the classroom.

These findings signal the importance of assisting teachers to develop the classroom management skills necessary for autonomous language learning.

Some tensions among teachers' practices also emerged in this study. The new curriculum, like its (2006) predecessor, required that learning contexts should be extended outside the classroom, but the use of authentic local learning resources was still limited by many teachers' understanding of the new requirements of the 2013 curriculum. The participant teachers were also coming to terms with the new, government-mandated textbooks. This heavy reliance on textbooks suggested that their primary focus continued to be on preparing students for the examinations, which were still the primary means for assessing student achievement. Teachers also seemed uncertain about how the use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) facilitated autonomy development, how to assess students' learning, and how to play new and unfamiliar facilitation roles in the classroom. In addition, not all teachers had participated in professional development to prepare them for curriculum implementation, and not all schools had received the required government textbooks. These findings suggest that there was a rush towards curriculum implementation in Indonesia in 2013.

This study also shows that access to local learning resources such as tourist sites in Magelang Regency did not necessarily facilitate autonomy development. Some teachers had taken students to the temple in the past but some perceived that the new curriculum and other new challenges inhibited them from continuing this practice. These constraints outweighed teachers' positive perceptions about the use of those local resources.

This study contributes to the study of English Language Teaching (ELT) in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context as it provides insights into how teachers begin to implement a new curriculum requirement to develop student autonomy and / or use authentic learning resources in the local area as resources for autonomy development. This study highlights subtle differences in the individual systems of teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy and uses complexity theory to analyse how these beliefs interacted with the local environment to contribute to the various degrees of success in promoting learner autonomy.

Key words: learner autonomy, EFL, perceptions, complexity theory, mixed-methods

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ASEAN	: Association of Southeast Asian Nations
CD	: Compact Disc
CLT	: Communicative Language Teaching
DVD	: Digital Versatile Disc
EFL	: English as a Foreign Language
EFT	: English for Tourism
ELT	: English Language teaching
ESL	: English as a Second Language
FL	: Foreign Language
ICT	: Information and Communication Technology
IILT	: Integrate Ireland Language & Training
IT	: Information Technology
JHS	: Junior High School
L2	: Second language
LCC	: Local Context Curriculum
LCD	: Liquid-crystal Display
SAC	: Self-access Centre
SALC	: Self-access Language Centre
TEFL	: Teaching English as a Foreign Language

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

This section outlines the rationale for the study, gives an overview of English Language Teaching (ELT) in Indonesia, and discusses the rationale, research questions, significance and scope of the study.

1.1 The Rationale for the Study

In Indonesia, creating independent citizens is one of the goals of the national education system (National Education Constitution No. 20/2003). This educational goal is supported by the new 2013 curriculum which advocates the development of students' life-long learning. The document says:

> *Penyempurnaan kurikulum meliputi pergeseran dalam proses pembelajaran sebagai berikut: dari berpusat pada guru menjadi berpusat pada siswa, dari satu arah menuju interaktif, dari isolasi menuju lingkungan jejaring, dari pasif menuju aktif-menyelidiki, dari maya/ abstrak menuju konteks dunia nyata, dari pembelajaran pribadi menjadi pembelajaran berbasis tim … dari kontrol terpusat menuju otonomi dan kepercayaan, dari pemikiran faktual menuju kritis, dari penyampaian pendapat menuju pertukaran pengetahuan* (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2013a, pp. 74–75)
>
> (The improvement of curriculum includes the following shifts in teaching and learning processes: from teacher-centred to student-centred, from one direction communication to interactive communication, from an isolated to a networking environment, from passive into active investigation, from abstract into real life contexts, from individual learning into team-based learning … from central control into autonomy and trust, from factual thinking into critical thinking, from giving opinions to knowledge sharing [Ministry of Education and Culture, 2013a, pp. 74–75, my translation]).

The new curriculum provides the following statement about the development of learner autonomy in the learning process:

> *The learning processes should be conducted in an interactive, inspiring, creative, pleasant way [which also] challenges and motivates the learners to actively participate in and give adequate spaces for [students'] initiative, creativity, and autonomy based on learners' talents, interests and physical as well as*

psychological development (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2013, my translation).

Within the 2013 curriculum, the wording of the principles of teaching and learning signals a change of thinking about teaching and learning. The principles of teaching and learning were clearly defined by the Minister of Education and Culture of the Republic of Indonesia in the regulation No. 65/ 2013. One of the principles (Principle nine) promotes learning which emphasises the cultivation and creation of life-long learners and most clearly shows an emphasis on creating long-life learners. The first three principles to be used in lesson planning also highlight learners' individual differences, students' active participation, and learner-centeredness to enhance learning enthusiasm, motivation, interest, creativity, initiative, inspiration, innovation and autonomy. Developing learner autonomy is now clearly stated in Indonesian educational policy documents and according to Nakata (2011) the development of autonomy is also officially part of policy in other East Asian countries.

More specifically, according to the ministry regulation No. 65/2013 learning should be conducted through certain principles to ensure that students no longer act as knowledge recipients but take an active role as knowledge constructors. Teachers are no longer regarded as the only learning resources for students as students' learning is now expected to take place not only at school, but also at home and in wider society where they can access a range of resources. The approach used in learning activities is expected to move from the textual (text interpretation and focus on text) to the scientific in order to prioritize the cultivation and empowerment of students as life-long learners. Teachers should acknowledge individual student differences including different social backgrounds. In addition, ICT should be used to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of the learning.

The new targets for learning cover the development of students' attitudes, knowledge and skills. Students are expected to develop positive attitudes through participation in activities promoting "accepting, performing, appreciating, living, and practicing." Knowledge is to be constructed as students learn skills of "remembering, understanding, applying, analysing, evaluating and creating." Skills are to be gained through the process of "observing, questioning, associating, presenting and creating." All of the learning units (topics and subtopics) must encourage students to progress through the scientific process from observation up to creation. It is this specific process which characterises the scientific approach introduced in the curriculum. To develop these skills the curriculum suggests the use of discovery or inquiry learning and project-based learning.

The learner-centred approach should also be used to enhance students' autonomy and students must participate actively in the classrooms.

Teachers and learners should evaluate students' competence using multiple sources of evidence: observation, self-evaluation, and peer evaluation, tests and assignments, practice tests, projects and portfolios. Evaluation should be an authentic process that includes a full range of activities including self-evaluation, projects, daily assessment, mid-semester tests, semester tests, competence assessments, school examinations and national examinations. These evaluations involve teachers, students, schools, and government according to the constitution. Evaluation should be presented in the form of scores and descriptions of social and spiritual attitudes. Passing the national examination should still be used as a requirement to enter the next educational level.

Officially, English curricula applied in Indonesia over the years have promoted the use of the communicative approach and authentic materials in ELT. However, examination pressure often places a barrier between curriculum policy and its implementation (Lie, 2007; Musthafa, 2001; Sukyadi & Mardiani, 2011). National examinations (which in Indonesia are presented as multiple choice reading and writing questions) influence the way teachers teach and select materials. Teachers tend to prefer textbooks supporting national examinations over other teaching materials (Sukyadi & Mardiani, 2011). The recent curriculum opens potential areas of investigation into the teachers' perspectives about how to extend students' learning outside the classroom in practice, particularly when their teaching practices have traditionally revolved around national examinations.

Up until now, in Indonesia, research has concentrated on high school students' motivation for learning English. As teachers focus on examinations, it is interesting to find that students' foci and interests may be different. M. Lamb's (2004) seminal study found that first year junior high school (JHS) students in a city on Sumatra Island had the motivation and autonomy to learn English inside and outside the classrooms. They also interacted with authentic English materials such as songs, movies, and TV programs. Similarly, Liando, Moni and Baldauf (2005) found that secondary students on Sulawesi Island had more integrative than instrumental motivation, meaning that they wanted to master English to communicate with foreigners. However, M. Lamb (2007) reported that the students' motivation decreased at school and therefore he recommended that teachers work to develop students' self-confidence in learning English and support their independent learning by using English learning resources available in their local environment. Implicitly the new curriculum objectives encourage teachers to include

naturally occurring materials to enhance student autonomy and develop intrinsic motivation.

The new curriculum also aspires to develop learning experiences which give learners a range of opportunities to master the competences needed for their current and future lives. This curriculum embraces both the taught-curriculum (learning facilitated by teachers in school, classes and society) and the learned-curriculum (the direct learning experience) that take account of students' characteristics, backgrounds and abilities. A direct learning experience is seen as a learning result in itself, but the all learning results are part of the curriculum. In regulation No. 68/2013, the characteristics of the new curriculum aspire to: balancing the development of students' attitudes, curiosity, creativity, cooperation and intellectual and psychomotor ability; viewing school as an element of society which gives the students planned learning experiences from which students can apply what they have learnt in society and where they can take advantage of social learning resources and developing attitudes, skills, and knowledge and implementing them in schools and wider society.

The local environment in Indonesian regions, however, does not generally support English teaching and students' learning outside the classrooms. ELT in Indonesia is problematic as English is taught as a foreign language (FL) where it is neither an official language nor a language of daily communication. But many foreigners come to tourist resorts on Java Island and this provides opportunities for students to interact with English speakers and use authentic forms of English. My local area, Magelang Regency, is a tourist area with more opportunities to use English compared to other regions in Indonesia (including Sumatra where M. Lamb's study (2004) was undertaken and Sulawesi where Liando et al.'s study (2005) was situated). It may be that some teachers are seizing the opportunity presented by the tourist sites to enhance students' interaction with authentic resources in the local environment.

My own recent experience as an English teacher in a private school in this regency confirms the research that suggests little progress is currently being made in developing English language proficiency in the English as a foreign language (EFL) context of Indonesian schools. This has made me strongly aware of the potential of the particular English language-rich environment in Magelang. Some change is urgently required to improve English language skills in our country and the emphasis on developing learner autonomy and using local resources has much promise. It is also my direct experience that

traditional approaches to teaching and traditional understandings of the role of the teacher predominate in my local area.

Since the new curriculum enacted in 2013 requires English teachers to alter their ways of teaching, it seemed important to me to study how teachers perceived those requirements. Teachers play an important role in the success of curriculum implementation as according to Prawat (1992) they are the "agents of change" who play the main role in altering classroom practices (p. 354). However, teachers may not accept and implement the changes unless they view those changes as of great benefit to both themselves and their students (Schmidt & Datnow, 2005), something that is in turn more likely if teachers know about, and understand, current thinking about the interrelationship amongst learner autonomy, the use of environmental resources for learning English, and motivation. As developing learner autonomy was a new concept in the Indonesian JHS curriculum, researching teachers' perceptions of developing learner autonomy had the potential to uncover existing levels of understanding of the implications of this change and whether or not the teachers felt positive about the requirement. It was also important for this study to reveal and seek to understand any reluctance to implement the proposed changes, for example relating to teachers' view of their role as a teacher or obstacles in their particular context.

Exploring how teachers' perceptions were reflected in their actual teaching practices was of great value as this would provide information about the ways the curriculum amendment was likely to influence classroom practices. In addition, as learner autonomy development was related to the availability of resources then investigating how teachers viewed available learning resources in the local learning area for enhancing students' autonomous language learning was necessary. These concerns built a starting framework for conducting this study. The following figure represents the relationship among those concepts.

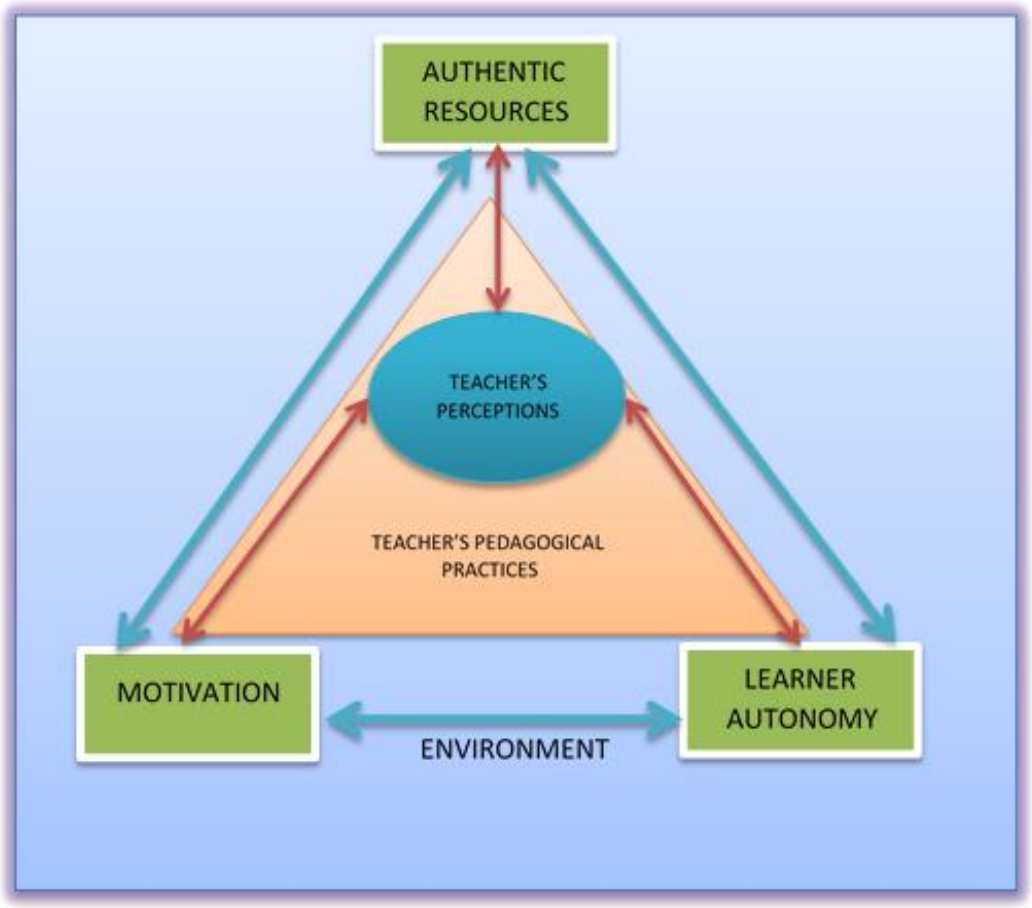

Figure 1. The relationship between teacher's perceptions, learner autonomy, motivation and authentic resources

1.2 An Overview of ELT in Indonesia

English language teaching in Indonesian higher education is flexible as institutions are given the autonomy for developing curricula and syllabi by the government. However, at the secondary school level, the current curriculum is very explicit and includes full lesson plans, textbooks and national examinations designed by the national government. The curriculum is open to modification and allows schools and individual teachers to adapt, adopt, or replace activities and materials to meet local contexts. In practice how much this happens is less clear, as there are very few studies in this area (M. Lamb, 2004, 2007; Sukyadi & Mardiani, 2011; Yembise, 2010).

The English curriculum for high schools in Indonesia has changed five times since 1945: employing the Grammar Translation Method in 1945, the Oral approach in 1968, the Audio-lingual approach in 1975, and the Communicative approach in 1984 and again in 1994 (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). In 2004 there was another new curriculum called a competency-based curriculum which also employed the communicative approach (Lie, 2007). Within this 2004 curriculum, the government set the objective for ELT in secondary

schools of developing spoken and written communicative competence in all four language skills (Department of National Education, 2003). In 2006, there was an amendment to that curriculum, resulting in a school-level curriculum which could be developed by each school to meet local needs and potential (Board of National Education Standards, 2006). In 2013 the curriculum was revised once more to enhance the 2006 curriculum although its initial application was limited to certain schools. In this new curriculum, the government proposed further innovations to ELT by promoting learning inside and outside classrooms. According to this remit teachers are no longer seen as the only resource for their students:

> *Belajar tidak hanya terjadi di ruang kelas, tetapi juga di lingkungan sekolah dan masyarakat, guru bukan satu – satunya sumber belajar, sikap tidak diajarkan secara verbal tetapi melalui contoh dan teladan* (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2012, Public Test Material, slide 25)
>
> (Learning does not only take place in the classrooms, but also in the school environment and society, teachers are not the only learning resource, attitudes are not taught verbally but through examples and modelling [Ministry of Education and Culture, 2012 Slide 25, my translation]).

Despite the revisions to the curriculum, improvement in students' English proficiency is still unsatisfactory (Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Kirkpatrick, 2012a; Madya, 2002). Even though EFL teaching has taken place in schools since the 1950s, Indonesian students still have poor English (Kirkpatrick, 2012a). In 2000, Dardjowidjojo's analysis of ELT in Indonesia showed that, in general, even after graduating from high school, students are unable to conduct intelligible English communication. He attributed the limited success of ELT in Indonesia to both linguistic and non-linguistic factors such as class size, teachers' lack of proficiency and curriculum mastery, teachers' low salaries, and cultural barriers concerning teachers' roles which may discourage the promotion of learner autonomy. It appears that ELT in Indonesia is still unsuccessful in achieving the goal of enabling students to master the four language skills (Madya, 2002).

Research on Indonesian students' motivation shows how students' motivation decreased over the time spent learning in schools and suggests that teaching practices and teaching materials may be at fault (M. Lamb, 2007). However, research also suggests scarcity of resources is a pressing problem. Yembise's (2010) study found students struggled to read government textbooks as the texts were culturally irrelevant to their lives. Those studies suggest that Indonesian students' motivation, and learning needs vary from region to region (M. Lamb, 2004, 2007; Liando et al., 2005; Yembise, 2010) and so do

resources and school facilities (Toi, 2010). Some of these issues are shared by other EFL contexts, others may be peculiar to specific regions.

1.3 Teaching in an EFL Context

1.3.1 Problems arising from the EFL context.

The situation of ELT in Indonesia shares similarities to the EFL teaching contexts in many other countries where there is unlikely to be high exposure to English (Brown, 2006; Butler, 2011; Freeman & Freeman, 1998). This situation is exacerbated when English has no official or socially dominant status in the community (Duff, 2014; Shin, 2014).There is usually limited exposure to English in the environment outside the school and this is a problem internationally for learners of all ages. Besides, English generally becomes the content rather than medium in the EFL classrooms (Little, 1991). This may be one of the reasons why students rarely develop native-like communicative skills.

1.3.2 The potential of the local context.

While the communicative approach underpins English curricula in many countries, there has been a perspective change in ELT towards approaches reflecting local needs and contexts. This especially applies in countries whose educational traditions differ from those in English-speaking countries. In countries under the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), English is considered a significant lingua franca (Kirkpatrick, 2012b) but some theorists argue that the way English is taught may need adaptation to the local situation. As Prabhu (1990) and Kumaravadivelu (2006) argue, no method will work best for every teaching and learning situation. Kumaravadivelu also notes that Western concepts and models are expected to be transplanted to non-Western educational contexts. But as each country has its own traditions in its educational system (Littlewood, 1999; Richards, 2001), the adoption of Western methods may not work in non-Western countries or at least may need some adjustments.

Like Kumaravadivelu, Littlewood (2010) argues that "attention has moved from set methods towards ways in which teachers can develop their own pedagogy based not only on general principles but also on their understanding of their specific situation and learners" (p. 46). This philosophical thinking also supports the wider use of authentic materials to supplement textbooks which might include resources available in the local environment. The use of these resources relates closely to the strand in ELT which argues for the need to develop students' autonomy, a concept of developing learners' independence to determine what, when and how to learn.

However, a possible tension exists between respecting and applying the original educational traditions in a country and the application of the Western concept of encouraging students' autonomy. Phan (2012) gives an example of where the introduction of self-directed learning (learner autonomy) was considered an abnegation of teachers' responsibility.

This tension inevitably applies to implementation of the curriculum requirement to develop learner autonomy in the Junior High School context described at the opening of this chapter, especially if, as I have indicated, many teachers hold traditional views of the teacher's role. The success of this implementation will require flexibility and an understanding of the diversity of the perceptions of teachers about their role in the process and of any affordances and constraints present in their local conditions. A uniform implementation of the new curriculum principles may, in other words, be undesirable in the light of the critique raised by Kumaravadivelu (2006) and others.

1.3.3 Autonomy, motivation and resources.

Autonomy, motivation and learning resources are three elements within language learning which influence each other. Holec (1979) describes autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" (p. 3) and this covers taking responsibility for "determining the [learning] objectives, defining the content and progressions, selecting methods and techniques to be used…evaluating what has been acquired" (p. 4). Autonomous learners are motivated in their language learning (Ushioda, 1996). Autonomous learners also use strategies and multiple opportunities to support their learning. If students are lacking in motivation, they are unlikely to undertake autonomous learning as motivation drives their learning.

Motivation is an important determinant of students' success in learning a language (Bradford, 2007; Dornyei, 2001; Dörnyei, 1998). Motivation is a concept which is used to justify individuals' actions, efforts, and persistence in achieving a particular goal (Dornyei, 2001). However, currently the teacher's role is shifting away from motivating students, and towards helping students motivate themselves in learning (Ushioda, 1996). So, teachers share the responsibility of developing students' motivation (Dornyei, 2001). Proponents of authentic materials use state that introducing authentic texts becomes a strategy to preserve language learners' learning motivation (Guariento & Morley, 2001).

While authentic material use can motivate students, its selection requires a high level of care. Carelessly selected materials may present too much difficulty to learners and

decrease their motivation. To minimize this problem, teachers can share the responsibility for choosing classroom materials with students and in doing so provide teachers with an opportunity to develop students' autonomy. Introducing a wide range of learning materials and showing students how to take advantage of each learning resource benefits students as they are taught and prepared to learn from resources they may find in their local environment.

In fact, the availability of learning resources influences the development of learner autonomy. As students discover learning resources (both authentic and inauthentic) in their own environment, autonomous and motivated students have greater opportunities to conduct learning outside formal educational contexts. They can also determine the type of resources they would like to use in their learning, as again those autonomous learners will seize any opportunities for their language learning. Therefore sharing the choice of learning resources can be used both to increase or maintain students' learning motivation and to facilitate autonomous learning. Therefore it is clear that autonomy, motivation and learning resources together influence students' language learning.

1.4 The Resources for EFL in my Local Area

In my region, there is a world heritage site, Borobudur Temple, which is visited by international tourists. Therefore, traffic signs, restaurant menus, notices, warnings, announcements, accommodation and travel agents' brochures, as well as products in shops, are written in English. People working there (native and non-native speakers) use English in serving foreigners. Opportunities to expose students to English users and texts are available; however, the extent to which teachers use these opportunities is unclear as nobody has explored this topic.

This study investigated how English teachers perceived the availability of authentic uses of English, what supported them in and limited them from engaging students in this, and how they took advantage of English in the environment to develop students' learning autonomy.

1.5 Research Questions

Given the contexts above, the following questions arise:

Main Question:

How do Junior High School English teachers in Magelang Regency, Central Java, Indonesia explain the importance of developing and supporting their learners' autonomy both within classroom teaching and learning and outside classroom learning in their local environment?

Sub questions:

a. What are teachers' perceptions of developing learner autonomy in English learning?
b. How do teachers' perceptions affect their teaching practices in developing students' language skills?
c. How do English teachers interpret the curriculum expectation to develop students' autonomy in their learning outside the class?
d. What do teachers perceive as affordances and constraints in using the resources of the local tourist area to foster students' autonomous language learning?

1.6 Significance and Scope of the Study

This research explored ELT practices in an EFL context where teachers were required by the new curriculum to develop learner autonomy. This study revealed how English teachers in a Southeast Asian country perceived learner autonomy development for their teaching and students' learning in their local area where English is commonly used in tourist activities. The findings contribute to studies of ELT in EFL contexts by depicting the relationship between what teachers think and what they do when attempting to develop learner autonomy. This study is unique in researching the promotion of the western concept of learner autonomy at junior high school level in a non-Western context at the early stage of curriculum implementation.

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CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents an overview of theories and research relevant to this study. It begins with an examination of current trends in ELT in Indonesia followed by a discussion of learner autonomy, teachers' and learners' roles in developing autonomy, teachers' perceptions of autonomy and related classroom practices, and contextual factors influencing teachers' practices in developing learner autonomy. This chapter concludes with an introduction to theories and models commonly used as a framework in studies that investigate teachers' beliefs and practices.

2.1 Research on ELT in Indonesia

Existing studies on ELT in Indonesia raise the issue of a mismatch between curriculum and examination requirements, and students' motivation to learn in autonomous ways (M. Lamb, 2007; Liando et al., 2005; Yembise, 2010). Some relatively recent studies also explore learner autonomy in the Indonesian context (M. Lamb, 2004, 2011). Taken together they reveal some of the complexity inherent in this field in this South-East Asian environment. As well as giving an overview of these studies, this section raises the issue of unequal resourcing of Indonesian schools, the context in which the policy of learner autonomy is being implemented.

Two seminal studies reveal a disjunction between students' autonomous English learning practices outside the school setting and the implementation of a curriculum that privileges examinations within the setting of school. An early mixed methods study on ELT in Indonesia was conducted by Martin Lamb (2004) who studied junior high school students learning English in a provincial city on Sumatra Island. First, questionnaires were employed to reveal the motivation of first year students and to identify their learning activities outside the classroom. Then, twelve students displaying various levels of motivation were selected for two semi-structured interviews. M. Lamb's findings reveal that students were motivated to learn English in out of school contexts, either through taking private courses or studying independently at home. Highly motivated students showed autonomy (willingness to study independently) and used English songs, movies, TV programs in their environment to improve their English. However, students reported that their teachers' way of teaching affected their motivation. With the burden of the curriculum, many teachers focussed on reading and writing materials for examination preparation. Since speaking skills were not examined in the national examination, the

teachers overlooked students' motivation to improve their speaking ability in English. Teachers also seemed reluctant to present resources outside the textbook in their English classes. The second phase of the study revealed that students' enthusiasm for learning English at school dropped as time passed due to textbook-based teacher-directed practices and the lack of communicative language experiences. Even so, they reported persevering with their after school independent English learning (M. Lamb, 2007). The more successful learners perceived their English development as a personal endeavour which required great autonomy. Students were willing to take it upon themselves to access relevant resources (M. Lamb, 2011). All of the motivated learners in M. Lamb's (2011) study indicated that they tried to take control of their learning and although they were frustrated with learning experiences at school, they could still show their agency by employing outside-classroom learning resources.

In 2005, Liando et al. also investigated the relationship between students' motivation to learn English and the impact of examination requirements on learning English. They looked at 149 students from two high schools in Manado, a provincial city on Sulawesi Island. The students were given a questionnaire and the results were analysed statistically. These results suggested that Indonesian senior high school students who were preparing themselves for national examinations actually had more integrative (desire to interact with native speakers) than instrumental motivation (practical reasons for wishing to pass the examination). They wanted to interact with native speakers and the English community. Because of this finding Liando et al. suggest that the curriculum should include both inside the classroom and outside the classroom activities to promote students' motivation to learn English.

Students' motivation to learn English may depend on the connections they can make to their own culture and familiar experiences. Yembise (2010) found JHS students in Timika, Mimika District, Papua had difficulty in reading government textbooks that held no cultural relevance for them. The students had no conception of objects like a 'garage' or 'dining-room' as they had no such things in their lives. Students who were taught using non-culturally relevant materials showed a lower satisfaction level towards the materials, while those taught using culturally relevant materials had higher levels of motivation. The recommendation resulting from this study was that government textbooks should be adjusted to the local situation to facilitate students' learning. Yembise also suggested that the existing curriculum must be flexible enough to meet local people's needs and prior

experiences, and that introducing culturally relevant materials should be seen as a bridge to introduce students to an outside culture.

These studies suggest that students in different areas may have different characteristics and that a single curriculum may produce diverse results. Disparity in educational achievement between regions or schools has also been a major feature of decentralization in Indonesian Junior Secondary Education (Toi, 2010). Decentralisation in Indonesia was considered as enabling the local communities to contribute to decision-making and it aimed at "local control over development priorities and resources" after more than 3 decades of Soeharto's "centralized authoritarian rule" (Hadiz, 2004, p. 701). Decentralisation within the educational system happened in 1990s and educators at the local level were granted control over the curriculum, finance, and educational practices at schools (Bjork, 2006). The Ministry of Education launched the Local Content Curriculum (LCC) in 1994 and required all elementary and junior high schools to use one-fifth of the curriculum for locally designed courses which were relevant to the particularities of the local community and environment, such as courses related to tourism for schools in Bali and courses on agriculture for schools in Java (Bjork, 2003). Although the central government provided funding for seminars, conferences and workshops on this LCC, there was no special funding given to the provincial and school levels to facilitate the LCC programs and therefore schools had to find their own funding. Toi analysed school data and students' scores in the national examination from the Ministry of National Education of Indonesia before and after decentralisation. Concerns about differences in facilities and equipment existed even before decentralisation happened in Indonesian junior high schools as libraries or science laboratories were lacking in nearly 30% of the schools (Toi, 2010). In his survey of approximately 5000 junior high schools in Indonesia, Toi found that school budgets differed in each area and this influenced learning circumstances, learning facilities and teachers' access to professional development which, in turn, might have influenced the students' achievement levels. Using a model based on covariance structure analysis, Toi studied the causal relationship between factors related to educational environment and achievement and school budgets before and after decentralisation. His findings suggest that an adequate school budget improves the quality of the educational environment and results in higher student achievement in examinations as well as lower dropout rates. However, according to Toi's study, after decentralization school budgets and teacher qualifications declined in schools resulting in a serious deterioration in the educational environments which had a significant impact upon the students' ability to learn. Decentralisation appears

to make the resourcing gap between schools even wider. Budget shortages in Indonesian high schools have been found to result not only in poor educational resources but also in a reduction in teacher salaries. Teachers are pushed to do other work in addition to teaching at school which appears to leave them with insufficient time to prepare for classes adequately. This pressure leaves them with insufficient time or energy to improve the quality of their teaching or engage in professional development (Lie, 2007). When this study was conducted, JHSs were funded by central government through the school operational assistance program (BOS) as specified in the regulation of the Minister of Education and Culture No. 76 2014, and schools were basically not allowed to charge students. The fund could be used to provide school facilities but no more than 20% of it was allowed to be allocated for teachers' salaries or honorarium. The local government also had to contribute to providing additional funds for schools. As the government funding was given based on the number of students in each school the funding differed from school to school.

Nonetheless, an increased budget and more equitable distribution of resources may not automatically result in more effective education without a good school management structure. In Bedi and Garg's (2000) study, Indonesian private non-religious schools were found to have superior resources and time management in comparison to public schools. It found that those graduating from private schools performed better in the labour market suggesting that these schools were successful in equipping students with skills which were highly rewarded in the labour market, while public schools seemed less successful in applying their greater resources to prepare students for success in the labour market.

Uneven student achievement resulting from different access to ELT resources in Indonesia remains a troubling phenomenon. This is evident in studies comparing students in big cities on Java such as Jakarta, Surabaya and Bandung with those in remote areas of Papua (M. Lamb, 2011; Lie, 2007; Yembise, 2010). Many urban students have the resources to join holiday programs in English speaking countries arranged by schools or private agencies. Lie (2007) found that students from the middle or upper class families had more access and chances to develop their proficiency in English through "private courses, computer-aided language instruction, and exposure through Western-influenced TV channels, foreign movies, and network with expatriate communities" (p. 3). M. Lamb's (2011) study also showed that motivated and autonomous students in Indonesian high schools, who had a clear ideal second language (L2) self, came from middle-class wealthy families and had educated parents. It seemed that students from these families could access

better learning materials because they could afford to pay for additional learning resources. In contrast, rural students had limited access even to prescribed or recommended textbooks (Lie, 2007). In Papua for example, there were few authentic English materials available to students in the rural areas of the Highlands (Yembise, 2010), and families could not afford the resources available to urban, middle class families.

These studies suggest that the English development of Indonesian high school students requires access to learning resources both outside and inside the classrooms. Students' motivation and autonomy to utilize those resources also plays a part in their academic success. This was evident in M. Lamb's (2011) finding that students' English proficiency improved in concert with their autonomous and persistent engagement with outside classroom activities and resources. This connection between autonomy and learning seems to be very similar to the learning process expected by the most recent curriculum. This curriculum proposes that students become active learners whose autonomy should be developed so that they can learn autonomously both inside and outside classrooms. However, teachers' actual practices remain unclear. Teachers may have different understandings of the concept of autonomy and how it can be developed in their learners.

2.2 Learner Autonomy

Holec (1979) describes autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" (p. 3) and this covers taking responsibility for "determining the [learning] objectives, defining the content and progressions, selecting methods and techniques to be used, … evaluating what has been acquired" (p. 4). The introduction and promotion of this concept began in the early 1970s through the Council of Europe's Modern Language Project (Benson, 2011) but only started to receive attention in ELT over the last decade (Smith, 2008). Learner autonomy is now regarded not only as an important goal in language education (Cotterall, 2000; Murase, 2011) but also in general education (Benson, 2000; Sinclair, 2000). Benson (2010a) suggests that educational policy increasingly expects language education, in a foreign language, to promote autonomous learners.

2.2.1 Definition, terms and concepts of learner autonomy.

In addition to Holec's (1979) famous definition of learner autonomy, other definitions of learner autonomy have also emerged. Dam (2003) summarises learner autonomy as "a developing capacity on the part of the learners to accept responsibility for their learning" (p. 135). In applied linguistics learner autonomy is regarded as "a capacity for active, independent learning" (Dickinson, 1995, p. 167), or, according to Little (1991),

the capacity for "detachment, critical reflection, decision making and independent action" (p. 4). From those definitions, learner autonomy can be summarised as learners' capacity to take control of and responsibility for their learning and to use this skill to conduct independent learning.

Along with its various definitions, some alternative terms are used for learner autonomy depending on the context for learning (Broad, 2006). Autonomous learning and independent learning are often used as synonyms (Morrison, 2011; Murase, 2015). Independent learning, self-directed learning, independent study, and self-regulated learning (Morrison, 2011) are also regarded as synonymous. The phrase *autonomous learners* may also refer to strategic and self-regulated learners (Weinstein, Acee, Jung, & Dearman, 2011). In this study *learner autonomy* is used most commonly and the term *independent learning* is used to signal the activity of autonomous students.

The current understanding of autonomy arose from Western approaches to language education (Benson & Voller, 1997) although autonomy is a concept rooted in both Western and Eastern (Chinese) philosophy (Huang & Benson, 2013). Reviewing the work of Chinese scholars, Pierson (1996) found pedagogical tradition in China that corresponded to autonomous learning practices. However, there are contradictory views about how this concept is perceived. A study conducted by Chan (2003) revealed that the promotion of autonomy in Hong Kong was undermined by "the teacher-centredness and authority-oriented tradition of Chinese education" (p. 34) and that the philosophy of Chinese education did not seem congruent with autonomy. Many teachers in Japan, in Murase's (2011) analysis, tended to perceive learner autonomy as unsuitable for their students when they failed to promote it in their Eastern contexts. This strengthens the idea that the conception of autonomy discussed and practised in current EFL teaching in many Asian countries is likely to have come from the West. This conception of autonomy is considered "central to Western liberal thought" (Pennycook, 1997, p. 36) and its focus is on the individual and psychological dimensions of autonomy (Sinclair, 2000). Autonomy was originally associated with the Western notion of "individualisation" in language teaching (Benson, 2011, p. 10) and was seen as an indication of students' growing independence from a teacher (Palfreyman, 2003). That Holec's definition of autonomy has become the most cited one (Benson, 2011) also suggests that the understanding of autonomy commonly used in studies and classroom practices is the one introduced from the West.

As the literature on autonomy has developed it has shown a shift from individualism and independence towards interdependence, and a greater awareness of the role of social

interaction in the autonomous learning processes. Rather than through isolation, some now suggest that autonomy develops through social interaction (Little, 2007). Murase (2015) argues that autonomy is not the same as total independence from either teacher or peers and others but that it involves the notion of interdependence (Benson, 2011; Kohonen, 1992; Yashima, 2014). Benson and Cooker (2013) reinforce this shift in conceptualising autonomy when they argue that learner autonomy is at the moment understood as a "social capacity" and its development encompasses "interdependence" rather than "independence" (p. 8). Smith (2001) argues that "interdependence and group work represent appropriate alternative values which can inform the development of approaches to learner autonomy in Asia" (pp. 72-73).

However, this current understanding may also be reviewed in the future as more studies are conducted on learner autonomy which may bring new insights to this concept. Because so much work is being conducted and published in a wide range of contexts and settings, autonomy in the context of language teaching and learning is still "a work in progress" (Benson, 2011, p. 18).

2.2.2 Types of autonomy.

Three versions of autonomy comprising technical, psychological and political versions of autonomy were introduced by Benson (1997). The technical version views autonomy as "the act of learning a language outside the framework of an educational institution and without the intervention of a teacher" (p. 19). This type of autonomy requires learners to acquire certain technical skills to conduct their language learning outside the classroom. The psychological version views learner autonomy as "a capacity – a construct of attitudes and abilities – which allows learners to take more responsibility for their own learning" (p. 19). As this view of autonomy deals with learners' behaviours, attitudes and personality which enable them to conduct their learning and be responsible for it, autonomy development is regarded as internal change within an individual. Lastly, within the political version, learner autonomy is defined as "control over the process and content of learning" (p. 19). In this version, learners demonstrate autonomy by voicing their aspirations and opinions in decision-making about the learning process and the course materials used in the classrooms. This suggests that the more autonomous the learners, the more control they may exert in determining learning activities and materials.

A further distinction is sometimes made between social and cultural aspects of autonomy. This distinction emerges from the sociocultural perspective of "social interaction as a major part of cognitive and language development" (Oxford, 2003, p. 85).

The social aspect of autonomy captures how social interaction facilitates the development of learner autonomy; while the cultural aspect relates to the social facet of autonomy within the cultural context of the setting of the learning (Murase, 2011). Teachers may adhere to one version over the others and thus the way they promote autonomy will differ from their colleagues' who support another type of autonomy.

Smith (2003) proposed weak and strong versions of pedagogy for students' autonomy. In the weak version, autonomy is regarded as "a capacity which students currently lack (and so need 'training' towards), and /or identify it with a mode of learning (for example, self-access) which students need to be prepared for" (p. 130). In contrast to the weak version, the strong version assumes that "students are, to greater or lesser degrees, already autonomous, and already capable of exercising this capacity" (p. 131). Teachers may perceive students as having either strong or weak autonomy and this affects their teaching practice. Teachers who perceive learners as having strong autonomy may choose pedagogies that enhance their students' current level of autonomy, while those who perceive their students have weak autonomy may teach students strategies to enable them to become autonomous. Under these circumstances, autonomy can be seen more as a product of instruction (Smith, 2003). Teachers have to teach students perceived to be lacking in autonomy to be autonomous and their autonomy is therefore constructed through learning activities which are created by teachers (Holliday, 2003).

Another two popular versions of autonomy comprise *proactive* and *reactive autonomy* (Littlewood, 1999). Proactive autonomy is prioritised in the West and it covers the capacity suggested by Holec (1979) of "determining the objectives, defining the content and progressions, selecting methods and techniques to be used, … [and] evaluating what has been acquired" (p. 4). In contrast, reactive autonomy "does not create its own directions, but, once a direction has been initiated, enables learners to organize their resources autonomously in order to reach their goal" (p. 75). Some examples of independent learning activities conducted by students possessing reactive autonomy include learning vocabulary, working through past examination papers, and collaborating in groups to do assignments.

Teachers are likely to have perceptions about learners' levels of autonomy and teachers' perceptions affect their promotion of autonomy. Consequently, teachers may foster autonomy differently from classroom to classroom or even from group to group in the same classroom. Teachers in Japan, for example, perceived their students as passive and lacking autonomy and they believed that students should be trained to exercise their

autonomy (Murase, 2011). In Malaysia, English teachers perceived their English as a Second Language (ESL) students had limited capacity to conduct autonomous language learning, and this led them to give explicit instructions as a way to develop their learners' autonomy (Ismail & Yusof, 2012). Thai English teachers had no objections to being a facilitator, but they believed that students still needed their help and support as they believed their learners could not become independent instantly (Akaranithi & Panlay, 2007). In another study involving teachers from Germany, Hong Kong, New Zealand, Spain, and Switzerland it was found that teachers perceived their students as too dependent on the teachers, taking no responsibility for their language learning and having no belief in the importance of autonomy development (Reinders & Lazaro, 2011), thus requiring guidance from their teachers.

Overall, each version of autonomy differs from the others. The differences among those versions affect the promotion of autonomy in classrooms. Teachers' perceptions of both students' characteristics and their understanding of concept of autonomy may influence their teaching practices in their particular teaching contexts. This may provide a clue about why teachers' practices for developing autonomy may differ from those of their colleagues.

2.2.3 Reasons for developing autonomy.

There are various reasons for developing learner autonomy. The most obvious reason is that learner autonomy promotes life-long learning (Egel, 2009). These days, citizens need the ability to adapt and keep learning to cope with rapidly changing society (Jarvis, 2007; Weinstein et al., 2011) and thus it is increasingly necessary to develop autonomous learners. In this regard, life-long learning is connected to the demands of the changing world.

Crabbe (1993) sets out three arguments why autonomy is desirable: ideological, psychological, and economic. The ideological argument, which is shared by Ushioda (2011), refers to people's right to exercise individual choice and learn based on their personal choices. The psychological argument suggests that people conduct better learning when they are responsible for their learning and when learning is autonomous, it is likely to be more meaningful, permanent and focused; while the economic argument contends that society has insufficient resources for fulfilling everyone's personal learning needs and therefore people must fulfil these needs themselves (Crabbe, 1993).

The quality of learning is also considered to be improved with the development of autonomy. This is because apart from meeting learning objectives, those holding learning

responsibility tend to preserve a positive attitude towards future learning (Little, 1995). With autonomy, learners have motivation for learning and they are likely to reflect on it (Little, 2009).

Learner autonomy also allows for flexible language learning. The advancement of technology has led to individualised and personalised language learning that favours learners who can use computers to learn at any time and in any place (Ueki & Takeuchi, 2013). Autonomous language learners can therefore use skills and knowledge for learning outside the classroom (Little, 2009) where they are in control of this learning (Benson, 2013). This means that autonomous language learners can conduct their learning in a range of contexts with the diverse resources they find in their environment and are not limited to classroom learning activities and materials.

Developing learner autonomy and enhancing English proficiency go hand in hand (Little, 2007). This is because autonomous language learners take maximum advantage of language learning opportunities they find in their environment such as reading English texts or making conversation with foreigners (Paiva, 2013). Learner autonomy also develops when an individual acquires the skills to become a competent target language speaker by exploiting linguistic and other resources in an effective and creative way (Illés, 2012). This is significant in the digital era where there is unlimited access to online English materials and this enables learners to communicate across regional borders and time. Illés considered autonomous learners as independent English users who have the capability to solve their own problems and make decisions when going online.

Developing learner autonomy also helps to overcome classroom problems. Fostering autonomy can be used as a "rescue strategy" in situations where the learning resources are limited such as in classrooms in Sri Lanka (Fonseka, 2003, p. 147). In Sri Lanka, the majority of urban public schools at the time of Fonseka's study had large classes of more than 45 students and Fonseka found that government textbooks were ineffective as students had no interest in engaging with written texts which lacked authenticity. Furthermore, these students lacked proper meals or rest and were reluctant to attend school. Thus it was important for teaching to be entertaining so that students wanted to learn both inside and outside the classroom. Fonseka found the use of songs was effective in teaching English and encouraging sufficient autonomy for students to learn beyond the classroom at home or in their social lives. In this way, learners could keep learning English autonomously despite their unconducive environment.

Kuchah and Smith (2011) also found that developing learner autonomy could serve as a solution to teaching large classes in the African context where textbooks were often unavailable. Kuchah had to teach 235 learners in one classroom at a secondary school which was lacking textbooks and space for students to sit, and which did not provide a cooling system to beat the heat in the extreme climate. Kuchah increased students' autonomy through asking them to select materials that interested them, and to negotiate and propose learning activities as well as to collaborate in group work. These approaches were found to be effective in solving the problems he faced. His efforts in developing autonomy correspond with Crabbe's (1993) economic argument that learners may need to fulfil their learning needs themselves if the school cannot do this for them. Similar to Fonseka's situation, in Kuchah's context, learner autonomy offered a solution for difficult teaching conditions.

To conclude, different reasons may underlie learner autonomy development in different contexts. It is clear from this section that the reasons are not limited to enhancing learners' English proficiency but to other social, economy and political purposes. As Crabbe (1993) emphasises, people have their individual rights to learn what they wish to learn and to satisfy their learning needs when the society is unable to serve them. However, Benson (2009) argues that the concept of autonomy is not neutral in that it focuses on serving not only the learners' interests, but also the world economy, particularly when it is positioned in the context of globalisation, as has been suggested early in this section.

2.2.4 Misconceptions of learner autonomy.

Despite these studies that show how important it is to foster learner autonomy (Chan, 2003; Inozu, 2011; Joshi, 2011), some misconceptions about the concept of autonomy and its development persist. First, *learner autonomy* and *self-instruction* are sometimes misunderstood as synonyms, and being autonomous is regarded as learning without teachers, and teacher interventions are seen as undermining learners' autonomy (Little, 1991). When autonomy is only seen this way, the teacher's role appears to be threatened (Benson & Voller, 1997). Further to this common misconception is the belief that in an autonomous classroom learners alone have the right to make decisions about their learning (Dam & Legenhausen, 2011). These perceptions show confusion about the place of teachers' contributions.

Second, learner autonomy is misunderstood as "a single, easily described behaviour" (Little, 1991, pp. 3–4). This does not appreciate the scope of autonomy as a multidimensional and complex concept (Benson, 2010a; 2013), or allow that a learner may

be autonomous in performing a particular task but not when performing other tasks. It is thus inaccurate to assess students' autonomy through a single behaviour on a particular task.

Another potential misconception lies in the belief that teachers have to be autonomous before they can develop their learners' autonomy. Arguments that teacher autonomy is a prerequisite for learner autonomy are posed by Little (1991) and Mackenzie (2007). These arguments make sense in that teachers who exercise autonomy themselves know how to be autonomous and thus they are likely to know what to expect from their students. Teachers who are unused to promoting autonomy may find this challenging. For example, Burkert (2011) concluded that her unsuccessful experiences in promoting autonomy in her tertiary students may have resulted from her lack of previous experience in developing autonomy. However, being an autonomous teacher does not guarantee the ability to teach students autonomy (Aoki, 2002). Nakata (2011) argues that the most important aspect of developing learner autonomy is the teachers' ability to teach learners to be autonomous. Also, once teachers understand how to teach the concept of learner autonomy, they may be better equipped to help learners to gain more autonomy in their language learning. As an example, teachers' collaborative projects about implementing self-directed learning allowed teachers who were new to the concept to learn the principles of self-directed learning and then better implement this in classroom instruction (Lau, 2013).

However, Little and Mackenzie suggest that teachers may feel unable to develop autonomy if they have no direct experience of being autonomous as either learners or teachers. This uncertainty may lead to increased resistance by teachers to adopting approaches to develop autonomy.

2.3 Learners' Roles in Autonomous Learning

The roles of learners in autonomous learning have been signalled in the definition of learner autonomy presented earlier in this chapter. Holec's definition suggests that learners have the capacity to set their own learning goals, determine learning content and methods, as well as monitor and evaluate the progress of their learning. In other words, learners have a part to play in achieving these tasks. This involves: understanding the notion of autonomy; exercising control over their learning through both independent learning and collaboration with others inside and outside the classroom; as well as developing the mental characteristics of autonomous language learners.

The notion of autonomy deals with learners' freedom, control and responsibility for their learning. But not all learners fully understand this. In essence, autonomy offers learners the opportunity to have some freedom in their learning (Little, 1991). Some students, however, misinterpret this idea and perceive that they have complete freedom to do anything they want, including not doing any learning (Fisher, Hafner, & Young, 2007). Having autonomy does not mean that students learn alone without any influences from their teachers or institutions (Benson, 2010a). Theorists of autonomy argue that autonomy relies on the idea that students assume more (but not total) control (Benson, 2011, 2013) and responsibility (Dam, 2003; Little, 1995) for their learning. Learner autonomy results from an interactive process where teachers allow students to share control over learning processes and materials (Little, 2007). Understanding this distinction may prevent students developing misconceptions about the freedom offered by learner autonomy.

Learners' control and responsibility can be enhanced through active involvement in their learning (Dornyei, 2001). Some studies illustrate how students were involved in decision-making in the classroom (Fisher et al., 2007; Young, Hafner, & Fisher, 2007). Student-teachers in a Turkish university reported that it enhanced learner autonomy when they involved learners in making decisions about constructing course objectives, managing the classroom, setting assignments and selecting materials (Balcikanli, 2010). Involving students in choosing topics for classroom learning was also found to increase Japanese students' autonomy when they were learning English in New Zealand (Feryok, 2013). Increasing students' authority in making both choices and decisions as well as in working on them allows them to share control (Huang & Benson, 2013). Thus, it can be concluded that to develop autonomy students need to engage in and share responsibility for their learning.

Learning to cooperate with both teachers and classmates is a factor in learners' autonomy development. This is because autonomy develops through social interaction (Murase, 2015) and learners need to cooperate with other people and to use a constructive approach when solving problems (Kohonen, 1992). In a study conducted in a New Zealand context, Japanese students exercised autonomy by collaborating with both teacher and friends in creating mind-map models (Feryok, 2013). These Japanese students' autonomy also increased as they collaborated with their classmates in deciding the course content and vocabulary to be learnt. In another context, Thai students collaborated in blended learning (integration of online learning through a course management system and face to face interaction) through reading and commenting on friends' learning journals as well as

sharing their thoughts. They reported that this collaboration gave them peer support, as well as exerting group pressure, which increased their autonomy and motivation (Snodin, 2013). These studies show that collaboration appears to enhance learner autonomy.

Autonomous language learners also enhance their learning by searching for and taking advantage of available learning resources as they create opportunities to practise what they learn. As suggested by Breen and Mann (1997), autonomous learners make use of the environment in their learning as they seek resources to learn languages inside or outside the classroom. They may for example take the chance to read English texts and practise speaking English with foreigners (Paiva, 2013). This was also evident when autonomous language learners in Indonesia used learning resources outside classrooms such as English songs, movies, and TV programs and took private English courses to enhance their English (M. Lamb, 2004). The accessibility of technology allows learners to conduct autonomous learning and communicate with others at any time and in any place (Ueki & Takeuchi, 2013). Learners may also create activities which are meaningful to their language acquisition and allow them to practise what they have to learn (Cotterall & Crabbe, 2008). This was apparent, in Gao's (2010) study of a disabled Chinese English learner who had a high level of motivation and autonomy. This learner created an environment for practising English by writing English letters, translating texts from English into Chinese, and making connections with different English users and English learners (real or imagined) through correspondence and conversation. Nepalese students also used resources outside the classroom to increase their English proficiency by accessing the library, audio-visual materials, computers and the internet (Joshi, 2011). Joshi also found that some of the students targeted activities where English was used and sought out English conversations with both teachers and friends outside the classrooms. In another study, Navarro and Thornton (2011) found that one of the participants tried to improve her speaking fluency, as she was aware that this was limited, by coming to the speaking practice centre in the university. This signalled that this particular student had sufficient autonomy to address her weakness and by selecting this method to improve it, she exercised her autonomy even further. These studies show how English learners behave autonomously by finding outside opportunities to practise using the language they learnt in class.

Autonomous language learners may also demonstrate certain psychological and mental attributes. They show commitment to independent learning (Fisher et al., 2007) and they own desire to acquire the target language (Breen & Mann, 1997). This illustrates the role of motivation in autonomous learning. Motivation, along with confidence, skills and

knowledge, is a component of successful autonomous learning (Littlewood, 1996). Not only do learners have to be motivated, but also they need to be proactive (Reinders, 2010). To manage environments which are continuously changing, learners require "an increased ability to manage personal motivation, identify and set goals, create realistic expectations and assess progress" which are the aspects of autonomous learning (Crabbe, Elgort, & Gu, 2013, p. 194). These characteristics allow students to acquire sufficient autonomy to take charge of their learning.

The overview of learners' roles in autonomous language learning above shows us that learners' commitment to exercising autonomy is essential for the development of autonomy. To complement learners' commitment, teachers' commitment also plays a critical role in the successful development of learner autonomy.

2.4 The Role of Teachers in Developing Learner Autonomy

The current literature suggests that to achieve learner autonomy teachers need to change their roles (Ciekanski, 2007) from delivering information to becoming a learning facilitator (Dornyei, 2001; Little, 1995). A number of studies show that teachers were aware that promoting learning autonomy required them to act as a learning facilitator and this awareness was reflected in their teaching practices. Teachers of English in Nepal, for example, acknowledged that their main role was as a facilitator in developing learner autonomy, and their secondary role was as a co-worker who acted more or less authoritatively according to classroom conditions (Joshi, 2011). Thai teachers were also conscious of their role as learning facilitators and showed no objection to facilitating the development of students' personal strategies in learning (Akaranithi & Panlay, 2007). Feryok's study (2013) also revealed how a teacher adopted the role of a facilitator by sharing control of the classroom with his students. This teacher also fostered learning sustainability by developing skills that students could use throughout life. These studies indicate that teachers' awareness of the new role has the potential to lead them to revise their teaching practices.

Teachers' awareness of their new role might not, however, always be accompanied by a readiness to develop learner autonomy in practice. Some teachers may prefer to maintain their dominance in the classroom. Hong Kong teachers, for example, were reported as understanding their new roles and responsibilities in promoting learner autonomy and were aware of how their teaching practices needed to change (Chan, 2003). These teachers knew that their students were capable of making decisions related to their learning yet they opted to make these class decisions without sharing the role with their

students. These teachers chose not to give their students the chance to make choices or decisions over course content or activities, and this was because they had concerns that students might perceive that making such decisions was the teachers' job. They were not comfortable about asking students to decide these aspects of learning. Chan concluded that these Hong Kong teachers were not ready to develop learner autonomy. Similarly, in Nakata's (2011) study, EFL high school teachers in Japan acknowledged the value of developing autonomy in both teachers and students at a theoretical level. However, in practice, teachers were not ready to promote students' autonomy citing constraints from examinations and work pressure. Some teachers perceived that setting learning objectives was their responsibility and helping learners to set these objectives was unrealistic and impractical. T. Lamb's (2009) findings were similar. He reported that secondary school students in a Northern English city were keen to be involved in decision-making such as in determining the learning activities but their teachers wanted to maintain full control of the class. These studies suggest that some teachers may still be unwilling to share control over decision-making with their students as they perceive this as their job.

In other contexts, teachers were not ready to support students' autonomous learning outside the classrooms. Many teachers in a language institute in a Thai university admitted that they encouraged students to use the self-access language centre (SALC) but did not provide any further support for learner autonomy development as they had little experience of preparing students for learning outside the classroom especially in the SALC (Wichayathian & Reinders, 2015). These teachers were conscious that they had limited knowledge of and inadequate training in the use of self-access facilities. Lai, Yeung and Hu (2015) found that teachers' limited ability to use technology led them to opt for a minimal role in supporting students to learn autonomously in the Centre for English studies at The University of Hong Kong. These teachers could not meet the needs of their students who wanted recommendations from their teachers of learning resources and learning strategies (metacognitive and cognitive) to utilize technological resources. These studies indicate that while teachers shared decision-making with their students, this was more a result of their lack of confidence and preparation.

Reducing teachers' dominance to encourage learner autonomy depends on teachers' readiness and ability to increase students' involvement in their learning. Teachers who are ready to promote autonomy create situations where students are involved in the learning (Dam, 2000; Dornyei, 2001). Dornyei (2001) suggests allowing students to make choices about their learning activities and subject matter content, granting them some control and

space to make a contribution, and encouraging peer teaching and project work. Autonomy can also be promoted by placing more emphasis on activities initiated by students which enable them to be active language learners (Mutton & Bartley, 2006). With more involvement of students in the classroom decision-making, and more active participation in the teaching and learning processes, teachers can limit their authority (Rivers, 2011). However, students may not respond positively to changes in their teachers' roles. Students in Turkey felt uncomfortable, anxious and stressed when they were asked to participate in decision-making as they perceived that decision-making was the teacher's responsibility (Inozu, 2011). These students perceived any flexibility and freedom given by teacher signalled lack of control. As a result, the teacher's effort to develop learner autonomy was unsuccessful. Austrian teachers who tried to share control with students were also seen as not fulfilling their responsibilities (Burkert, 2011). In her class of Language Awareness and Contrastive analysis in Graz University, Austria, Burkert found students reluctant to do the evaluation and reflection task which she used as a strategy to develop autonomy. This potential constraint upon developing autonomy appeared to result from the learners' traditional views about teachers' and students' roles in education. Teachers' lack of success in promoting learner autonomy may also relate to students' lack of readiness and / or willingness to be more responsible for their learning (Wichayathian & Reinders, 2015).

Some studies show that teachers' support and guidance are important to increase students' readiness for autonomous learning, but teachers may not always be clear how to provide them. Students aged 16-19 years in Selby College in the United Kingdom acknowledged in a quantitative study that they appreciated the support and guidance from their tutors and they mentioned that the staff also provided opportunities for them to conduct independent learning (Broad, 2006). Thai tertiary students also admitted that they preferred teacher-oriented lessons where teachers could give explicit explanation about grammar and where they did not need to search for an explanation from either the internet or other sources independently (Akaranithi & Panlay, 2007). These students still wanted the teachers' help and support and their teachers had a similar view that they were still needed to give direction to their students. In contrast, teachers on an EAP programme in an international university in Ho Chi Minh City in Vietnam were unsure about how to provide the support demanded by their learners for their autonomy development (Humphreys & Wyatt, 2013). Their learners wanted teachers to be more proactive in giving them support for autonomous learning and believed that they would not develop autonomy without guidance from their teachers. Without this guidance, students struggled to understand the

difference between learner autonomy and homework. These findings indicate that support and guidance from teachers is perceived by some students to be an essential part of the practice of developing learner autonomy.

Lastly, as the significant agents for promoting autonomy, teachers may need to consider specific factors which support learners' autonomy development (Egel, 2009) such as their motivation. To successfully develop autonomy, learners not only need ability (skills and knowledge) but also willingness (motivation and confidence) (Littlewood, 1996). Without motivation, learners may not want to accept their role in sharing control of their learning (Reinders, 2010). It is even possible that the practice of developing learner autonomy might lead to a decrease in students' motivation. Inozu (2011) found this in her study of high school students at a school in Turkey, where students did not feel comfortable with autonomy and were anxious when their passive role was challenged. In this regard, the learners' level of motivation may affect and be affected by their level of autonomy and thus teachers need to pay attention to students' motivation levels.

By having autonomy and motivation students can learn independently through learning resources available inside and outside the classrooms. Students may interact with authentic resources and learn from them. Vaiciuniene and Uzpaliene (2012) explain the relationship among autonomy, motivation and authentic resources in the following figure:

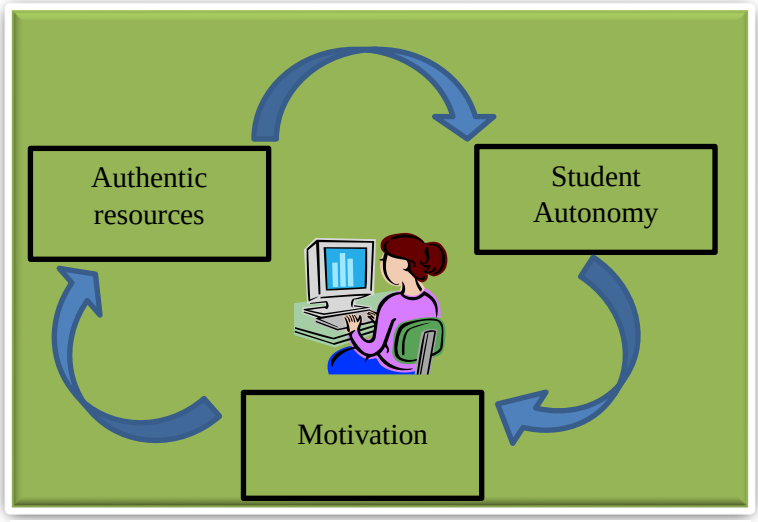


Figure 2. Interaction between authenticity, students' autonomy and motivation (Vaiciuniene & Uzpaliene, 2012, p. 193)

This figure illustrates how autonomy develops motivation and motivation leads students to learn through authentic resources which further affects their autonomy. It could be argued that the arrows should go both ways in the diagram above as the literature (discussed in the following section) has shown that motivation is the prerequisite for autonomy, and those having autonomy would learn by using authentic resources, resources

which are believed to increase students' motivation. This diagram raises the issue of whether or not teachers introduce and employ authentic learning resources in their classes when they are required to promote learner autonomy, as previous research suggests that teachers prefer to depend on textbooks (Sukyadi & Mardiani, 2011). It is unclear how and when teachers use authentic materials.

The diagram also suggests that ideally when students have autonomy and motivation they are likely to use the internet to access authentic materials independently. But autonomous learners are also able to learn by utilizing any available resources that they find in their surroundings such as texts, places and people.

Given the relationship between autonomy and motivation and learning resources presented by Vaiciuniene and Uzpaliene (2012) above, the following sections discuss how motivation and learning resources contribute to the development of autonomy.

2.5 Motivation and Autonomy Development

Motivation and learner autonomy are needed for successful language learning although there are conflicting views about which one leads to the other. According to the diagram proposed by Vaiciuniene and Uzpaliene (2012) above, autonomy provides learners with motivation to engage in language learning. Promotion of learner autonomy may be a useful strategy to motivate language learners (Dörnyei, 1994). Learner autonomy development is a requirement for government funded language courses in Ireland (Integrate Ireland Language and Training (IILT)) in the belief that "autonomous learners are motivated, focused and successful learners" (Little, 2007a, p. 9). In this context, learner autonomy is perceived to enhance motivation.

However, Paiva (2011) and Littlewood (1996) argue that motivation is the prerequisite for autonomy. Lau (2013) found that Chinese teachers implemented self-regulated learning when they observed that their secondary school students were able and highly motivated and they felt hesitant to do this when they perceived their students' academic ability and motivation as low. These teachers appeared to regard motivation as a prerequisite for autonomous language learning. M. Lamb's (2004) study also revealed that it was the motivated language learners who engaged in autonomous learning. In this regard, motivation can be seen as leading to autonomy.

Motivation can be perceived as the reasons underlying people's actions and these reasons vary from person to person. Motivation also explains why, how long and how hard people act in a particular way (Dornyei, 2014). In language learning, it is "the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes

toward learning the language" (Gardner, 1985, p. 10). Motivation is also conceptualized as the energy and drive that students use in learning, doing effective work, and achieving goals based on their personal potential, as well as the behaviours resulting from it (Martin, 2002). Motivation can be divided into intrinsic and extrinsic depending on its sources. Intrinsic motivation is "doing something for its own sake" while extrinsic motivation is "the pursuit of an instrumental goal" (Reiss, 2012, p. 152). Ryan and Deci (2000) differentiate intrinsic and extrinsic motivation by referring to the former as "the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfaction" (p. 56) and the latter as doing an activity "to attain some separable outcome" (p. 60). In the context of education, Lepper, Corpus and Iyengar (2005) agree that interests or curiosity underlie intrinsic motivation, while pleasing the teacher or achieving good grades underlie extrinsic motivation. In terms of long-term goals for learning a language, motivation can be divided into instrumental and integrative. The first deals with functional goals while the second deals with one's own goal to interact with the community of the target language (Thornbury, 2006).

Students may have different types of motivation which affect the amount of effort they put into their language learning. Indonesian high school students, for example, have been found to demonstrate more integrative than instrumental motivation for studying English. The students in Liando et al.'s (2005) study reported wanting to interact with English-speaking communities rather than just to pass examinations. Iranian university students, on the contrary, demonstrated instrumental motivation. They appeared to learn English not to gain language mastery but to achieve high grades in English examinations (Shaikholeslami & Khayyer, 2006). To pass examinations these tertiary students only needed to master course materials given by their teachers but to achieve language mastery, it would have been necessary to search for learning resources outside those prescribed in the language course. Thus it seems that those having intrinsic motivation to master English were likely to put more effort into their learning, including into learning independently, than those who only wanted to pass examinations.

The literature has shown that motivation affects autonomy development and similarly autonomy affects the level of motivation. It is likely that the promotion of one of them requires the development of the other. M. Lamb's (2011) study indicates an association between high motivation and autonomous language learning and both require students to have a clear vision of a future English-using self. This suggests that teachers, including those in Indonesian contexts who are expected to promote autonomy, may need to simultaneously motivate their students. M. Lamb's study also revealed that the learning

success of Indonesian learners demanded not only high levels of autonomy, but also access to relevant learning resources. M. Lamb's finding is similar to what Vaiciuniene and Uzpaliene (2012) suggest in their diagram where resources affect the development of autonomy. In this regard, the promotion of learner autonomy indicates the need to take into account the availability of learning resources in the context where autonomy is being promoted.

2.6 Learning Resources and Autonomy Development

Although studies suggest that autonomy can be developed within contexts where there are limited resources such as in Sri Lanka (Fonseka, 2003) and in Africa (Kuchah & Smith, 2011), learning resources contribute greatly to autonomy development. Benson (2013) argues that access to learning resources such as people, texts and media affects the development of learner autonomy. A study of the use of social learning spaces in a Japanese university seems to reflect this argument. Japanese students were found to join non-compulsory English classes, attend events, socialise with friends and conduct independent learning at the English Café (Murray, Fujishima, & Uzuka, 2014). This café was intended to support autonomous language learning and provided a lot of English materials such as DVDs, magazines, newspapers, laptops computers and learning software programs. All interaction and communication in this café was conducted in English. The Japanese learners visiting this cafe had the chance to develop their autonomy in learning English as they could both learn independently and interact with other students to practise their English, share their feelings and experiences, or get support for their learning.

Access to technology is also believed to support the development of learner autonomy by facilitating self-directed learning (Gremmo & Riley, 1995). In other words, learners can become autonomous and attain educational goals through access to internet learning resources (Reinders & White, 2011). This idea is supported by Chik and Briedbach's (2014) findings that the use of a wiki site, skype video conferencing and Facebook group facilitated interactions between Hong Kong and German learners. A wiki site was used by these EFL students to share and edit language learning histories. Students could post texts along with videos or visuals as well as reflections on the process of English learning. The learners then exchanged questions or commented on others' language learning histories. Facebook was used to discuss examinations, textbooks and school experiences along with the sharing of photos and video links where popular cultural texts were exploited by both groups. The participants reported that they used texts from pop culture as resources and they gained access to texts from both traditional mass media and

online digital sources as a result of creating their individual learning spaces. The use of technological resources (chatting with foreigners online, listening to English music and watching TV) was also a learner strategy for practising and learning English in a study conducted in The United Arab Emirates where there was a restriction on personal contact between males and females (Palfreyman, 2014).

The studies above show how technology has the potential to facilitate autonomous language learning and this supports Lai, Yeung, et al.'s (2015) idea that students need support to become autonomous learners who can use technology for learning outside the classroom. Chinese tertiary students, for example, acknowledged that their teachers influenced their selection of learning materials and activities for out-of-class learning (Lai, Zhu, & Gong, 2015). The teachers in this study used their knowledge and expertise to introduce available resources and then help with selecting tasks and materials appropriate to their students' proficiency levels and interests. Thus, teachers can play an important role in introducing suitable extracurricular learning resources such as authentic materials to supplement material from textbooks.

2.6.1 Authentic materials.

There are several definitions of authentic materials. First, authentic materials are "language samples – both oral and written – that reflect a naturalness of form and an appropriateness of cultural and situational context that would be found in the language used by native speakers" (Rogers & Medley, 1988, p. 468). Little, Devitt and Singleton (1994) define authentic materials as any text "created to fulfil some social purpose in the language community in which it was produced" (p.23). Likewise, authentic materials are viewed as texts written in an appropriate target language genre for a target language audience (Crossley, Louwerse, McCarthy, & McNamara, 2007). However, Tomlinson (2012) argues that an authentic text "does not have to be produced by a native speaker and it might be a version of an original which has been simplified to facilitate communication" (p. 162).

From these definitions, there is a consensus that to be considered authentic a text must be created for non-pedagogical reasons rather than for any teaching objectives and it can be made by (and for) either native or non-native speakers (Lee, 1995; Nunan, 1989; Richards, 2001). According to these criteria, there is an unlimited number of authentic resources ranging from everyday objects to easily accessible websites (Berardo, 2006; Vaičiūnienė & Užpalienė, 2010). Students can find authentic texts like newspapers, magazines, TV advertisements, handbooks and manuals, recipes, postcards, telegrams, travel brochures, tickets, timetables, and telephone directories (Crossley et al., 2007, p. 17)

or texts like application forms, announcements, greeting cards, reports, and catalogues (Joy, 2011, p. 8).

There is a long history of using authentic materials in the EFL learning context and a number of debates about their use: Henry Sweet was one of the first linguists who started to regularly use the term *authentic texts* at the end of the nineteenth century (Gilmore, 2007). Authentic materials became popular in ELT in the late 1970s as a result of the introduction of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). CLT is an approach that promotes interpersonal communication in an L2 and emerged as a reaction to teaching decontextualized grammar and translation (Richards, 2001). CLT is characterised by the use of authentic materials in the teaching and learning process as learners are expected to develop strategies to understand the language of real communication through authentic materials (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). On account of this, after CLT was introduced in the late 1970s, teachers began to extend their choice of materials outside the textbook and toward the authentic (Joy, 2011). A long debate, however, has emerged concerning the role of authentic materials and the meaning of being authentic (Gilmore, 2007). There is also disagreement about when and how to use those materials especially as some believe that authentic materials may have to be simplified or may only benefit certain levels of language learners (Guariento & Morley, 2001).

Those who are in favour of the use of authentic materials present strong arguments which are supported by empirical studies. Proponents assert that authentic text use can maintain or increase students' learning motivation (Guariento & Morley, 2001). Authentic texts are also considered more interesting, more motivating and richer in target language input (Little & Singleton, 1991). Mishan (2004) analysed the strength of authentic materials in providing content rich in culture and language, relevance, appropriateness, appeal, and motivational aspects. Besides, they have the benefits of being meaningful, natural and engaging (C. Johnson & Roessingh, 2004). These arguments are supported by the results of empirical studies conducted by Peacock (1997), Huang, Tindal & Nisbet (2011) and Seferoğlu (2008).

Peacock (1997) investigated the effect of authentic materials on learners' motivation and on-task behaviour. The participants were students from two beginner-level classes in an EFL institute at a South Korean university. Textbooks and authentic materials were employed within those classes alternately for seven weeks. The authentic materials ranged from poems, television listings, short articles, a newspaper advice column, an American pop song, magazines to advertisements. The students' motivation was measured

by observing the learners' interest, enthusiasm, activity, persistence with the learning task, concentration and enjoyment during the lessons. The results indicated significant improvement of the learners' motivation and on-task behaviour when authentic materials were used. However, in the interview the students reported that authentic materials were not as interesting as textbooks. The participants were motivated by authentic materials even though they were less interesting. For them, the authentic materials used were difficult and boring. This suggests that in discussing the components of motivation, there was a distinction between learners' interest in the learning materials, and their attention or persistence level in working on tasks.

The use of feature films on digital versatile discs (DVDs) was also found to benefit advanced EFL learners' oral communication at a Turkish university as students reported that they were able to learn language features from the films (Seferoğlu, 2008). Seferoğlu used several activities to integrate films into the programme and these ranged from previewing activities to role-playing. Students were asked to guess about the film before they watched it. After watching the film, their task was answering questions related to particular scenes. The students also kept a vocabulary and pronunciation journal to list the words they learnt and were tasked to write a journal entry for every film watched. Two other tasks covered preparing a film presentation and performing a role play based on the film scenes. All learners indicated their agreement in the survey questionnaire that with these kinds of activities, the use of films provided them with an opportunity to learn how to start and maintain a conversation and to negotiate meaning. They also learnt the language for exclamations and colloquial expressions and non-verbal communication. They believed that their knowledge of native speakers, accents, slang, dialects and vocabulary expressions had been extended and that they had picked up cross-cultural information. These learners also acknowledged that it was enjoyable to learn English through the authentic films used in their classrooms.

ESL teachers from the Kentucky Association for Adult and Continuing Education, the Commission on Adult Basic Education, and the Virginia Association for Adult and Continuing Education in United States were found to use authentic materials to improve their learners' English skills (Huang et al., 2011). The survey analysis of the teachers' questionnaires revealed that these teachers utilized materials related to employment, technology, consumer goods, consumer related services and citizenship and civic participation. Some examples of the materials were job application forms, emails, labels, audio recording, advertisements and videos while some of the activities were searching for

a job, completing an application form, writing a resume, using cell phones to call teachers or friends, doing bank transactions, giving personal information, and reporting emergencies. The study found that these ESL teachers were effective in facilitating students to engage with language uses in real contexts and situations.

The employment of both authentic texts and authentic activities in classrooms has been found to positively affect students' independent learning practices (Purcell-Gates, Degener, Jacobson, & Soler, 2002). This descriptive and correlational study examined the instruction in 83 adult literacy classes in 22 states in the United States and its effect on the learners' literary practices. Data were collected through the use of teacher questionnaires, classroom observations and student interviews. The overall analysis showed that, with the increasing use of authentic materials and activities in the classroom, students reported an increase in their reading and writing activities outside the classroom. This finding strengthens the idea that using authentic materials enhances autonomous language learning.

However, those who reject the use of authentic materials provide similarly strong arguments of the limitations to using authentic materials. First, Nostrand (1989) writes "the fact that a text is authentic does not assure that it gives a true impression unless one adds it to the context it evokes in the mind of a person who lives in the culture" (p. 50) particularly with the use of proverbs. He argues that students may form false impressions when dealing with decontextualized materials from the unfamiliar target language culture. Nostrand advises that this problem can be prevented by providing authentic contexts which clearly position a text within a meaningful setting.

Second, Wallace (1992) claims that the text authenticity, especially the author's purposes in writing a text, is negated when authentic texts are used for pedagogical purposes. Many teachers of beginners believe that authentic materials are unlikely to be usable (Devitt, 1997) and there is a risk that they may demotivate beginners unless the teaching methodology is well chosen (Benavent & Peñamaría, 2011; Guariento & Morley, 2001). Using journals, magazines, company documents, or other sources is sometimes difficult because these materials may present unfamiliar or incomprehensible language and require editing by the teacher to create a fit between the learners and the texts (Benavent & Peñamaría, 2011). Krashen (1994) also argues that exposure to authentic materials is more likely to benefit intermediate learners rather than beginners or advanced learners. Krashen's explanation is "if acquirers rely solely on the informal environment, or readers read only authentic texts, progress at first may be slow, since very little of the input will be comprehensible" (p. 50). Krashen adds that students with a more advanced proficiency

level “will get less i+1 from ‘ordinary’ conversation and general reading” unless they go “beyond ordinary conversational input” (p. 50). These arguments signal the need for careful selection of authentic materials and approaches to suit the learners’ language proficiency level.

Concerns about using authentic materials for beginners remain unresolved. In the past, language simplification seemed to address this issue (Lynch, 1996; Wallace, 1992; Widdowson, 1978). Simplification occurs in all teaching and within FL teaching and it made sense to many teachers to simplify very complicated authentic materials (Wallace, 1992; Widdowson, 1978). However, current scholars like Hyland (2003) argue that when a text is simplified, its syntax and lexis are changed and thus the simplification changes its genre. Simplification also results in a lack of cohesiveness as the texts are shortened by cutting the numbers of word and length of sentences as well as deleting the connectives (Crossley et al., 2007). Simplified texts have therefore been found to have a smaller number of adverbs and coordinating conjunctions (Petersen & Ostendorf, 2007). In other words, many key linguistic and generic cues may be lost if simplification occurs. Hyland (2003) adds that without cues from text cohesion, coherence and rhetorical structure students may fail to gain meaning from texts.

It is possible to reconcile these opposing perspectives and maintain many authentic features of texts. Tasks rather than texts may need to be changed to suit the students’ level of language proficiency (Guariento & Morley, 2001). Presenting multiple tasks with different difficulty levels seems to be an effective way to support learners to read unsimplified authentic texts (Nunan, 1989). Nunan explains that presenting activities where learners have to respond differently is a way to increase the level of task difficulty, particularly when simple texts are used. A similar idea was proposed by Prabhu (1987) who argued that a single task can use language with different complexity levels and consequently the selection of particular tasks needs to take into account both “cognitive complexity and linguistic feasibility” to make sure that they are “difficult but manageable for learners” (p. 94).

Overall, authentic materials have been shown to benefit and enrich language classrooms. As these are available in daily life, they provide opportunities for students to interact with the target language outside the classroom. However, whether teachers introduce and use authentic materials in Indonesian JHS classrooms is still largely unknown. Anecdotally textbooks provided by the government appear to be the most

commonly used classroom resources. The following section discusses textbooks and their use in language classrooms.

2.6.2 Textbooks.

Textbooks are widely used teaching and learning resources. EFL textbooks are also known as course books as there is a tendency for them to serve as the course foundation (McGrath, 2013). Course books are designed to give cohesion to language teaching and learning processes by providing direction, support and specific language-based activities aimed at offering classroom practice for students (Mares, 2003, p. 130). Course books also play other important roles: as a resource for presenting new materials, a source of activities for learner practice and communicative interaction, a reference source for learners on grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation, a source of stimulation and ideas for classroom activities, a resource for self-directed learning or self-access work, a syllabus, and a support for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain in confidence (Cunningsworth, 1995, p. 7). Some of these roles were acknowledged by English teachers in the study conducted by Masuhara and Tomlinson (2008) in which teachers reported that textbooks provided them with teaching resources, and a focus for their lessons. The teachers felt that textbooks were useful in prompting experienced teachers with lesson planning ideas and providing novice teachers with explicit scripts.

As a significant teaching and learning resource, EFL textbooks have many advantages. Among their advantages are that they offer a course structure, a consistent standard, maintenance of quality, varied resources, multiple language samples, efficient materials, training for teachers and an appealing design (Richards, 2001). While using textbooks is "a cost effective way to provide the learner with security, system, progress and revision," it also saves teachers' time and provides teachers with resources throughout the course (Tomlinson, 2012, p. 158). Textbooks also serve as useful administrative tools in that they standardize the courses and enhance their credibility (McGrath, 2013; Tomlinson, 2012).

However, textbooks have weaknesses (Richards, 2001). Their language and content are not always authentic, their content may not meet students' needs, they can undermine teachers' skills and they are costly. In his evaluation of nine textbooks used in Indonesia, Thailand and Vietnam, Dat (2008) found that the textbooks written by local writers employed uncommunicative and inauthentic uses of English. Most of these textbooks emphasised form and gave decontextualized examples of English use which did not show the real purposes of communication. Textbooks produced by Indonesian writers, for

example, contained expressions which were translated inaccurately into English, contained no vocabulary to support discussion, and did not provide guidance and explanation on how to develop communication and writing skills.

In Tomlinson's (2010) analysis of questionnaires distributed to teachers in Vietnam, Malaysia and Harrogate England, he found that teachers perceived the available textbooks as irrelevant to local situations because they were too Western in context and needed adaptation. Similarly, Masuhara and Tomlinson (2008) found global textbooks failed to make connections to local contexts and students' lives. Therefore, students struggled to understand them. These research findings signal the need for careful selection of textbooks to ensure they meet the needs of international students of English.

Even when textbooks are of high quality, the selection process may be challenging for teachers and administrators. In their study of methodological challenges and perspectives, Mocanu and Vasiliu (2012) give the example of how difficult Romanian English teachers found it to choose textbooks and once selected, texts still needed considerable adaptation to suit the national curriculum and the local students.

Besides involving careful selection, textbooks regularly need some adaptation. Teachers may struggle to find textbooks that are appropriate for their context. This means that they are obliged to supplement inadequate or irrelevant materials, or adapt aspects of the textbooks such as the methods, language content, subject matter, balance of skills, progression and grading, and cultural content or images (Cunningsworth, 1995). Without any adaptation, textbooks promoting 'individualistic, aspirational and Western discourses' irrelevant to the local culture have been found to have negative effects on both teachers' professional roles and students' learning result (Forman, 2014). For example, teachers in Turkey found the textbooks from the Ministry of Education to be incompetently prepared and the CD supplementing the textbook was not coherent with the teacher books (Gocer, 2010). The teachers were forced to add or delete parts (activities) of the books (Islam & Mares, 2003).

Yet, adapting the textbook may provide a chance for teachers to guide students to choose supplementary learning resources that better suit their needs and interests (McGarry, 1995). This has the potential to develop students' autonomy in learning and enable them to take advantage of available resources outside the classroom (Waite, 1994). Helping students to learn autonomously outside the class will also allow them to find and personalise content that may be neglected by textbooks. In doing this, teachers are likely to increase students' awareness of language learning beyond the classroom and prepare

students with skills needed in their extracurricular learning (Reinders, 2010). These skills may then enable learners to optimise their skills as autonomous language learners. In short, teachers can both adapt textbooks and enhance their learners' autonomy at the same time. However, whether teachers enact this kind of adaptation in practice is less clear. It is therefore necessary to review literature on current teacher practices to see how autonomy is promoted by teachers in diverse teaching contexts.

2.7 Teachers' Perceptions and Practices of Developing Learner Autonomy

This section reviews studies of teachers' beliefs and practices of developing autonomy. Teacher belief has been defined by M. Borg (2001) as "a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment" and it guides teachers' thinking and actions (p. 186). It is also seen as "an individual's judgment of the truth or falsity of a proposition, a judgment that can only be inferred from a collective understanding of what human beings say, intend, and do" (Pajares, 1992, p. 316). Pajares adds that terms such as perceptions, attitudes, ideology or conceptions are used to refer to beliefs. Although beliefs are considered to lead teachers' actions (M. Borg, 2001; Borko & Putnam, 1996; Woods, 1996), explaining how teachers' beliefs relate to teaching practices is not easy as according to Basturkmen (2012) those two elements relate in a complex way.

The studies on teacher perceptions or beliefs of developing autonomy belong to the field of teacher cognition research and according to Feryok (2010) this field is undertaking its growth. Teacher cognition is defined by S. Borg (2003) as "the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe, and think" (p. 81). It is characterized as "an often tacit, personally-held, practical system of mental constructs held by teachers and which are dynamic – i.e. defined and refined on the basis of educational and professional experiences throughout teachers' lives" (S. Borg, 2006, p. 35). Researching teachers' perceptions is important as what teachers think, believe and know shapes what teachers do and affects the learning opportunities teachers offer their students (S. Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012a). Teachers in different settings with different teaching experiences may understand and implement learner autonomy in different ways.

A number of studies (S. Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012b; Chan, 2003; Joshi, 2011; Reinders & Lazaro, 2011; Wichayathian & Reinders, 2015) have shown that teachers hold positive perceptions of learner autonomy regardless of their educational settings. Teachers from Oman, Hong Kong, Nepal and Thailand acknowledged the importance of learner autonomy signalling that they had a certain level of knowledge about this concept. They

also made an effort to develop it in their classrooms although some of them faced constraints and doubted the success of their practices. The following studies give an overview of how teachers perceived and implemented the practices for enhancing learner autonomy.

Positive teacher perceptions about learner autonomy were reported by S. Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012a) from their mixed-method study conducted in a university language centre in Oman. S. Borg and Al-Busaidi used both questionnaire and interviews to collect the data in Sultan Qaboos University. Their questionnaire consisted of a section on learner autonomy, a section on the desirability and feasibility of learner autonomy, a section about learners and teaching as well as a section gathering personal information. In the first phase of the study, 61 English teachers participated in their survey. Out of those 61 teachers, 42 teachers chose to join the interviews. To select the participants, Borg and Al-Busaidi used stratified random sampling and chose 20 teachers based on their answers to the questionnaire items on teachers' beliefs about students' autonomy level and their teaching experience. Half of the interviews were face-to-face in Oman while the other half were telephone interviews in the UK. Omani EFL teachers had diverse beliefs about the meaning of learner autonomy but most agreed that learner autonomy has a positive influence on language learning success. Teachers also agreed that learner autonomy allows learners to learn more effectively. In the interviews, teachers suggested that for them learner autonomy covers responsibility, control, independence, choice and freedom. They felt that they promoted learner autonomy, but despite this were concerned that their learners were not autonomous. This meant that the teachers reported limited confidence in the feasibility of developing autonomy even though they had a strong desire to do so. In practice, they found their efforts were constrained by factors such as curriculum, learners, resources and teachers. Teachers found limited space and resources offered by the curriculum. Their concerns about the learners' lack of proficiency, autonomy, incentive, contact with English outside the classroom, and personal experience of autonomous learning were cited as constraints. Students were also believed to focus on passing the test and teachers doubted their ability to use learning resources. Teachers themselves lacked autonomy and this appeared to influence them to set low expectations for students' achievement.

Similar teacher perceptions were revealed by Wichayathian and Reinders (2015) whose study of teachers' perceptions using a similar research instrument to the one used by S. Borg and Al-Busaidi above. Their findings demonstrated that teachers in Thailand saw the development of autonomy as the key to language learning success. These Thai teachers

also agreed that autonomy is characterized by both the freedom and the capability of the students in deciding aspects of their learning. However, they did not feel that they were successful in fostering their learners' autonomy and attributed this to learners who resisted the implementation of autonomy. They also reported having limited time to develop learner autonomy as they were expected to prepare students for examinations.

In an earlier study of teachers from Germany, Hong Kong, New Zealand, Spain and Switzerland, Reinders and Lazaro (2011) reached similar conclusions that teachers believed that developing autonomy was a condition for learners' success. However, these teachers perceived that their students did not recognise the importance of developing autonomy. They considered that their learners were reliant on their teachers and unwilling to take any responsibility for their learning. Teachers thought that this was due to students' lack of familiarity with the concept of autonomous learning and assumed that this related to students' lack of experience of autonomous learning in their previous education.

These three studies share similar findings: that teachers' positive perceptions and efforts to develop autonomy were reportedly not shared by their students. Teachers perceived autonomy as important for language learning success but felt that their learners maintained dependence on the teachers. Although the findings are similar in this respect, these teachers cited different reasons to account for their students' dependency. This means that they faced similar problems but the root of the problems may have varied and which signals some complexity surrounding this issue.

In a contrasting study, learner autonomy was perceived positively by both students and teachers in the English Education Department on the University Campus, Kathmandu, Nepal (Joshi, 2011). The study was conducted using a mixed method design where questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were employed to collect the data from 80 students and six teachers. The students recognized the importance of autonomy for their learning and they believed that a lot of learning could be done autonomously. These students had a high awareness of their learning and their ability to learn, they made decisions, set goals for their learning and they used their free time to use English. The teachers also believed that better language proficiency and performance could be achieved through autonomous learning. Consequently, teachers encouraged learners who were perceived to have limited autonomy to learn autonomously by collaborating with friends, searching for information from books independently, and finding strategies to make themselves autonomous. Teachers suggested that their more autonomous learners maintain their autonomous learning by cooperating with friends and helping less autonomous friends

to improve their autonomy. These teachers seemed to understand that their students had different levels of autonomy and therefore they differentiated the suggestions based on what students needed to develop their autonomy.

There were also cases where teachers' positive perceptions to develop autonomy were offset by a disposition to maintain control over the classrooms. This was shown by Hong Kong teachers who were very positive about the importance of autonomy but wished to maintain control in the classroom (Chan, 2003). Turkish teachers indicated similar teaching preferences. Balçıkanlı (2010) recruited 112 student teachers from the ELT Department of a Turkish university to participate in a survey. The majority of these student teachers viewed learner autonomy as an essential skill for learners. They agreed that students should be involved in both materials selection and decision-making about teaching methodology, classroom management, learner training and learner strategies. However they disagreed that students' should be involved in determining the learning time and place or in choosing textbooks. This indicates that these student teachers still wanted to control some aspects of learning. In this study the autonomy given to students was balanced by the teachers' desire for control.

Other studies reveal that teachers felt unprepared to promote learner autonomy even though their students indicated their readiness to exercise autonomy. Lai, Yeung, et al. (2015) conducted a qualitative study by interviewing 10 teachers and 15 learners from a university in Hong Kong. They found that teachers only wanted to play a small role in promoting autonomous learning especially when this involved preparing students to use technology for learning outside the classroom. They worried about their limited ability to support their students and overestimated their students' expertise in accessing ICT. Learners, however, expected teachers to play a greater role in supporting them to learn autonomously. Learners acknowledged that they needed teachers' recommendations for technological resources and they expected teachers to share strategies, both metacognitive and cognitive, to use those resources. This may be an example of teachers perceiving that autonomy only relates to "institutional and classroom learning arrangements within established curricula" (Benson, 2008, p. 15). Thus these teachers may not have felt responsible for developing their learners' autonomy outside the classroom. A sense of unreadiness was also found in the Japanese context. Nakata (2011) used questionnaires to survey 74 teachers followed by a focus group interview with four teachers. He found that these EFL high school teachers valued developing autonomy in both teachers and students in theory. However, in practice, the teachers were unprepared to promote students'

autonomy citing examinations and work pressure as the main constraints. Some teachers perceived helping learners to set their own learning goals as unrealistic in their context. They viewed it as the teachers' job to set learning goals, not the learners'.

Sometimes teachers professed positive perceptions about developing autonomy but they considered that this was contingent on students' ability and motivation. Lau (2013) found that Chinese teachers implemented strategies and instructions relating to self-regulated learning only when they believed that students had strong ability and motivation. Conversely, when they felt that their students had low ability and motivation, teachers felt doubtful about implementing these approaches. Similarly, in Japan, teachers thought that their students needed training because they felt them to be inactive and lacking in autonomy (Murase, 2011). Teachers' concerns about students' capacity to develop autonomy was also found by Akaranithi and Panlay (2007) in Thailand. Thai teachers believed that students could not become independent without a great deal of support and help.

Some other practices of developing autonomy were reported as unsuccessful for various reasons even though teachers appeared to have positive perceptions about the concept of autonomy. In a Turkish high school, learner autonomy was perceived positively and regarded as a prerequisite for effective language learning but the teacher's efforts to develop autonomy in the classroom were unsuccessful (Inozu, 2011). This because students felt uncomfortable and resisted taking more than a passive role in their learning. Students criticised the teacher and wrote in their learning diary that the lesson made them feel stressed, anxious and unsuccessful in their English learning. In this context, the promotion of learner autonomy created disappointment both for the teacher, who felt he had failed to encourage students to become more autonomous, and for students who felt challenged and discomforted by the unfamiliar classroom practices.

Time constraints are also perceived as inhibiting the development of learner autonomy. Some Chinese teachers in Hong Kong secondary schools reported that time constraints prevented them from implementing self-regulated learning and thus only some of them strove to increase their students' levels of autonomy (Lau, 2013). These teachers found that developing students' skills for independent reading took a great deal of time particularly when they tried to change their teaching approaches from transmitting knowledge to facilitating self-regulated learning. This impacted the overall teaching schedule and teachers had insufficient time to spend on developing autonomy unless they cut other core teaching activities.

Another constraint is teachers' limited experience in dealing with the practice of developing autonomous learning. Burkert (2011) reflected on her own experiences in promoting autonomy at tertiary level as challenging and unsuccessful as she had no previous experience of being an autonomous learner. This seems to signal a belief that she would have been better in implementing the practices of developing learner autonomy if her own education had given her the experience of developing autonomy. Besides her lack of experience, she considered the educational system in Austria which focused on testing as unconducive to learner autonomy development. Her practice was also constrained by limited time and few opportunities to select suitable learning materials and activities as these were prescribed by the English department. In addition, under the influence of traditional education, her learners considered her attempts to develop learner autonomy as inappropriate. This was similar to Reinders and Lazaro's (2011) finding that teachers reported that their students did not value teachers' efforts to promote autonomy.

A recent study of learner autonomy was conducted in Iran by Nasri et al. (2015). This investigated whether high school teachers' gender, experience and educational background affected their practices of fostering learner autonomy in their classrooms. This study involved a survey of 88 participants and interviews with five participants. Their statistical findings revealed that gender mattered in the Iranian context but teachers' experiences and degrees did not. Female teachers outperformed male teachers in using certain strategies in their practices of promoting learner autonomy such as in helping learners to evaluate their learning progress, in assisting them to be more self-directed, and in giving students opportunities to share ideas of what to learn in the classroom. In the interview, however, most teachers believed that their gender had no influence on their practice of developing autonomy. They explained that female teachers only taught females and male taught most males. Thus students' (rather than the teachers') gender was likely to account for the differences in teaching practice. In the interview teachers acknowledged that experience played a role in successful autonomy promotion. Length of teaching experience was also believed to contribute to teacher's skill in managing time. In terms of their educational background, teachers stated that their master's degrees were not in the field of learner autonomy and thus were unlikely to affect their practices for developing learner autonomy. Overall, these teachers believed that their practice could be improved if they had more resources and better teacher training as well as more freedom within the syllabus and in designing tests. This finding that teachers believed that teaching experiences makes a difference contradicts Lau's (2013) earlier research. Lau (2013) found that

experienced teachers whose beliefs and practices were consistent with the curriculum directions about self-regulated learning were better equipped to develop learner autonomy. Because these findings are somewhat contradictory, there is a need for further investigation about how teachers' experiences affect their practices of developing learner autonomy.

From the findings above, it appears that teachers in both tertiary and secondary education agree that learner autonomy is important but the actual practices of developing learner autonomy vary. The reasons for these diverse actual teaching practices seem to originate from the different ways of thinking about this concept, different beliefs about its benefits, and how it can be promoted to suit the local situation. This also relates to the educational traditions and culture that affect teachers within their educational settings. Some cultures may see learner autonomy as an important and obligatory element in students' learning but it is not a traditional expectation in other cultures.

These studies suggest that it is necessary to examine contextual factors that influence teachers' beliefs and practices regarding learner autonomy (S. Phipps & Borg, 2009), as contextual factors shape teachers' cognition and practices (Zheng, 2015). Without an analysis of the context, a study of teachers' cognition and practices is flawed (S. Borg, 2006). The following section discusses the roles of contextual factors and some constraints these may have on the development of learner autonomy.

2.8 Contextual Factors and Constraints on the Development of Learner Autonomy

Although there is an awareness of the importance of developing learner autonomy in many educational settings, in practice this may be hindered by various constraints. The studies discussed in the previous section have revealed some examples of the constraints teachers faced. This section presents an overview of the contextual factors affecting the development of learner autonomy.

Although autonomy has been set as a goal in many educational policy documents, policies may vary. Educational policy and institutional requirements such as curricula and examinations are two challenges to fostering learner autonomy (Benson, 2000; S. Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012a), as are school curricula, an examination focus and unsuitable textbooks (Reinders, 2010). The obligation to comply with the curriculum and prepare for an examination was evident and blocked teacher practices that might have developed learner autonomy in Hong Kong secondary schools (Benson, 2010b). The pressure of examinations and the focus on testing at the tertiary level also seemed to obstruct practices that foster learner autonomy in Hong Kong (Chan, 2003) and in Austria (Burkert, 2011). These

challenges seem to be exacerbated when teachers prioritise preparation for examinations (Nakata, 2011).

Even though teachers are regarded as crucial agents for developing learner autonomy in the classroom, other constraints come from teachers themselves. One inhibitor arises when teachers insist that it is the learners, not the teachers, who have to change in order to develop autonomy (Dam, 2003). Contributing to this belief may be teachers' personal concerns about losing classroom control, diminished learning efficiency and, lack of order (Trebbi, 2008). In Thailand, for example, teachers worried about losing their power and status when they used self-directed learning to develop learner autonomy (Akaranithi & Panlay, 2007).

Teachers may also question their own autonomy. This seems to relate to the misconception that teacher autonomy is a prerequisite for the development of learner autonomy (Aoki, 2002). Consequently, teachers who feel that they lack autonomy may not feel confident to adopt the approaches for developing autonomy. Teachers' limited knowledge about the pedagogy for autonomy may become an additional barrier to its implementation (Little, 2009a). Teachers may perceive themselves as lacking the pedagogical competence for introducing this concept. This was the view of teachers in Young et al.'s (2007) study who taught spoken language in the English Language Centre at City University in Hong Kong. These teachers felt overwhelmed, lacking in knowledge, and lacking in confidence when they first introduced the practice of independent learning to their undergraduate students. Teachers in Oman are another example of this in that they also had limited expectations of students' achievement and this was reported as inhibiting them from implementing optimal practices for developing learner autonomy (S. Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012b). This reasoning may arise when teachers are unclear about how to develop autonomy and doubt their knowledge and experience for initiating such practices. Confronted by these professional concerns, teachers may fall back on traditional practices. This may result in what Crabbe (1993) describes as teachers' inconsistencies, where teachers discuss autonomous learning but actually enforce their dominance in classroom decision-making.

Some other constraints have been shown to come from students although they are the ones whose autonomy is under development. Students' limited readiness to take responsibility for their own learning was evident in a Thai study (Wichayathian & Reinders, 2015). Students' dependency on teachers and their low proficiency in English have emerged as barriers to developing learner autonomy in Oman (S. Borg & Al-Busaidi,

2012a). Other studies suggest that teachers' perceptions of their students' readiness, as much as students' stated reluctance, is a major inhibitor to implementing autonomy. This was apparent when Thai teachers expressed doubts about their students' ability to develop autonomy (Akaranithi & Panlay, 2007). This can make teachers feel doubtful about the feasibility of promoting learner autonomy with their students (Little, 2009a). This uncertainty about students' capacity to develop autonomy is considered by teachers to be a factor beyond teachers' control. If they believe that autonomy is a foreign innovation, Eastern teachers are especially likely to consider their students to be unsuited to acquiring learner autonomy and therefore hesitate to promote it (Murase, 2011).

In addition to these factors, there has been concern about the way that teachers' experience affects their practice of promoting autonomy. According to Burns and Knox's (2005) qualitative study, teachers' previous experiences as both learners and teachers appear to matter. The teachers in this study retained teaching practices with which they were familiar from both their prior teaching experiences and their learning as students. It is not easy for experienced teachers to stop their "well-established routines and practices", on the other hand, novice teachers may imitate the teaching practices of their seniors, teachers or mentors (Pinter, 2007, p. 118). Novice teachers have more concerns about managing and controlling the classroom (Farrell, 2009). Novice teachers tend to follow rules and prescribed guidelines strictly while expert teachers can act more autonomously and flexibly in their teaching (Tsui, 2003). Comparing the practices of six experienced to six inexperienced teachers in a MA program of ESL program in University of Hawaii at Manoa, Mok (1994) suggests that inexperienced teachers focus on their own behaviour in the classroom while experienced teachers focus on their roles in teaching and their learner's development of interlanguage.

Overall, many factors influence teachers' teaching practices and have the potential to hinder them from putting into practice the beliefs that they hold. This literature shows that multiple elements affect the promotion of autonomy. This complexity influences how each factor interacts with the others to enhance or inhibit implementation. This suggests that multiple factors must be taken into account when implementing new educational practices, and school reform.

2.9 Frameworks Commonly Used in the Studies of Teachers' Beliefs and Practices

The literature in the previous section has shown that there are elements in addition to teachers' beliefs which affect teachers' teaching practices. The language teaching

enacted by teachers is the result of the interactions between teachers' beliefs and those factors. This process can be explained through a diagram or a model as well as a theory.

The use of a theory in a study relates to the building of its theoretical framework. A theoretical framework refers to the use of a particular theory to explain a phenomenon, event or a research problem (Imenda, 2014). The main function of a framework is to help the researcher to check whether the findings are in agreement with the framework or whether the framework can help to explain any discrepancies. Anfara (2008), who also defines a theoretical framework as "any theory which can be applied to the understanding of phenomena", explains that his definition does not include paradigms and neither does it equate to methodological approaches (p. 871). Rather, the term theoretical framework is only used interchangeably with conceptual framework (Anfara, 2008; Parahoo, 2014).

A theory explains 'why' a particular phenomenon happens and a model explains 'how' this particular phenomenon happens, particularly by describing the processes of a phenomenon and provides an explanation of how its components interact (VanPatten & Williams, 2007). In addition to using a theory, phenomena can also be explained through the use of a model. Sometimes researchers use the terms *model* and *theory* interchangeably and many people confused the differences between theories and models (VanPatten & Williams, 2007).

In educational research, common theories include Piaget's learning theory, Vygotskian sociocultural learning theory, socio-cognitive theory, ecological systems theory, and complexity theory. Among those theories, Piaget's learning theory, Vygotskian sociocultural theory of learning, socio-cognitive theory and complexity theory are concerned with human cognition. The learning theories proposed by Piaget and Vygotsky explain the cognitive development of a child in learning language while socio-cognitive theory and complexity theory are concerned with human cognition in relation to actions and other factors affecting people's cognition.

The following section discusses two theories and two models which have been used in the studies of teachers' cognitions.

2.9.1 Socio-cognitive theory.

Social cognitive theory presents a model of interaction among environmental events, personal factors and behaviour which shows reciprocal causation (Bandura, 1986). Bandura adds that inner forces and external stimuli do not automatically drive human action. Rather, the interactions of the three elements above, environment, personal factor, and behaviour, determine people's actions. Within this theory, the human mind is viewed

as “generative, creative, proactive, and reflective, not just reactive” (Bandura, 2001, p. 4). This theory views people as being influenced by their self-efficacy or beliefs about their ability to complete a particular task. Without believing that they are capable of achieving a positive result, people may have less drive to attempt particular activities and they may lack perseverance when confronted with obstacles (Bandura, 2001).

Socio-cognitive theory uses an agentic perspective of human development, adaptation and change (Bandura, 2002). According to Bandura people have three types of agency: personal, proxy and collective. People exercise their personal agency individually and use this to influence themselves and their environment. However when they are unable to control social situations and institutional practices they use proxy agency to secure the targeted result by influencing others to act for them. On other occasions, people need to work together to achieve the desired outcomes through collective agency. In other words, personal agency is used when people enact personal control to complete a task, while proxy agency is used when people can get someone of higher capability to accomplish the task for them, and collective agency are used when people need to work interdependently and collaboratively to accomplish tasks which they have no ability to do alone.

The ‘social’ part of this theory is used to signal the recognition of the environmental origin of both human thought and action and the ‘cognitive’ part signals how cognitive processes contribute to both action and motivation (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003). Stajkovic and Luthans add that the relationship among person, environment and behaviour does not necessarily suggest a symmetry in strength of the bidirectional influences. Humans are seen as having capabilities which affect and influence that relationship, namely symbolizing, forethought, vicarious learning, self-regulation and self-reflection (Bandura, 1986; Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003). Through these capabilities human cognitive motivational processes operate to initiate, execute and maintain a particular behaviour (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003). The capabilities concerning self-reflection and self-reaction also make people capable of exercising their control over thoughts, feelings, motivation, and action (Bandura, 1991). Socio-cognitive theory says that expectancies about environmental cues, the consequences of their action and their own competence along with the incentive of the outcome determine people’s actions (Rosenstock, Strecher, & Becker, 1988).

2.9.2 Model of teacher’s cognition.

There are models which can be used to explain how teacher cognition affects classroom practices. S. Borg (2006, p. 283), presents a model showing the relationship between teachers’ cognition, classroom practices and contextual factors:

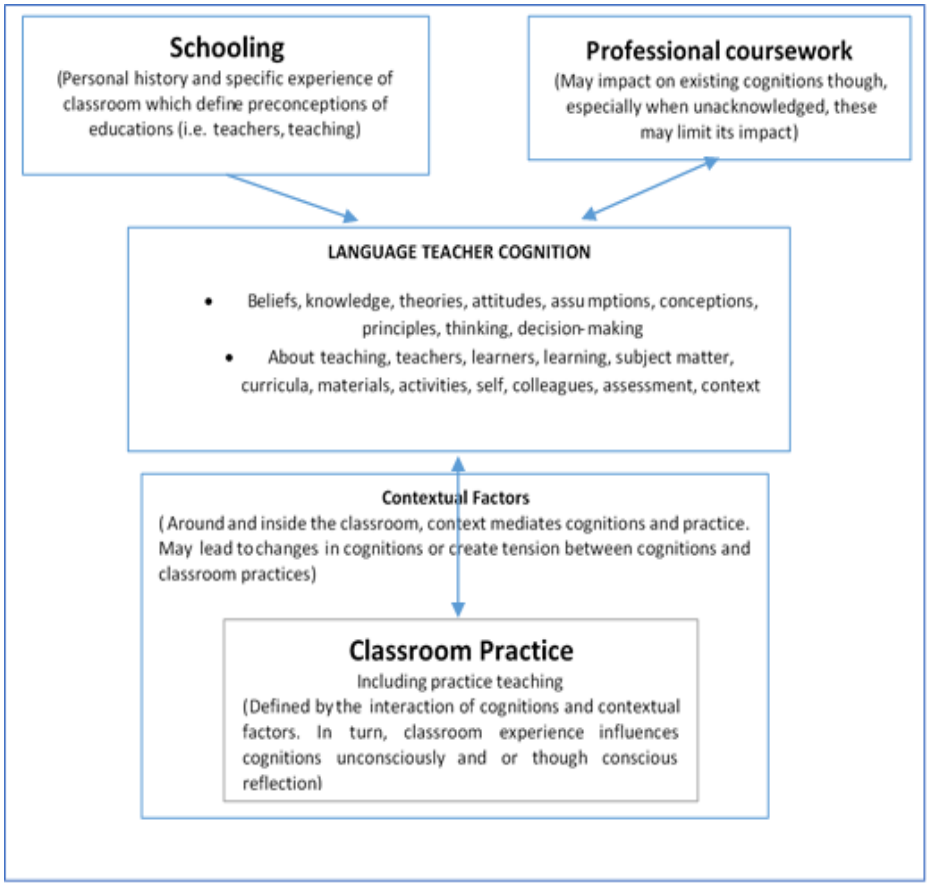


Figure 3. Elements and process in language teacher cognition (S. Borg, 2006, p. 283)

This diagram theorises that teachers' beliefs, which are affected by their schooling and professional coursework, influence and are influenced by classroom practices. S. Borg adds that teachers' cognitions are "highly context-sensitive" too (p. 272). His diagram suggests that studying teachers' cognitions should include studying the elements shaping them as well as interactions that include the influences and roles of the contexts such as those around and inside the classroom.

2.9.3 Complexity theory.

Complexity theory is used to study phenomena which are considered to be a complex system. Complexity theory focuses on the dynamic interaction among a number of elements within the system and provides an explanation of "how the interacting parts of a complex system give rise to the system's collective behaviour and how such a system simultaneously interacts with its environment" (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008a, p. 1). Complexity theory can also be said to focus on change (Byrne, 2005) or the development of the system over time (De Bot, 2008) as it highlights the interactions among the elements of a system (Radford, 2006). It also illustrates how order emerges in the system (Beeson & Davis, 2000; Burnes, 2005). Burnes (2005) suggests that "one of the most significant

findings of complexity theorists is that, even in the most complex systems, the emergence of order manifests itself through a process of self-organization" (p. 80). This means that complexity theory has the potential to uncover order or patterns within a particular complex system. The systems which are viewed from the perspective of this theory do not develop in a "linearly predictable manner" (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008a, p. 4).

Complexity theory focuses on the components that characterise a complex system:

a. A complex system has many elements

The presence of many elements is one of the characteristics of a complex system (Cilliers, 2002). Cameron and Larsen-Freeman (2007) explain that a complex system consists of elements or agents which interact and work on self-organization to create patterns. Dornyei (2014) also believes that to be classified as complex, a system must have two or more elements connected with each other, and these elements undergo independent changes over time. In the context of language teaching, the relationship between beliefs and classroom practices can be considered complex (Basturkmen, 2012). Furthermore, language teaching processes result from the interaction between cognition, context and experience (S. Borg, 2006), where cognition, context and experience can be considered interdependent elements within the language teaching system. For Baker (2014), the ESL classroom is a place where the knowledge and beliefs of the teachers intersect with the behaviour of students, suggesting that the elements within the system include teachers' knowledge, beliefs and also students' behaviour.

b. The elements within a system create dynamic and non-linear interactions

Multiple elements create non-linear and dynamic interaction, and this interaction is a characteristic of a complex system (Radford, 2006). Radford further explains that while "factors are seen to interact in a causal relationship, the effects do not necessarily relate proportionally to the cause, and few factors may interact with many and many may interact with few" (p. 177). This signals that complex systems have many elements which interact in a dynamic and non-linear way (Burns & Knox, 2011; De Bot, 2008; Radford, 2006) and therefore create non-linear patterns. Non-linear here again means that "the effect is disproportionate to the cause" (Larsen-Freeman, 1997, p. 143). S. Borg (2006) defines teacher cognition as "an often tacit, personally-held practical system of mental constructs held by teachers and which are dynamic - i.e. defined and refined on the basis of educational and professional experiences throughout teachers' lives" (p. 35). Similarly, Feryok

(2010) explains the characteristics of teacher cognition as being dynamic. This openness to change to contributes to the development of cognition as teachers gain experience or further education. Language teaching also has dynamic and non-linear interactions between cognition and teaching practices (S. Borg, 2006), as practices and beliefs are not always consistent.

c. A complex system is open

A complex system is open (Ahmadian & Tavakoli, 2011; Larsen-Freeman, 2007, 2012). This means that 'energy' and 'matter' can enter into the system (Larsen-Freeman, 1997, p. 144). This may also mean that external influences can affect the system and its behaviour. Cilliers (2002) explains that open systems are systems which interact with the environment. He gave an example of an open economic system which works under the influences of the political system, society stability, technology and many other factors. From this example, we can present an educational system as an open system which operates within the influence of national policy, political, and economic situation, globalisation, technology advancement, and local factors. Larsen-Freeman (2012) adds that "because the systems are open, what arises may be in nonlinear relation to its cause. In other words, an unexpected occurrence may take place at any time" (p. 205).

d. A complex system is self-organizing

Another characteristic suggests that a complex system is self-organizing (De Bot, 2008). This self-organization results from the interactions of the system's elements (Cameron & Larsen-Freeman, 2007). Systems are self-organizing in that behaviour patterns emerge from the interactions happening in the system (Burnes, 2005). Feryok (2010) suggests that "the meaning that teachers attach to their practices is how their cognitions self-organize" (p. 277).

e. A complex system is nested

A complex system is also nested (Burns & Knox, 2011; De Bot, Lowie, & Verspoor, 2007). This means that the systems are interrelated within other systems, either larger macro systems or smaller subsystems (Günther & Folke, 1993). For example, Feryok (2010) adds that apart from teacher cognition, language teaching consists of other complex systems such a students' cognition, language itself and educational systems.

f. A complex system is sensitive to the initial condition

A complex system is dependent on the initial condition (De Bot et al., 2007). This can be explained by the idea that a little difference in the initial stage may bring huge effects in the "long run" (De Bot et al., 2007, p. 8). This phenomenon was originally introduced as "the butterfly effect" (Larsen-Freeman, 1997, p. 144) by meteorologist Lorenz to indicate that a small influence from within a local environment may greatly affect the global weather (De Bot et al., 2007). For example, a "butterfly flapping its wings in one part of the word, can have a large influence on meteorological conditions somewhere else" (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008b, p. 201). Sanger and Giddings (2012) interpret this by suggesting that "small changes in a complex system may lead to large unpredictable changes over time" (p. 373). An example presented by Feryok (2010) is that her participant's knowledge gained from her graduate TEFL program had led her to consider familiar practices in her teaching.

These elements are the characteristic of complex systems. They were originally proposed by Larsen-Freeman (1997) who explains that the systems are "dynamic, complex, non-linear, chaotic, unpredictable, sensitive to initial condition, open, self-organizing, feedback sensitive and adaptive" (p. 142). For Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008a), "chaos does not mean complete disorder, and complexity does not mean complicated" (p. ix). Chaos means unpredictability as the results of the interactions within the systems cannot be predicted by employing mathematics formula (De Bot, 2008). These characteristics were refined further by Cilliers (2002, pp. 3–4) who suggests that complex systems have many elements, dynamic interactions, rich interactions, no linearity, loops in interactions, and are open to evolving through time.

In addition, complexity theory requires context to be emphasized in the study of a complex system. The context, according to Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008b) can also be complex, dynamic and adaptive, and language learning context can include learners' cognitive context, cultural, social and pedagogical context, as well as physical and socio-political environment which affect teachers' and learners' role and relationship. The context is considered as an element of the complex system too (Larsen-Freeman, 2012).

2.9.4 Model of teacher cognition as a complex system.

When teacher cognition is seen through the perspective of complexity theory, many elements such as explicit and implicit beliefs, core and peripheral beliefs and other beliefs can be distinguished. These beliefs interact with each other and also with the context and teaching practices. One scholar who regards teachers' cognition as a complex system is Zheng (2015).

Zheng's case study examined the teaching approaches of six EFL teachers in five state secondary schools in Chengdu, Sichuan Province in China. These teachers used similar textbooks and followed similar teaching guidelines from the national curriculum. The data were obtained through the use of semi-structured interviews, classroom observations and stimulated recall interviews. The teachers were observed between seven to nine times for a particular unit of teaching and each observation was followed by a stimulated recall. Despite using similar textbooks and guidelines, Zheng found that there were variations in teachers' beliefs about EFL, EFL teaching, EFL learning, EFL learners and their role as a teacher which resulted in diverse practices. She also found that teachers' beliefs were dynamic, non-linear, and open. There were also tensions in teachers' beliefs. For example, these teachers' existing beliefs were in conflict with the new requirement of the curriculum which required them to teach in a more communicative way. Their use of a grammar-translation approach changed in some ways to fulfil the curriculum requirement. However, expectations from school principals, students' parents and students to achieve high scores in the examination limited teachers' efforts to adjust to a new way of teaching. It meant that teachers often had to switch from one approach to another approach, from one role to another role depending on classroom situations, conforming to the curriculum guidelines when possible and leaving them when it was too hard. Sometimes teachers' practices changed but their beliefs remained the same and sometimes they could change their beliefs but they maintained the same practices. Zheng found that teachers' past experience in learning and teaching contributed to teachers' beliefs and the enactment of particular practices. However, factors in the different context levels (macro-context, exo-context, and micro-context) also contributed significantly to changes in their teaching beliefs and practices. Contextual factors could either facilitate or limit teachers' efforts to implement their beliefs into their practices. Through her study, it was evident that teachers' beliefs, practices and contextual factors interacted in a complex way and Zheng recognised teachers' cognition as a complex system and highlighted the interconnectedness of the

elements affecting teacher beliefs, including the contexts with which teacher beliefs co-adapted.

Zheng framed the language teachers' beliefs as a complex system:

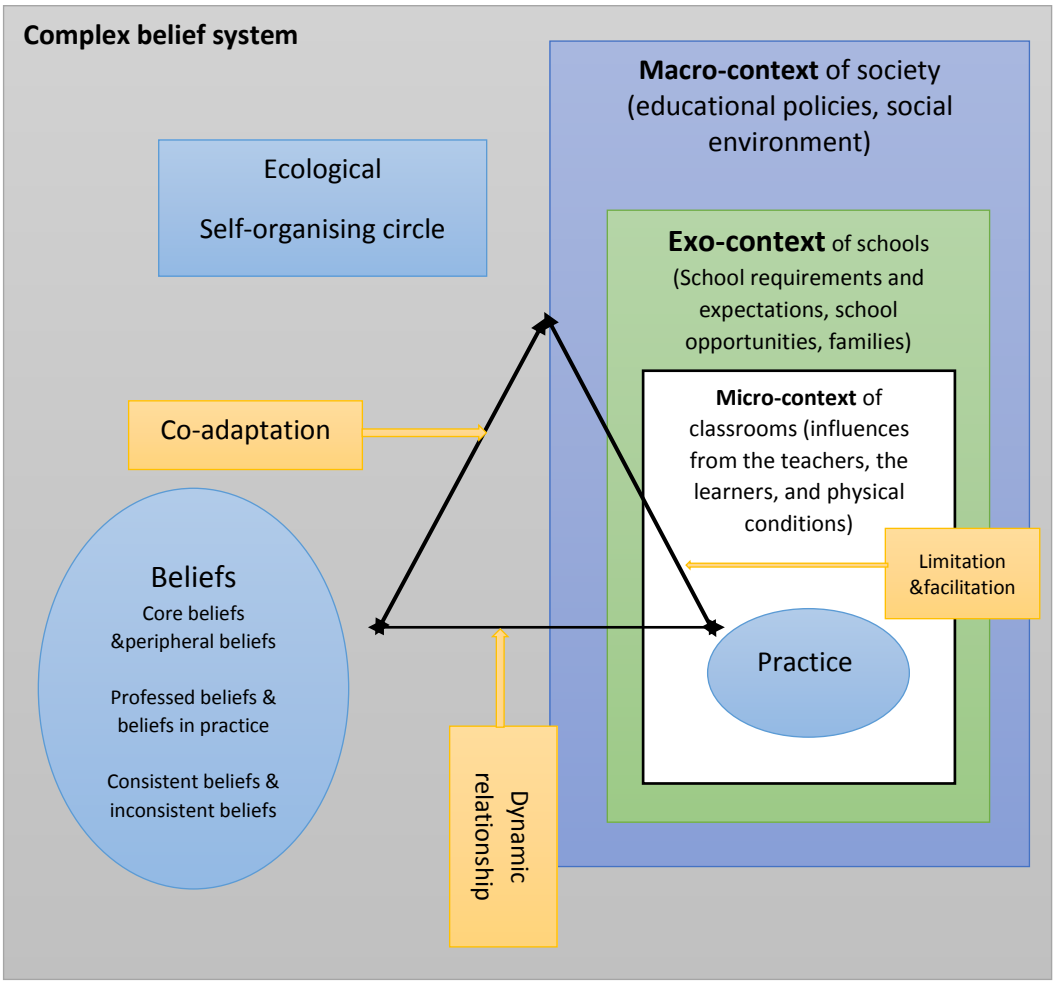


Figure 4. Language teachers' complex belief systems (Zheng, 2015, p. 157)

Zheng's model draws on the notion of the ecology of human development devised by Bronfenbrenner (1996). Bronfenbrenner introduces various contexts or settings through his terms of microsystem, mesosystems, exosystems and macrosystems. He defines a microsystem as a "pattern of activities, roles, and interpersonal relations experienced by the developing person in a given setting with particular physical and material characteristics" (p. 22). *Setting* means any place where individual can have face-to-face interaction. A mesosytem is defined as comprising "the interrelations among two or more settings in which the developing person actively participates (such as, for a child, the relations among home, school, and neighbourhood peer group; for adult, among family, work and social life)" (p. 25). Further, the exosystem is seen as "one or more settings that do not involve the developing person as an active participant, but in which events occur

that affect, or are affected by, what happens in the setting containing the developing person" (p. 25) while the macrosystem is used to define the "consistencies, in the form and content of lower-order systems (micro-, meso-, and exo-) that exist, or could exist, at the level of the subculture as a whole, along with any belief systems or ideology underlying such consistencies" (p. 26). These terms are adapted in Zheng's framework to explain the contextual influences on a teacher's practices within the complex system of beliefs.

Feryok (2010) suggests that a single theoretical framework is so far unavailable to be applied in a study of language teacher cognition. Any theory which can explain the phenomenon being studied can be used as a theoretical framework and the study of teacher cognition is open to any combination of theories and possibly models in their theoretical framework. In this regards, this study also had the chance to use the combination of a theory and a model like those discussed above. As this study was conducted with the perspective that teachers' cognitions were complex (see Chapter 3), the use of complexity theory and its model offered the potentials to explain the findings.

To conclude this chapter has discussed relevant issues around the concept of learner autonomy and its development along with the review of the previous studies in various educational contexts. There is a number of definitions and terms used to explain learner autonomy and this is made complex by the availability of various types and purposes in developing it. Teachers also perceived the concept differently and the practices in different countries yielded variegated results due to various contextual and non-contextual constraints. As has been suggested in this chapter that learner autonomy is a developing concept, research on this topic, like this study, can contribute to the field of autonomy by bringing new insights to this concept.

CHAPTER III
METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the reasons for using a pragmatic paradigm which underpinned the mixed-methods design in the study. It also presents the details of all stages taken in the data collection process in each phase of the study with its particular instruments, participants and settings. An overview of the data analysis process at the end of each stage and the triangulation of data at the end of the study was also provided. Some limitations of this study in relation to the data collection and data analysis processes are discussed simultaneously in those sections. This chapter ends by addressing the issue of validity and reliability of the findings in the study.

3.1 Research Paradigm

People bring their beliefs and assumptions to their research and these are sometimes manifested in their views about the sorts of problems to study, what sorts of questions to ask, or how to collect the data (Creswell, 2013). These beliefs are called paradigms (worldviews). Morgan (2007) defines paradigms as "shared belief systems that influence the kinds of knowledge researchers seek and how they interpret the evidence they collect" (p. 50). R. B. Johnson and Christensen (2012) suggest that a paradigm is "a worldview or perspective about research held by a community of researchers" (p. 31) which develops not only from assumptions shared by the researchers, but also from shared concepts, values and practices. But in a simpler way, they add, a paradigm can just be defined as "an approach to thinking about and doing research". The perspective towards research that people have will influence all of the processes conducted within a research project.

According to Creswell (2014) research paradigms fall into the categories of post-positivism, constructivism, transformation, and pragmatism. Each paradigm covers assumptions towards the nature of reality (ontology), how the researcher knows what she or he knows (epistemology), the role of values in the research (axiology) and the methods used in the research process (methodology) (Creswell, 2013; Greene & Hall, 2010). Based on the researcher's underlying assumptions, research paradigms proceed towards different orientations. Post-positivism has a theory-verification orientation while constructivism has a theory-generation orientation. The transformative paradigm is change-oriented and pragmatism has a real-world practice orientation (Creswell, 2014).

This study arose from my belief as the researcher that teachers' perceptions are complex as they exist cognitively and thus they are hard to access directly. Different

approaches and multiple research instruments would be needed to capture teachers' perceptions. Consequently, this study used a pragmatic paradigm in which, according to R. B. Johnson and Christensen (2012) the research design was arranged and carried out on the basis of what would provide the best supports in addressing the research questions. Pragmatism was the best fit for this study in that it allows the adoption of multiple and complementary sources of data (Creswell, 2014; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). In other words, pragmatism is both pluralistic and oriented on "what works" in practice (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 43).

This study also used pragmatism as the research questions focused on a real world phenomenon facing English teachers in the Indonesian JHS context: the new curriculum required teachers to develop students' autonomy. Autonomy has been articulated largely within the framework of European cultural discourses (Benson, 2011) and thus there was potential for cultural differences in interpreting this concept to challenge these Indonesian teachers as they sought ways to implement autonomy in their classes (Palfreyman, 2003).

Pragmatism allowed me to start with my research questions and then select the methods appropriate to address those questions (Punch, 2014). By adopting a pragmatic paradigm more opportunities to understand the problem were available as any possible approaches could be used to answer the research questions. This led to the selection of a mixed-method design which is discussed in the following section.

3.2 Research Design

Within a study using a pragmatic paradigm, the research questions provide the basis for the research design (Aaron, 2011; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2010; Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). My research questions focused on teachers' perceptions of learner autonomy and how their perceptions were reflected in their teaching practices. Teachers' general perceptions of learner autonomy were studied through quantitative methods by using a large sample of teachers, while qualitative methods with a smaller sample of teachers were used to explore their perceptions as well as to look for congruence between what they said and what they practised. This pragmatic combination led to a mixed-methods design. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2010) describe the nature and general characteristics of a mixed-method study as one where there is methodological eclecticism, a term reflecting the freedom to use the methods in combination to best answer the questions.

R. B. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) define mixed methods research as "the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study" (p.

17). However, Creswell (2010) argues that mixed methods is not merely the collection of both data types, rather the data must be connected, integrated, or linked. This is done to achieve a more comprehensive understanding of the problems being studied, a result that cannot be obtained when only a single method is used (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Flick, 2011). R. B. Johnson et al. (2007) propose that the purposes of combining the elements of both research approaches are to enhance "the breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration" (p. 123). R. B. Johnson and Christensen (2012) also suggest that the use of mixed methods research will improve confidence in the findings. In this sense, therefore, the mixed-methods design enhanced the reliability of the findings showing how Indonesian teachers perceived learner autonomy, and how those perception affected their teaching practices.

The type of the mixed-methods employed was a participant-selection variant of the explanatory sequential design. This means that there were two phases consisting of the quantitative data collection followed by the qualitative data collection but the emphasis was on the qualitative part (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). In this design, the findings of the quantitative stage informed the selection of participants for the qualitative stage of the research (Punch, 2014). The initial quantitative phase was a survey investigating teachers' perceptions of learner autonomy and its development. This phase provided a strong overview of how teachers perceived learner autonomy, a new concept embedded in the curriculum for Indonesian JHSs. The second phase was a multiple-case study looking at how teachers' perceptions were reflected in their teaching practices, and how they saw the potential of their local area for enhancing students' learning autonomy and language skills development. In other words, the quantitative phase established base-line evidence about teachers' perceptions, and the qualitative phase helped me to understand how those perceptions affected individual teachers' practices.

3.3 Phase One: Quantitative Data Collection and Analysis

This section describes the first phase of the study which was a quantitative study. The descriptions of setting, participants, and the survey instrument are presented. This section also describes the processes of collecting and analysing data along with the limitations encountered in those processes.

3.3.1 Setting and participants.

The study was conducted in Magelang Regency, Central Java Indonesia from July to December 2014 and the first data collection took place in the first three months. This regency covers an area of 1.085,73 square kilometre with a population of around 1.3

million. Within this regency there is a world heritage site named Borobudur Temple where both domestic and international visitors come every day. The large numbers of international tourists has led to an increasing use of English in this area compared to the use of English in non-tourist areas. Traffic signs, brochures, notices, warnings, restaurant menus and information related to the site are given in English.

There were 118 schools (58 state schools and 60 private schools) in this regency. All those schools were administered by the Minister of National Education. Some schools were found to be closed at the time of this study. There were around 200 English teachers and some teachers taught in more than one school. Some teachers even taught in three different schools. Small schools (with less than 100 students) only had one English teacher and bigger schools have two to four English teachers. There was also a big state school which only had one English teacher as the other teacher was on leave.

To determine the number of the participants taking the survey, the sample size formula proposed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) was used. Using this formula, for a population size of around 200 English teachers, the recommended sample was 132. This sample was obtained through convenience sampling or selecting those who were available and willing to volunteer and participate in the study (R. B. Johnson & Christensen, 2012).

There were 21 districts in this regency and 100 schools were targeted for this study. However, the survey was distributed during the accreditation period and at the time when the new curriculum was being implemented. This meant that 21 schools were unable to participate for various reasons ranging from being busy, having lost the research documents, simply refusing, and giving no follow up information after promising to contact me. Thus, the survey participants came from 79 schools with the total number of 145 participants. Those participants came from different kinds of schools: state, *Ma'arif* (Islamic), *Muhammadiyah* (Islamic), Catholic, Christian, and other private schools.

Those schools basically provided a similar educational program and used the government curriculum but some differences existed. The state schools accommodated students with different religious backgrounds while religion-based schools usually accommodated those coming from the same religion. There were also some differences among the school cultures which were reflected in the way the students dressed and prayed. Islamic schools generally required the students to wear a uniform covering all parts of the body, where the male students wore trousers, long sleeved shirts and a Muslim cap while the female students wore a long skirt, long sleeved shirt and a veil or hijab. In state schools, students could choose to wear or not to wear the veil as the students came from different

religious backgrounds. The Catholic, Christian, and the other private schools students wore a common uniform where generally the students wore a short sleeved shirt and short skirt or trousers. The religion-based schools usually added some subjects related to religion and included some religious instruction. Religious belief also guided some practices in the schools, for example, in some Islamic schools male and female students were not permitted to touch each other, and in certain schools, they were not allowed to be taught in the same room. This meant that they divided the students and taught them at different school locations based on gender so that they could not see each other. Before the lessons began, students read the holy Quran or said certain prayers for a time. Both *Muhammadiyah* and *Ma'arif* schools were Islamic schools but some instructions and prayers differed in those schools. I did not observe similar practices at the Christian school. However, this did not mean that there was no praying in this school. Prayers were usually offered early in the morning before the first subject began and in the afternoon when the classes finished. Classrooms in the religious schools also differed in that there were Arabic sentences or prayers on the wall of classrooms in Islamic schools and there was a cross on the classroom wall in Catholic and other Christian schools.

3.3.2 The survey.

The first phase of data collection used a survey to capture a broad picture of JHS teachers' perceptions of learner autonomy. A survey was an appropriate method both to obtain wide-ranging surface level data (Antonius, 2003) and to obtain people's opinions, attitudes and perceptions (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). Employing a survey was also an efficient way to capture a lot of data with minimal expense and efforts (Muijs, 2004). In addition to those benefits, a survey allowed me to obtain accurate and generalizable data because it employed a statistically significant sample of the targeted teacher population (Panacek, 2008). A survey was used in this study both because I wanted to gain a representative view of a large number of teachers' perceptions of autonomy in the context of the new curriculum, and for its advantages of saving time and cost in gathering data.

A questionnaire designed by S. Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012a) was used in this survey. I adopted the first section of their questionnaire and modified the second and third sections (see Appendix 1). This was used both to reveal teachers' general perceptions of learner autonomy and to compare research findings with previous studies using a similar questionnaire within the area of learner autonomy such as those done by S. Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012a) and Wichayathian and Reinders (2015). Permission to use this

questionnaire had been obtained through personal correspondence in April 30, 2014 (see Appendix 2).

Section one of the questionnaire consisted of 37 items with 5 responses scaled from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. Using the Likert scale gave the respondents opportunities to signify their level of agreement with the survey items (Muijs, 2004). Moreover, the use of a rating allowed me to gather not only opinions but also attitudes and perceptions (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011; Wiersma & Jurs, 2009) which suited the purpose of this study.

Section two of the questionnaire captured teachers' understanding of the newest curriculum and their awareness of the learning opportunities in their local area. This section required the teachers to answer two short written questions. The first question assessed teachers' understanding and knowledge of the 2013 English curriculum for Indonesian JHSs. The second question asked them to write about what they saw as learning opportunities for their students' English learning outside the classroom within their regency. The answers were limited to 100 words. The two questions showed whether the English teachers recognized the curriculum requirement to develop learner autonomy and whether they recognized how the learning resources in their local environment might facilitate their students' autonomy development.

Section three captured teachers' demographic data such as gender, age, teaching experience, school types, grade taught, and school distance from Borobudur Temple to allow comparisons among teachers' perceptions to be made. This section provided useful information on teachers' personal information and school background which further helped me understand the context of the study. Following this section, there was a space for the teachers to include their name and email or phone number, but only if the teachers were willing to participate in the next stage of the study. The questionnaires were presented in two languages, Indonesian and English, which teachers could choose. They took 20 – 30 minutes to complete and the majority of teachers (79%) chose the Indonesian questionnaire.

The questionnaires were distributed to Junior High Schools after a research permit was granted by the Agent of Regional Capital Investment and Integrated Licensing (*BPMDPT*) in Magelang Regency. The documents were distributed district by district to make the distribution more practical and manageable. Maps of the research sites are included below.

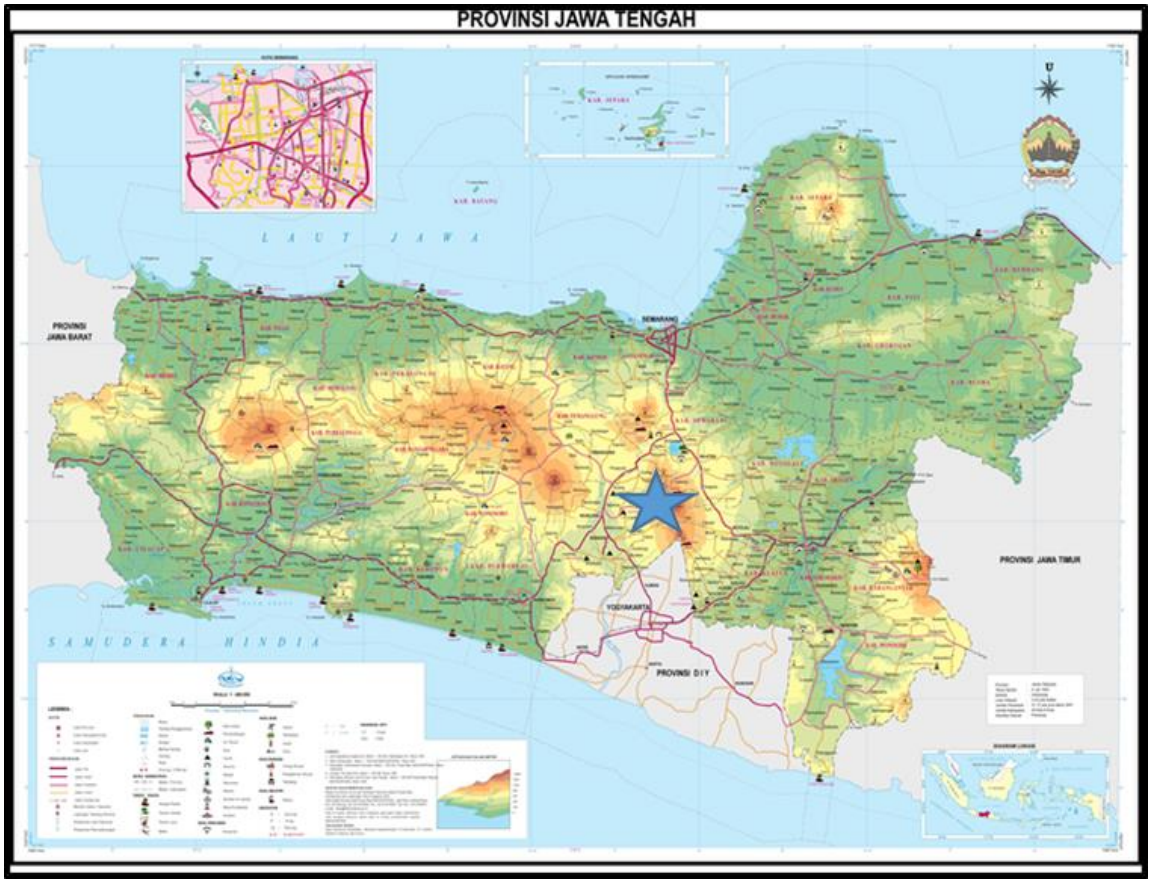


Figure 5. Map of Central Java Province (Board of Geospatial Information of Indonesia, n.d.)

The map of Central Java province is presented to show the location of Magelang Regency. Another official map of the regency follows:

Figure 6. Map of Magelang Regency (Government of Magelang Regency, n.d.)

The regency has 21 districts and I distributed my questionnaires to 17 districts (indicated by the stars) or 81% of the total area of the regency. Each district has from three to twenty four schools. I was unable to reach the other four districts as these geographical areas are hard to reach from my own district, Ngluwar, which is shown at the bottom of the map and I was unfamiliar with them.

Among the 100 information packs I addressed to 100 schools, I could only distribute 90% of them. The other 10% was undeliverable as I could not find seven school locations and the other three schools were closed at the time of my data collection. However, I visited 90 schools in the 17 districts shown on the above map during the first three months of data collection in the initial phase of my study.

As convenience sampling was used, there were no specific criteria to select the participants except their willingness to participate voluntarily in this study. I gave equal opportunity to every English teacher at those schools to participate. I did this by providing enough research documents for every English teacher at each school. In some schools, all teachers participated but in other schools, fewer teachers completed the survey. Some felt that the survey should not ask for voluntarily participation because in Indonesian contexts, people will only do what they are obliged to do. Nonetheless, this study followed the ethical principles that a researcher must not force anyone to participate and therefore participation in the survey was voluntary.

Some English teachers expressed their regret and apologized that they were unable to complete section two. They explained that they had not received any training for the new curriculum implementation and thus were unable to answer my questions. I appreciated this situation and I let them leave the first question of the second section unanswered. Most teachers said that they were willing to complete the survey and would do their best to answer. They apologised for the answers given, and they asked me to forgive them if their answers were not what I was expecting. But then I explained that there was no wrong answer in my study as all the data were all meaningful and all of the answers given would contribute to my study. I recognized that these are characteristics of the Javanese culture. They would never say that their work was good. I was brought up within a similar culture so I understood that as Javanese people, they were brought up to be modest and would apologise even for mistakes that they may not have made.

3.3.3 The analysis of the survey.

The total number of the completed questionnaires was 145 and they were analysed statistically through both Excel and SPSS 22. First, the data were analysed through descriptive statistics. This statistics analysis quantified the characteristics of the data (Walliman, 2006) and spotlighted the numerical features within the data which were of most importance (Antonius, 2003). This analysis aimed at describing, summarizing or making sense of the data obtained in the study (R. B. Johnson & Christensen, 2012). Through this analysis, the mean and standard deviations were shown (Creswell, 2014) along with the frequency distribution which showed both the number of respondents selecting each option given in the rating scale and the percentage of the sample represented by this number (Thompson, 2009). This analysis also provided the basis for participant selection for the second phase of the study as it could generate the score for each survey participant. Through this analysis, the distribution of scores in the survey showed whether the distribution was normal or not (Pallant, 2013).

The information on the normality of the data distribution was important since it would inform any further data analysis. The analysis showed that my data were not normally distributed and this affected the inferential analysis I did. Inferential statistics was used to create inferences about the population based on sample data (R. B. Johnson & Christensen, 2012). Inferential statistics can generate predictions about the population (Cohen et al., 2011) and make generalizations from the sample (Antonius, 2003). I used inferential analysis to compare different groups of teachers to identify any potential differences (Marshall & Jonker, 2011), especially in their perceptions of learner autonomy.

The lack of normality of my data distribution led me to use non-parametric tests to perform the inferential analysis, as advised by Clark and Randal (2011). Another strong reason for the employment of non-parametric tests came from the type of data produced by the Likert scales. Likert scales produce ordinal data which makes non-parametric tests appropriate for their statistical analysis (Allen & Seaman, 2007; Gardner & Martin, 2007; Pallant, 2013; Panacek, 2008). In many cases there is little difference between results from parametric and non-parametric tests because each method is a version of the other method. This means that for every non-parametric method, there is always an equivalent parametric method and vice versa (Singh, 2007). One of the main differences between parametric and non-parametric tests is that the former assumes the normal distribution of the data while the later does not (Cohen et al., 2011; Pallant, 2013). The Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric tests were used to compare the teachers' scores based on the

independent variables ranging from age to school distances. The differences between these two tests were merely in the number of the groups being compared. The Mann-Whitney U test was used to find the differences between the scores of two independent groups, while the Kruskal-Wallis test compared the scores of more than two groups (Pallant, 2013).

First, using the gender as the variable, the respondents were grouped into male and female teachers and their scores were compared by using the Mann-Whitney U test. This test is the equivalent of two independent sample t-test (Cohen et al., 2011; Gardner & Martin, 2007). Those two tests compared the scores of two independent groups except one used a non-parametric test and the other a parametric one.

Kruskal-Wallis tests were then done to reveal the potential differences among teachers of different ages, qualifications, teaching experiences, school types, grades taught, and school distances from Borobudur Temple. Also called the Kruskal-Wallis H test, this test is "the non-parametric alternative to a one-way between-groups analysis of variance" (Pallant, 2013, p. 240). This test is equivalent to a one way ANOVA (Gardner & Martin, 2007) and it produces similar kinds of results as those produced by an ANOVA but the results are rank based (Allen & Seaman, 2007). Another difference is that ANOVA assumes a normal distribution of data while the same assumption is not used in the Kruskal-Wallis test.

The probability value (*p*-value) obtained from the tests was then used to identify whether the null hypothesis (the hypothesis stating that there was no statistically significant differences between the perceptions of different groups of teachers) was accepted or rejected. The *p*-value was compared to the significant level of .05, a value which has been set by convention as the level of significance (R. B. Johnson & Christensen, 2012). If the probability value is less than or equal to the significant level, then the null hypothesis should be rejected, meaning that the group differences of the samples were statistically significant. Conversely, when the probability value is greater than the significant level, then the null hypothesis should be accepted, as the differences among groups are not statistically significant. This rule applied to my statistical analyses.

As the Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney U tests did not show which groups differed from the others statistically (Cohen et al., 2011; Pallant, 2013), follow-up tests were done to show more clearly which group differed from the other or which group score was higher or lower than the others. The tests were done for each independent variable for each significant score, by comparing the means or the median from the groups of the teachers.

The last statistical analyses I did were factor analysis and reliability tests. Factor analysis is "a method of grouping together variables which have something in common" and allow a researcher to discover "where different variables in fact are addressing the same underlying concepts" (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 674). As a technique of data reduction, this analysis took the variables from all 37 items in the questionnaire and summarized them using "a smaller set of factors" (Pallant, 2013, p. 188). Factor analysis serves as a grouping method for the survey items as it presents what Punch (2014) called common factors among the variables. This showed survey items which represented similar concepts. A reliability test was also done to show the Cronbach's alpha which indicated how strong or weak the correlation was among the test items. Croasmun and Ostrom (2011) insist that researchers using Likert-scale should report the Cronbach's alpha coefficients to show the reliability of internal consistency of a questionnaire. This coefficient is between 0 (showing no internal reliability) and 1 (showing perfect internal reliability) (Cohen et al., 2011) and commonly accepted alpha values range from 0.70 to 0.80 (Field, 2009). However the value is influenced by the item number, item inter-relatedness, and dimensionality (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Consequently, the interpretation of the alpha value should be made by considering the numbers of the items (Pallant, 2013). Pallant argues that it is unlikely that an optimal alpha value will be obtained when the number of items is small or less than 10, and therefore reporting the value of the mean inter-item correlation can serve as an alternative.

As an addition to the statistical analysis, content analysis was done to analyse the second section of the questionnaire which generated qualitative data as the respondents had to answer two open-ended questions in their own words (Ballou, 2008). Content analysis is a method used for analysing textual data or texts (Bos & Tarnai, 1999; Forman & Damschroder, 2008; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). The process of analysing the data shared many similarities to thematic analysis except that content analysis allowed the quantification of the data (Vaismoradi, Turunen, & Bondas, 2013) which was relevant for analysing open-ended survey questions (Kondracki, Wellman, & Amundson, 2002). Content analysis was also relevant to be used for reporting the issues commonly found in teachers' responses to my survey questions (J. Green & Thorogood, 2014). The data were organized by using NVivo 10.

Content analysis aims at building a conceptual model, system, map or categories for describing the phenomenon (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). Content analysis is defined by Grbich (2007, p. 112) as a "systematic coding and categorising approach which you can

use to unobtrusively explore large amounts of textual information in order to ascertain the trends and patterns of words used, their frequency, their relationships and the structures and discourses of communication". According to Grbich, among some advantages of content analysis are its ability to simplify documents into enumerative information, and the way it combines qualitative and quantitative approaches in looking at both numbers and their relationship with the context. However, Grbich also claims that employing enumerative approaches alone can result in criticism that content analysis is too positivist-oriented and focussed only on word counts that give neither space nor context for detailed interpretation. In contrast, content analysis requires interpretation of texts and not merely data counting. This corresponds with Berg's argument that content analysis is not a reductionistic, positivistic approach but more of a means for listening to words from texts and understanding the owner's perspectives (Berg, 2007).

Two types of content analysis are quantitative content analysis and qualitative content analysis. Those types of content analysis differ in their coding procedure and their use of counts or tallies (Morgan, 1993). According to Morgan, qualitative content analysis tends to use the data as the sources of codes and the coding procedure involves "broader and more subjective code categories" than a quantitative content analysis which tends to use pre-existing coding systems (p. 115). In terms of counting, Morgan argues that quantitative content analysis uses counts and tabulations to summarize the data and the analysis ends by presenting results in the forms of numbers. Qualitative data analysis, however, does not stop there as the counting is used to guide the next step of pattern interpretation. The counts in the qualitative data serve as a means for "identifying, organizing, indexing, and retrieving data" (Berg, 2007, p. 307).

In this study, qualitative content analysis was used to analyse the data. Qualitative content analysis is defined by Hsieh and Shannon (2005, p. 1278) as "a research method for the subjective interpretation of the context of text data through systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns". This analysis along with thematic analyses belong to descriptive qualitative approaches which apply a low level of interpretation and this differentiates them from grounded theory or phenomenology which employ a higher level of interpretation (Vaismoradi et al., 2013).

The analysis in this content analysis was not straightforward because the codes were constructed at the same time as the data analysis and teachers' various responses were reduced to a number of key issues in a reliable way (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2009). The analysis started by specifying the definitions and coverages of the unit of analysis, a

meaning unit, codes, categories and theme (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). Graneheim and Lundman suggest that a unit of analysis can consist of interview and observation data. In this study, the unit of analysis was the respondents' responses to the survey questions. A meaning unit refers to the "words, sentences or paragraphs containing aspects related to each other through their content and contexts", whereas codes are the labels given to the meaning underlying these units (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004, p. 106). A category is a group of content sharing commonalities (Cohen et al., 2011). A theme refers to "a thread of an underlying meaning through condensed meaning units, codes or categories, on an interpretive level" (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004, p. 107). A category can consist of sub-categories or it can be divided into subcategories and so can a theme be constructed by sub-themes or divided into sub-themes. In this regards, the analysis here refers to what J. Green and Thorogood (2014) call as thematic content analysis.

The process used in this content analysis involved open coding, creating categories and abstraction (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). Open coding was conducted by jotting notes and headings on the texts. I read the data word by word, phrase by phrase, and sentence by sentence to obtain codes (Charmaz, 2014; Cohen et al., 2011). The codes used were the inductive codes which emerge from the data (Forman & Damschroder, 2008a). I chose not to use preconceived categories to allow categories and their names to come from the data (Moretti et al., 2011). In other words, *postcoding*, instead of *precoding*, was used which meant that the codes were developed after the data collection finished and this *postcoding* was based on the categorization and structure of responses which were vary unpredictably (Brill, 2008).

Codes can describe "topics, concepts, or categories of events, processes, attitudes or beliefs that represent human activity and thought" which help the researcher to see a picture of the data and to interpret them (Forman & Damschroder, 2008, p. 48). Coding also refers to the act of "naming segments of data with a label that simultaneously categorizes, summarizes, and accounts for each piece of data" (Charmaz, 2014, p. 111). The coding in this study was done by looking at the manifest content or the surface level of the data through the words used by the participants (Berg & Lune, 2012; Burnard, 1996; Kondracki et al., 2002). Thus I focused mainly on what was explicitly stated by teachers in their answers. As the survey questions asked teachers what they thought and knew about the new 2013 curriculum and what they recognized as learning resources in their local environment, my coding was a kind of list of what teachers mentioned. My codes varied and I did not limit the codes to gerunds expressing actions. This made the coding in this

content analysis different from the coding in the thematic analyses of my interview and observation data.

Once the coding was completed, the codes were put into categories on the basis of how they related and linked to each other (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). The creation of categories aims at generating a means to describe the phenomenon, to increase understanding and produce knowledge, and essentially, the data were put in the categories where further analysis could be done (Cavanagh, 1997). To name the categories, I used content-characteristic words (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). Thus, categories in my content analysis were reflecting the description of content or in Graneheim and Lundman's (2004) words, each category was "an expression of the manifest content of the text" (p. 107). The counting was done with these kinds of manifest contents (Kondracki et al., 2002), both in the codes and categories, as teachers' answers varied considerably. The quantification explored the use of particular words or meaning and the analysis was continued by analysing the latent content (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005) thus making it different from quantitative content analysis which would have stopped at the counting without proceeding to higher level of interpretation.

Although qualitative analysis in this phase of study allowed quantification it also emphasised the interpretation of the data (Holdford, 2008). Bos and Tarnai (1999) argues that supplementing quantitative analysis with qualitative interpretation is necessary in content analysis. In my study this was done through an abstraction stage. In abstraction, high level interpretation is emphasized (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008; Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). Further argument (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004) asserts that categories present the manifest content or what is said by the text while a theme expresses the latent content of text or what the text talks about. The overall result can then be presented in the forms of a story line, a map, or model based on the researcher's creativity (Vaismoradi et al., 2013). I did this by classifying the categories into possible themes which could accommodate and connect all teachers' answers. I presented this through a table which could show how the themes were formed from categories and the codes. I also compared the number of teachers whose answers belonged to each theme and I presented the results in the charts. The comparisons of the number of teachers mentioning a particular answer were also presented and this could suggest that the teachers were raising a common issue. The commonality of teachers' answers offered significant findings from the thematic content analysis in this study (J. Green & Thorogood, 2014).

A content analysis of these data was helpful to reveal how many teachers shared their answers. This interpretation of the data showed teachers' general perceptions about the new curriculum and about the learning resources in their local environment. The limitation of this process was that the analysis was restricted to the teachers' answers and thus limited me from generating my own interpretation (Berg & Lune, 2012), particularly as the main interpretation was achieved through constructing themes and not in the construction of codes and categories. However, Berg and Lune add that this weakness is minimised when content analysis is used as a tool for analysing part of the data rather than as a research strategy or as the main data analysis tool. This suggests that the use of content analysis in this study was not problematic as it could provide the answers to survey questions which could be used in the overall data triangulation.

3.4 Phase Two: Qualitative Data Collection

This section presents the second data collection and analysis which was done through a multi-case study. The setting, participant selection, data collection, and data analysis as well as the limitations are discussed respectively.

3.4.1 Setting and participants.

The second phase of the study was conducted at schools where the participants taught from October to December 2014. Sixty teachers stated in the survey that they were willing to join the second phase of the study. Initially, I identified 60 teachers who were willing to participate in the interviews and observation. Then I calculated each teacher's score in the survey.

Those 60 teachers' mode and mean scores were analysed to group them according to their general perceptions. Using the mode or the mean could generate three groups of teachers based on their perceptions. By using the mode, I planned to group those having more answers within "strongly disagree" and "disagree" into one, representing those having negative perceptions of autonomy. Those having more answers in the "neutral" or "unsure" option were put in the second group, representing those with neutral perceptions. Those having more answers in "strongly agree" and "agree" belonged to the third group representing those having positive perceptions of autonomy. However, no participants reported negative perceptions about learner autonomy in the survey and thus the recruitment of participants in the second phase of the research could not accommodate the perspectives of teachers with negative views about autonomy. By using the mode, I could only group teachers into two, those who were very positive about learner autonomy and

those who were neutral. Thus the participants could not represent the continuum of perceptions from strongly agree to strongly disagree and this was a limitation of this study.

In order to generate three group of teachers, the next stage was calculating each teacher's mean score. Teachers' mean scores were analysed to reveal their degree of agreement with the value of learner autonomy (high, medium, low) so that I could select the nine teachers. As the survey items were not unidirectional, the first stage was to do reverse coding for certain survey items so that the Likert scales for all 37 items had a similar direction. Then the mean scores in the survey for those 60 teachers were calculated (see appendix 3) and I chose three bands of participants: those with the highest scores, middle scores and the lowest scores. Each category was represented by three teachers based on the criteria below which I determined to choose the best participants for the second phase of the study. However, when I contacted some of them, they were no longer willing to join my study, so I had to contact the next teachers on my list.

I used purposive sampling to select nine teachers, three from each of the three bands of participants that I already established. Purposive sampling is sometimes called judgment sampling and it is used for selecting respondents based on their qualities (Tongco, 2007). It is characterized by the use of criteria as the basis for participant selection and only those meeting the criteria were recruited in the study (Flick, 2011; R. B. Johnson & Christensen, 2012). In other words, I as the researcher had to find specific teachers fulfilling my specific criteria and willing to participate in the study, and the recruitment process ended when the target number of the participants had been obtained (R. B. Johnson & Christensen, 2012). Those recruited as research participants were believed to be key informants or sort of "information-rich cases" (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009, p. 342). I had to use special knowledge about the group of teachers to enable me to select those representing the population (Berg, 2007). As purposive sampling is also defined by Teddlie and Yu (2007) as "selecting units (e.g., individuals, groups of individuals, institutions) based on specific purposes associated with answering a research study's questions" (p. 77), I had to ensure that my participants could help me answer my research questions. Purposive sampling offers practicality, efficiency, effectiveness equal to or more than that of random sampling particularly when it is used properly (Tongco, 2007).

I purposefully selected nine teachers whose scores were among the highest, middle, and the lowest. The next criteria were:

a. They completed the entire questionnaire, meaning that they completed all sections of the survey to show that they were open and willing to give information.

b. They had some knowledge about the 2013 curriculum and its implementation. This criterion aimed to ensure that they had sufficient familiarity with the 2013 curriculum expectations.
c. They recognized learning opportunities outside the classroom and/or the benefits of these for their students' English learning. The information would help me to answer my last research question about what they perceived as affordances and constraints in using the learning resources in their local area.
d. They came from different types of schools. This would provide varied settings for my observations and allow me to investigate how their perceptions affected their actual teaching practices. Having informants from different schools offered the chance to discover whether school cultures, traditions, regulations and policy served as either affordances or constraints in using the resources of the local tourist area.
e. They had different teaching experiences. Teachers' answers in the survey suggested that experiences may have affected the way teachers perceived the curriculum requirements, the concept of autonomy, and their teaching practices.
f. Their school locations were varied to represent all areas in Magelang Regency (close, medium and far from Borobudur Temple, the site where high exposure of English is available).
g. They were allowed by their principals to participate in the research. Some time was needed to participate in interviews and observations. Accessibility was also very important for this study as I had to make several visits to each school to interview the teachers and observe them in the classroom.
h. They agreed to participate throughout the entire research process even though they could withdraw at any time without giving any reasons. This criterion did not oblige the teachers to participate in the entire study, but rather they required them to indicate their willingness to be observed and interviewed when they were contacted for confirmation.

These criteria were intended to reveal different perceptions of teachers whose teaching experiences, school types and locations were as diverse as possible. Three were from the closest schools to the tourist site as I hoped they could give me some information on how they took advantage of the tourist site in their teaching. However, when I contacted two of them they refused to participate in my research due to the busy schedule they had. The other teacher agreed to participate and but suddenly withdrew when the time got closer

to the examination period, forcing me find another participant in the last week of teaching and learning activities held at school.

The demographic data of the nine participants showed there was only one male teacher and three participants were young (20-30 years old), another three were medium aged (30-40 years) and the other three were older (40-60 years). Their teaching experiences ranged from 0 – 5 years to more than 20 years. Their qualifications also ranged from Diploma to Master's level. On the basis of school type, four teachers came from state schools, three from *Muhammadiyah* schools, one from a Christian school and the other came from *Ma'arif* school.

Finally, I purposefully selected nine teachers as respondents in my case study. Choosing participants with different perceptions provided rich information about how diverse perceptions were reflected in teaching practice. The nine participants were selected to build a multiple-case study. Stake (2006, p. 22) argues "the benefit of multiple case study will be limited if fewer than say 4 cases are chosen or more than 10" which means that an ideal number of cases will be between four and ten.

3.4.2 The case study.

Case studies are strategies to answer 'how' or 'why' research questions focusing on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context where the researcher has very little control over events (Yin, 2009). Swanborn (2010) argues if we want to obtain information about what (groups of) people perceive and decide, in relation to their interactions during a certain period, and if we are to investigate the world seen by participants and attempt to reveal why they view things in their way, a case study is the optimal strategy. In this study, the case study was used to reveal why English teachers perceived learner autonomy, the new curriculum and local learning resources in a particular way (as revealed in the survey) and how their perceptions affected their teaching practices in English classrooms. Each teacher participating in this case study was seen as a "case" as Yin (2009) asserts that individual may be identified as a case. Merriam (2001) also explains in greater detail that the case could be a person, a program, a group or a specific policy, and in this study each case is a teacher within their teaching context. Moreover, Bryman (2012) notes that the case is "an object of interest in its own right, and the researcher aims to provide an in-depth elucidation of it" (p. 69). Thus the interest in revealing the deeper philosophy underpinning teachers' individual perceptions and how these affected teachers' teaching practices became the background for investigating each teacher as a single case in this study.

Case study is defined by Merriam (2002) as an "intensive description and analysis of a phenomenon or social unit such as an individual, group, institution or community" (p. 8). Furthermore, a multiple-case study is defined by Stake (2006) as "a special effort to examine something having lots of cases, parts or members" (p. vi) where each case has its own problems, stories, and relationships. Stake adds that an important reason to conduct a multi-case study is "to examine how the program or phenomenon performs in different environments" (p. 23). Yin (2009) argues that a robust case study exists when more cases are included. This study involved participants from different schools and teaching contexts and the use of multiple-case study was expected to provide better understanding how the curriculum requirements were perceived in diverse contexts where teachers worked and taught.

Gilham (2000) suggests that case study research is characterized by the employment of multiform data sources and therefore this second phase of the research employed the use of observation and interviews. Observation was needed to capture the teaching practices of teachers whose perceptions of developing learner autonomy differed greatly. Observation allows more understanding about what happens in complex real-world situations than what may be discovered in teachers' answers in questionnaires and interviews (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). One observation was conducted for each teacher as they taught classes that varied in length from 40 to120 minutes, 80 minutes on average. This helped with setting the case boundary as the observation limited the setting of teachers' classroom practices to a particular period of time during the implementation of the new curriculum. Their perceptions on learner autonomy, the new curriculum and local learning resources in their environment were bounded within this time period.

The observations were conducted to suit the teachers' schedules (see appendix 4). Some teachers appeared to act naturally in my presence while others seemed conscious of my presence. Observation is common in this regency especially during the implementation of a new curriculum. The trainer for the new curriculum commonly observed the teachers' classroom practice. The principals also often observed these teachers. In addition, other researchers had observed some of the participants just before I began my research. So, the participant teachers and their classes seemed familiar with the presence of an observer.

In my observation, teachers displayed different levels of confidence. Some teachers shared their lesson plans with me, suggesting openness and confidence, but others refused to share their plans. Even so, the students seemed accustomed to the classroom routines which suggested that the classes I observed were typical of these teachers' normal classes.

My main purpose in observing classes was to see what teachers did in relation to what they said in the first interview. I wrote descriptive and reflective notes as suggested by Creswell (2007). Creswell explains that descriptive notes record both classroom activities and the flow of those activities while reflective notes record "the process, reflections and summary conclusion" on activities which can be used for developing the theme (p.138). The notes were analysed at the same time as the video recording transcripts of the classroom observation. The interviews in each case were conducted after and before each observation.

The role of interviews in research has generated contrasting views. For many decades, interviews have been generally seen as "a means of generating data" (Talmy, 2011, p. 25). Interviews are also regarded as a "neutral means of extracting information: the interviewer asks a question, the respondent or participant answers" (Curtis & Curtis, 2011, p. 47). The purpose of such interviews is to "elicit" research participants' views and opinions (Creswell, 2009, p. 181). Interviews are also conducted to understand "how individuals make sense of their social world and act within it" (May, 2011, p. 157). In these ways, interviews are regarded as a research instrument. Within this perspective, "interviews are theorized as a tool for investigating truths, facts, experience, beliefs, attitudes, and/or feelings of respondents" (Talmy, 2010, p. 131).

However, interviews have also increasingly been seen as a social practice rather than just as a research instrument (May, 2011; Talmy, 2010, 2011). As a social practice, interviews are regarded as a site for investigation where data are co-constructed by the interviewer and research participants (Talmy, 2011). How meaning is co-constructed becomes an important focus in the analysis of the data in addition to what meaning is co-constructed (Talmy, 2010). This perspective is in line with the notion of the active interview proposed by Holstein and Gubrium (1995) where the interviewers actively "engage the respondent, working interactionally to establish the discursive bases from which the respondent can articulate his or her relevant experiences" (p. 48). Taking into account Holstein and Gubrium's perspective, Mann (2011) concludes that interviews are social interaction sites "where ideas, facts, views, details, and stories are collaboratively produced by interviewee and interviewer" (p. 8). Thus the knowledge is socially constructed (Talmy, 2011).

These two different views of seeing interviews reflect the metaphor introduced by Kvale (2007). Kvale suggests that an interviewer can be seen as a miner or as a traveller. In the first metaphor, the interviewer, like a metal miner, is mining the data from the

respondent should not contaminate the data. In the second metaphor, an interviewer is seen as a traveller who has conversations with the local people he or she meets on the journey. The traveller also asks the people to tell their stories which later can be told as a tale when the traveller reaches home. Thus, from the miner perspective, an interview is a data collection site while from the traveller perspective, interview and analysis are seen as "intertwined phases of knowledge construction, with an emphasis on the narrative to be told to an audience" (p. 12). In this way, the interviewer has greater role in the traveller perspective as he or she contributes to the knowledge construction, unlike the interviewer in the miner perspective who is more neutral.

Regardless of the preference in using the interview, there has to be conformity with the aims of the research (Coleman, 2012). Thus in my study, consistent with the employment of case study which I used to study 'learner autonomy' as seen by my research participants and why they viewed it in a particular way, I used the interview as a research instrument. I used the interview data as a data source and I used it along with the observation data and survey data for data triangulation. In this way, I tried to have a neutral position in order not to contaminate the data. Nevertheless, I was strongly aware of social and cultural practices in this (my) region and used appropriate language to show respect to participants who were my elders.

A semi-structured audio-recorded interview was conducted before and after the observation. A semi-structured interview allows the interviewer to direct the interview using some predetermined questions while still giving adequate flexibility to allow the teachers the chance to shape the flow of information (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). The interview was conducted in English or *Bahasa Indonesia* based on participants' preferences.

The interview questions asked about teachers' common teaching practices in response to the new 2013 curriculum (see appendix 8). The questionnaire items might have primed teachers' thinking about autonomy in a positive way but it was my questions which encouraged them to explain their practices in detail.

The follow-up interview after the observation provided opportunities for teachers to explain the teaching practices that I had observed. The length of the interview varied, around one hour for the first interviews and less for the follow-up interviews because the teachers had busy schedules as the end of semester approached and they had to prepare students for the semester test and the national examination in the following semester. The audio recording, which is considered of greatest importance in qualitative studies (Flick,

2011) and as "the best way to record interview data" (Clough & Nutbrown, 2012, p. 142), was used to obtain high levels of accuracy in capturing the interview data (Berazneva, 2014). Bloor and Wood (2006) also point out that audio-recording helps researchers to concentrate on the interview (listening and prompting). I found that the use of a recording device gave me an opportunity to listen to the interviews more than once and thus gain a deeper understanding of what the participants were saying (Gillham, 2000).

The interview schedule was determined by teachers and so interviews were conducted to fit around the teachers' availability (see appendix 4). Although the information about the research purpose had already been shared with the participants (see Appendix 5), each interview always began with information about the research purposes and the purpose of each interview. To build rapport with the teachers, I contacted them a few times, both by phone and in person, to inform them of the survey results and to find out whether they were still interested in participating in an interview. Once they agreed to participate, I visited them and gave the consent form to the principals and the teachers themselves along with another copy of the information sheet. I explained that they were free to decide the schedule for both the interviews and observation. Sometimes the teachers changed the schedule and I was flexible about rescheduling the research agenda. Teachers also decided the place of the interviews and chose somewhere convenient for them. These teachers chose different places such as in the school mosque, school library, computer laboratory, counselling room, classroom, guest room, at home, or in the principal room. I accepted these teachers' choices as I wanted to ensure that they were comfortable and confident in the interviews.

In the interview, I always reminded them that they could choose the language for the interview and that there were no wrong answers as all data were meaningful for my study. I always checked that they were ready before we began the interview. I also asked for their permission to record the interview and there were times when teachers asked me to wait until they were ready. My culture played a role in the interview as I sometimes had to mix my language with some Javanese sentences or phrases as using the highest level of Javanese suggests more respect to older teachers. In my Javanese culture, age and experience matter a lot. As most of the teachers were older than me, then they were in a much higher position than me and my status as a researcher did not appear to influence how these teachers answered my questions. I also emphasised that this study had no connection with the government and that their answers were confidential. This appeared to enable my participants to feel relaxed and comfortable as well as open in the interviews. Besides, they

also trusted me as we had discussed the consent form about the research activities. Sometimes in the middle of the interview, teachers had guests or urgent phone calls and felt comfortable enough to interrupt the interview to respond to them. I respected the fact that the teachers had urgent business outside my study. As an example, I was pleased to have encouraged one of the teachers to answer the phone when this phone call was informing the teacher that one of their friends had passed away. I was there listening too and my participant seemed a bit shocked. I allowed some time to express my condolences and to provide enough time for my teacher to calm down. Usually the teachers told me that the interviews could be continued after the disruption.

My next task was to remind them about what we had just discussed. When they felt unsure how to answer I rephrased the questions in a way which was more understandable or I gave a little example related to the question. For example, when I asked about the use of authentic materials, some teachers said that they did not know what was meant by authentic materials. When I gave them examples they realised that they actually used authentic materials which they could explain really well. In this way I felt that to some extent I helped the teachers to recognize their own practices. I also used some follow up questions to prompt their answers. I often asked the teachers whether they had any additional comments at the end of the interview. I also reiterated that I really respected their perspectives and responses to the questions I presented. I thanked them and I promised to give them the transcripts.

Sometimes, after the interview, they introduced me to their colleagues, asked about my personal life, shared their work experiences, and asked for my advice on lesson planning and therefore I had to stay longer with them. I enjoyed these kinds of moments as it made me closer to them. They gave me drinks and snacks too every time I visited them. Sometimes the principals themselves wanted to see me and I had to allocate time to meet them (alone or together with the teachers) and introduced myself while explaining my research.

The second interviews also followed the same pattern. Teachers would set the time, inform me when they needed to reschedule the interview time, and chose the place. In each of the interviews I reminded them about the interview time and my coming. In total, I visited each teacher's school up to seven times, and I also used phone calls, emails and text messaging as parts of our communication. My teachers were also willing to be contacted after the second interview in case I needed more information and this suggested that they were open to me and they trusted me as someone with whom to share their points of view.

The stages I took (reiterating the purposes of the research, highlighting confidentiality, asking permission for recording, making sure participants had control over time and place, expressing gratitude to participants, signalling how they made a great contribution to my study, respecting the teachers, and staying longer when necessary) reflected the stages for building rapport with the interviewees suggested by Legard, Keegan and Ward (2003).

In short, I had used the interviews as a research instrument so that triangulation of the data could be made. Even so, I was aware about the social contexts and I tried to build good relationship with my research participants. Thus the social interaction with my research participants was more of part of building a good rapport rather than part of contributing to the participants' knowledge construction.

3.4.3 The analysis of the case study.

The qualitative data from the interviews and observation were transcribed and then I conducted a thematic analysis. I combined two interviews transcripts and an observation transcript from each teacher and did the thematic analysis on the combined transcripts. I did not translate the transcripts into English when I did the analysis to ensure the originality of the data but the coding was done in English. The analysis of those data aimed at understanding the textual data and coding was a primary tool for doing this (Creswell, 2014). Coding built a framework for all thematic ideas constructed from the textual data (Gibbs, 2007). Here, coding was done on the paper transcripts by putting a code name in the margin or by highlighting the texts in different colours as according to Gibbs this offers creativity, flexibility and ease of access which is important at early analysis stage. Moreover, the codes were developed based on the emerging information given by the participants and therefore no list of predetermined codes had been prepared before. The processes in this thematic analysis were similar to those in the content analysis I described in the first phase data analysis, except that the coding was done by using gerunds. The use of gerunds was suggested by Charmaz (2014) as helpful for obtaining the "strong sense of actions and sequence" (p. 120) from the data and it enabled me "to discern implicit connections" (p. 124), which further allowed me control over my data and my analysis.

The next step was creating code patterns and themes. After coding, categories or themes can be made to group those codes (Creswell, 2014). The overall codes in the data may result in patterns and as several codes may be linked by a theme then exploring patterns across themes is important (Jacelon & O'Dell, 2005). Creswell (2014) suggests the

constructions of five to seven themes in the analysis and I applied this in my study. An example of the coding can be seen in Appendix 6.

Themes were analysed for each case and across different cases. The results of each thematic analysis were reported case by case in Chapter VI. I reported them in clusters to show similarities of teachers' perceptions and practice of developing learner autonomy based on the results of the survey and case study.

Although I began by categorizing participants based on their scores, after the interview and observation data were analysed, my grouping changed. I tried to figure out the consistency between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices and re-categorized the teachers into three: those having a consistent approach, those with a mixed approach; and those with a conflicted approach in developing learner autonomy. The first group of teachers were consistent as their beliefs were reflected in their practices. The second group had mixed approaches as they were less consistent in their practice in developing autonomy especially as their beliefs about autonomy competed with their doubts about the feasibility of developing it in their classrooms. The third group consisted of the teachers whose beliefs and practices were in conflict. These teachers wanted to develop autonomy but they had no experience in handling the classroom and creating an environment conducive to autonomous learning. At the end, what these teachers did contradicted the beliefs they held about autonomy development.

In addition, instead of just producing descriptions and theme identification, this study followed Creswell's (2014) idea of forming complex theme connections to produce sophisticated case studies. Taken together, groups of patterns which are built into structures will generate an overall description of problem being studied (LeCompte, 2000). These were represented diagrammatically for individual cases. In addition, I also discussed the overall findings of the study by combining all data resources in my discussion chapter.

The interpretation of data was done in each phase of the study and at the end of the study. In the first phase, the interpretation was done to reveal teachers' general perceptions about learner autonomy, and their thoughts about the new curriculum and local learning resources. In the second phase, the interpretation was done to reveal how individual teachers justified their perceptions about learner autonomy and how their classroom practice reflected their perceptions particularly when they encountered both affordances and constraints in developing learner autonomy. The overall data interpretation at the end of the study focused on how the qualitative findings helped to explain the quantitative result, whether better understanding of the problem was provided by the follow-up

qualitative data, and how the complete data set addressed the research questions (Creswell, 2014; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). In my study, the interpretation of the first phase quantitative data was used to answer the first research question, and the answers to the other three questions were obtained through the interpretations of both quantitative and qualitative results.

3.5 The Validity and the Reliability of the Study

As this study built on two different methods, addressing the issue of validity and reliability of each method was imperative. In the quantitative phase, the survey was one already used by S. Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012a) and its validity had already been assured. The validity of a research instrument is defined as "the extent to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure" (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009, p. 356). In other words, an instrument is valid when it measures what it should measure (Babbie, 2017; Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008; May, 2011; Slavin, 2007). For example, to be a valid instrument, a questionnaire on teacher perception should measure teachers' perceptions and not something else.

There are several forms of validity which we can be used to determine the validity of a research instrument. They are face validity, content validity, criterion-related validity, and construct validity (Babbie, 2017; Cohen et al., 2011; Slavin, 2007). Face validity is defined as "the degree to which a given measure appears to assess what it is supposed to assess" (Slavin, 2007, p. 179). In this case, there is a need for an instrument to look as though it really measures the concept it intends to measure.

Content validity refers to "how much a measure covers the range of meanings included within a concept" (Babbie, 2017, p. 154). Babbie gives an example that a mathematics test should not only cover *addition* as it has to cover other aspects such as *subtraction, multiplication* and *division*. This means that it is necessary for the research instrument to represent the "wider issue under investigation" (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 188). Content validation is done by finding out whether the instrument covers enough of the areas that it has to represent (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012).

Construct validity is defined as "the extent to which a particular measure or instrument for data collection conforms to the theoretical context in which it is located" (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 188). This means that there is a need for a researcher to be in agreement with the theories underlying a particular concept when he or she is constructing this particular concept. Asking whether the items in the research instrument measure

hypothetical concepts is a way to find out whether a particular research instrument has construct validity (Creswell, 2009).

Criterion-related validity covers both predictive and concurrent validity (Cohen et al., 2011; Slavin, 2007). This type of validity refers to "the degree to which a measure relates to some external criterion" (Babbie, 2017, p. 153). In this case the score from a particular research instrument is compared to some other external criterion (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). In concurrent validity, the score is compared to another score at around the same time, while in predictive validity, the score is compared to a future test score or behavior (Cohen et al., 2011; Slavin, 2007).

Nowadays the term validity is viewed as a unitary concept in which a researcher has to obtain various kinds of validity evidence (R. B. Johnson & Christensen, 2014; Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). In this case, the researcher has to collect content-related evidence, criterion-related evidence, and construct-related evidence to establish the validity of the research instrument (Fraenkel et al., 2012; Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). Basically the procedure used to collect the evidence is similar to those for establishing content, construct, and criterion validity discussed above. However, in seeing validity as a unitary concept, evidence based on the instrument's internal structure should also be obtained (R. B. Johnson & Christensen, 2014). This means that factor analysis should be employed to discover the number of dimensions which a particular research instrument or test actually measures.

The questionnaire used in this study has been modified over stages of validation. S. Borg and Al-Busaidi consulted both existing instruments and the literature on learner autonomy such as 'Teachers' and learners' perspectives on autonomy' (Benson, 2008) and 'Learner autonomy: teacher and learner perspectives' (Benson, 2007) . They drew from the field of learner autonomy to design their research questions. As they could not find a single robust instrument, they designed a new questionnaire with a focus on teachers' perceptions about learner autonomy. The questionnaire items covered technical, psychological, sociocultural, and political perspectives of autonomy. Other related topics were also included such as "institutional and individual constraints on learner autonomy, the role of teachers in learner autonomy, the relevance of learner autonomy to diverse cultural contexts, the extent to which autonomy is influenced by age and FL [foreign language] proficiency of the learner, the implications of learner autonomy for teaching methodology, individualistic vs. social perspectives on learner autonomy, the contribution of learner autonomy to effective language learning, the extent to which learner autonomy is an

innovative trend, learner autonomy as an innate vs. learned capacity, [and] the role of strategy training in promoting learner autonomy (S. Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012a, pp. 9–10). They also ensured the questionnaire items were well-written, relevant, interesting, professional looking, and not hard to complete. In this case, face validity and content validity of the questionnaire were established by S. Borg and Al-Busaidi.

On their third draft they decided upon 50 items and the questionnaire was reviewed by their academic colleague. By requesting someone else to evaluate the questionnaire, S. Borg and Al-Busaidi showed their effort to improve the content validity of the questionnaire. Critical feedback questioned the scales within the questionnaire especially whether all items addressed only one scale or multiple scales. In this case, attention was given to the internal structure of the questionnaire. In response, the number of items was increased to 54 in the fourth draft and those items addressed the following 12 constructs:

1) Technical perspectives on learner autonomy
2) Psychological perspectives on learner autonomy
3) Social perspectives on learner autonomy
4) Political perspectives on learner autonomy
5) The role of the teachers in learner autonomy
6) The relevance of learner autonomy to diverse cultural contexts.
7) Age and learner autonomy
8) Proficiency and learner autonomy
9) Implications of learner autonomy for teaching methodology
10) The relationship of learner autonomy to effective language learning
11) Learner autonomy as an innate vs. learned capacity
12) The extent to which learner autonomy is an innovative trend.

(S. Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2012a, p. 10)

The questionnaire was again reviewed and the feedback encouraged S. Borg and Al-Busaidi to consider the extent to which the items in the questionnaire addressed similar constructs. The seventh draft had 42 items addressing constructs 1-10 above. They piloted the questionnaire with colleagues in a language centre at a university in Turkey with 18 teacher participants.

The pilot teachers' responses suggested the need for revisions as some of the alpha coefficient values (which show the relationships among items) were low. However, the low value of the alpha coefficient might equally have been affected by the small numbers of

survey items. The revision of this questionnaire resulted in the final draft in which there were only 37 items addressing the same ten constructs.

Through these stages, the face, content and construct validity of the questionnaire were established. By consulting the theories and the literature about learner autonomy, S. Borg and Al-Busaidi established content and construct validity, especially by covering a wide range of issues discussed in the field of learner autonomy and by conforming the notion of learner autonomy as suggested by the literature. The presentation of the questionnaire using a Likert scale in which statements about learner autonomy are provided along with some levels of agreement on those statement suggests the establishment of the face validity of the research instrument. Evidence on internal structure was also established when they checked the constructs or dimensions on the questionnaire items. Considering the evidence available about the questionnaire construction, I believe that the questionnaire had sufficient validity to be used as a research instrument. In addition, as the questionnaire was intended to measure teachers' perceptions about learner autonomy and it in fact did this then it was evident that this questionnaire is valid.

However as the instrument was presented in Bahasa Indonesia, it was pilot tested to ensure its reliability as according to Hammond and Wellington (2013), questions are reliable if research participants have similar interpretation on those questions. This was done by distributing the questionnaires to some colleagues teaching Bahasa Indonesia in Pekalongan University, Indonesia. Finally to ensure the trustworthiness of the finding it is necessary to consider the credibility of the analysis. Graneheim and Lundman (2004) stress that when categories and themes can accommodate the overall data, credibility of the analysis can be reached and the credibility may increase along with the agreement between coders or researchers on the analysis. This applied in my analyses of the open-ended questions as well as analyses of the interviews and observations.

In the qualitative phase, trustworthiness, which according to R. B. Johnson and Christensen (2012) refers to the degree to which the study is plausible, credible, trustworthy and defensible, was assured using through several strategies. Triangulation, member checking, rich and thick description ensured the trustworthiness of the study (Creswell, 2014). Triangulation means "an effort to assure that right information and interpretations have been obtained" and in my study a multi-case study was used to assure triangulating through creating a clear and suitably meaningful picture of the problem studied which was free of bias (Stake, 2006, p. 35). In addition, I systematically used procedures like member-checking transcripts with participants, and avoided a drift of code definition by discussing

these with my academic supervisors (Gibbs, 2007). Using case study protocols also helped to minimize errors and biases in the study and improve the trustworthiness of the study (Yin, 2009).

Member checking was done by sending the transcripts of the interviews and observation to the participants (Appendix 4). I also double-checked with the teachers about things which were less clear to me and they gave a fuller explanation in the following meetings or phone calls. They were willing to be contacted at any time during my study in case I needed more explanation. Member checking added the credibility of my study findings as it helped me to enhance the accuracy of the finding (Creswell, 2009; Fraenkel et al., 2012). This is so as member checking could "clear up areas of miscommunication" and the participants could help to identify inaccuracies in the findings (R. B. Johnson & Christensen, 2014, p. 302).

The qualitative study was characterized by positioning the researcher as the research instrument. I collected the data by meeting and observing my participants. Although I was the researcher, I am an insider or a member of the community. I was an English teacher in one of the JHSs in Magelang Regency. I taught at a private school located around 20 kilometres from Borobudur Temple. I was always appointed to teach the third year students who would have to sit the final examinations. I taught in this school from 2007 to 2011. I also participated in teachers' professional meetings in my regency so I knew some of the teachers who participated in my study. I had a good relationship with many English teachers even though we only met at teachers' association meetings or workshops held by the Department of Education. I am aware that some of the English teachers in my regency had never used the tourist area as a resource for providing their students with speaking practice with foreigners. I was curious why some teachers accessed the tourist site and some others did not (including me as I felt my students had insufficient English to speak to foreigners, also I had no time to take them to the Temple to meet the tourists as I focussed on preparing my students for the final exams and gave additional lessons in the afternoon). Personally, I wanted to know whether the teachers teaching in the closest area to Borobudur Temple were more likely than me to take advantage of these authentic learning resources. Thus, I included a question on the affordances and constraints of using the available learning resources in my local area. Finally, I personally consider that developing learner autonomy is important as I felt unable to cover all the areas that every single student needed to achieve deep understanding. Therefore, I believe that students need to develop sufficient autonomy

to improve their own language skills and trust that they can learn by themselves through available resources.

Because I am an insider in the community there was a risk that I might seek findings corresponding to what I want or expect (R. B. Johnson & Christensen, 2012). To avoid this, a key strategy called reflexivity was used. Reflexivity was used to foreground the influences of my personal background, perceptions and interest in the research which were noted in a field journal (Gibbs, 2007; Krefting, 1991). I did this by questioning myself about whether what I found reflected the real data or whether I wanted support for some of my own assumptions or predictions. I kept checking the evidence from my data every time I wrote the results. Employing reflexivity, I gained more self-awareness and therefore I could monitor and try to control my own influence on the research process thus ensure a high degree of trustworthiness in this study (R. B. Johnson & Christensen, 2012). R. B. Johnson and Christensen add that bias may come from a researcher's preference of particular information, but as I combined all interview transcripts and observations transcripts I was not selective of particular information and thus I minimised bias. As I used triangulation and my data came from participants from different teaching contexts, I was unlikely to obtain findings suiting my expectations. These were my efforts to limit bias in this study.

To conclude, although this study used range of data and forms of analysis to ensure the trustworthiness of the findings, it was necessary for me to acknowledge some limitations of this study. First, random sampling might be perceived as more suitable for the survey, but I compensated for this by distributing the questionnaire to almost all schools and thus this study offered a chance to participate to a wide range of English teachers. Second, the instrument used in the survey was not designed by me as the researcher and thus I could not manipulate the results of factor analysis of the survey items. Instead factor analysis was used to offer alternatives to group the survey items for future research, either for the designer of the survey or other researchers. Third, the observer paradox might have affected teachers' and students' behaviours as in most of the classroom observed teachers explained my arrival to their students and sometimes reminded the students that the lesson was being recorded. Monahan and Fisher (2010) describe the observer effect as "the recognition that researchers are interacting with the system, usually through the instruments of measurement, and changing the phenomena being studied" (p. 360). However, triangulation from the survey, observation and interview data helped me to improve the accuracy of my findings as according to Holden (2001) triangulation could overcome the

Hawthorne effect or observer effect in this study. Thus the limitations of this study has been kept to its minimum.

The next chapter presents the findings of this study which were obtained through the processes described in this chapter. The findings of the quantitative data are presented first followed by the findings from the content analysis of the open-ended survey questions. Finally, the multi-case study findings are presented along with a cross case analysis.

CHAPTER IV

THE QUANTITATIVE FINDINGS

This chapter presents the results of the quantitative phase of the study. It reports the statistical analysis of the first and the third sections of the questionnaire. This chapter begins by providing descriptions of teachers' demographic data from the questionnaires and then presents quantitative findings from the Likert-scale of the questionnaire. Descriptive and inferential statistical findings are presented along with the results of the factor analysis and reliability tests.

4.1 Sample Description

The survey respondents were 145 JHS English teachers from 79 schools in 17 districts in Magelang Regency, Central Java, Indonesia. Of these 145 teachers, 99 teachers or 70.2% were female, and this represented the gender proportions of the teacher population. Based on the qualifications, more than half of teachers (54.7%) held a bachelor's degree and about 10% had a master's degree. Those holding certificates or diplomas made up 27.4% of the respondents, and the other 7.7% held other qualifications. In terms of age, the following table presents the distribution of the survey respondents.

Table 1. The respondents' age

The distribution of teacher based on the age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	20-30	21	14.5	14.9	14.9
	30-40	36	24.8	25.5	40.4
	40-50	47	32.4	33.3	73.8
	50-60	37	25.5	26.2	100.0
	Total	141	97.2	100.0	
Missing	0	4	2.8		
Total		145	100.0		

The table above shows that over half of the respondents (59.5%) were older teachers aged between 40 and 60 years and less than 15% were younger teachers aged 20-30 years. This result is consistent with the years of teaching experience revealed by the respondents where nearly a third (31.4%) had more than 20 years of teaching experience (see the next figure). The second highest percentage (27.1%) represented those having 10-15 years of experience, and 15.7% had been teaching between 15 and 20 years. This indicates that

nearly three fourths (74.3%) of respondents had more than 10 years of teaching experience and this was logical given that most teachers completing this survey were older teachers. The following figure shows the distribution of teachers based on their teaching experience.

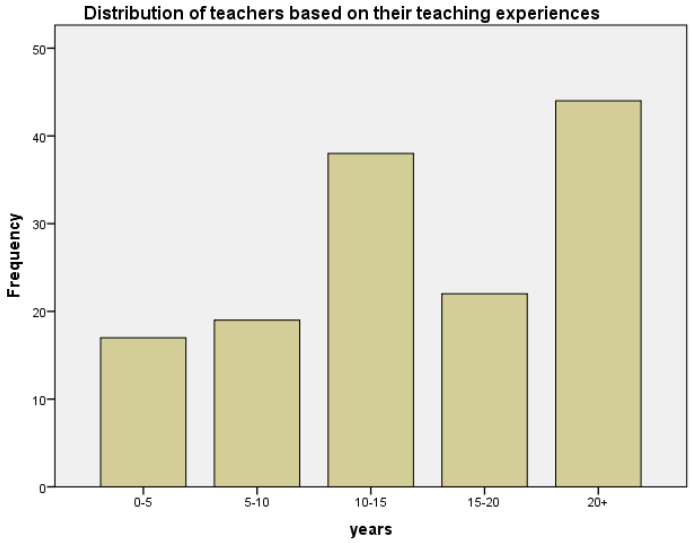


Figure 7. The classifications of teachers based on teaching experiences

The demographic data also revealed that the majority of respondents came from state schools (57.1%) followed by those coming from Islamic schools which accounted for 32.1%. The other 10.7% were from Catholic, Christian and other schools. Of these, 1.4% of respondents came from Christian Schools while the other two were quite similar in number, 4.3% for Catholic schools and 5% for other non-religion-based schools. Of the 145 respondents, more than half (52.2%) were teaching grade VII and they were required to use the 2013 curriculum when this study was conducted. Those teaching grade VIII made up 29.4% and this covered those using both new and old curriculum. Only 18.4% taught grade IX using the old curriculum. This finding indicated that most teachers (81.6% of the total respondents) were applying the new 2013 curriculum when this study was conducted.

As this study also concerned the availability of English exposure in the local environment, the information of the schools' distances from the tourist site was important. The following figure shows the school distance from Borobudur Temple, a tourist site where more exposure to English is available.

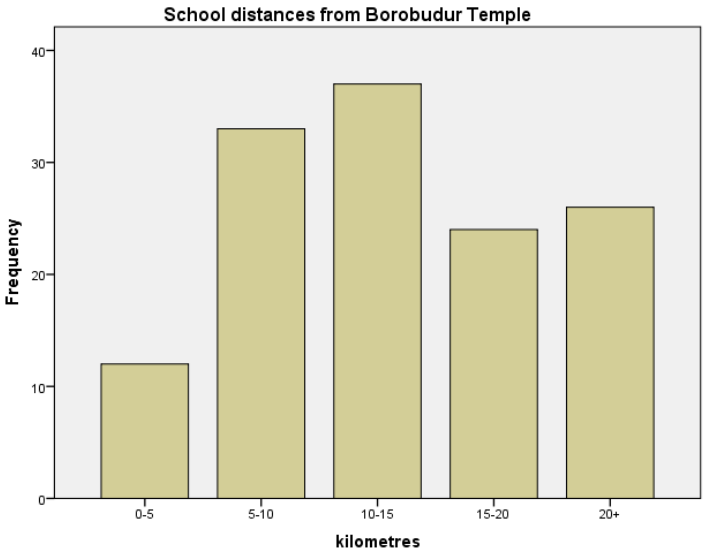


*Figure 8.*The school distance from Borobudur Temple

Most teachers came from schools located between 10 and 15 kilometres from the tourist site (28%) and but only 12 teachers (9.1%) taught at the closest schools to the temple. The number of English teachers in schools located between 5 and 10 kilometres was 33, comprising a quarter of the survey respondents.

An additional finding concerns the preferred language used in the survey: the majority of teachers preferred Indonesian to English. A clear majority (115 teachers) chose to answer in Indonesian and only 30 chose English questionnaires. The former accounted for 79.3% and the latter 20.7% of the respondents.

To sum up, the demographic data obtained in this study indicated that the respondents were mainly female teachers. There was a higher number of older teachers than younger teachers in the sample and around one third of the sample had more than 20 years of teaching experience (31.4%). Besides, most respondents held a bachelor's degree (54.7%), came from state schools (57.1%), and taught grade VII (52.2%). Most teachers also taught at schools located between 0 and 15 kilometres (62.1%) of the temple. Teachers' demographic data were further used to group teachers and to compare their perceptions of learner autonomy.

4.2 Quantitative Findings: Teachers' Perceptions on Learner Autonomy

This section presents findings from the Likert scale responses resulting from descriptive statistics analyses, inferential analyses, factor analyses and reliability tests.

4.2.1 Descriptive statistics.

The descriptive analysis showed the mean, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis values from the data. The skewness values were negative for nearly all of the

survey items (35 items or 94.6%), indicating that the distribution of the scores was not symmetrical as the scores clustered on the right-hand side of a normal curve. In contrast, the kurtosis values showed more positive values (23 items or 62.2%). This indicates that the distribution was rather peaked in the centre. Pallant (2013) asserts that perfectly normal distribution has a skewness and kurtosis value of 0. However in this study, the values were not close to 0 such as 0.896, 1.948, 3.038 and 6.507. This finding indicated that the data were skewed or not normally distributed which suggested that further analysis should be done through non-parametric tests.

The same results as those for the skewness and kurtosis values were shown in the statistical analysis performed through frequencies which also calculated mode, median, range and variance of the data. Most survey items had a median value of 4 (33 items) and the rest had median values of 3. The median value or the middle value for all of the scores was the most appropriate to show where the scores clustered (R. B. Johnson & Christensen, 2012). In this case, the scores concentrated on 4 which represented the option "agree" on the Likert scale. Most survey respondents opted "agree" for most of the survey items, showing their positive perception towards learner autonomy.

The percentage of teachers selecting each option in the Likert Scale in the following table illustrates how teachers perceived each statement about learner autonomy.

Table 2. The percentage of respondents selecting each option in the Likert Scale

	Statement	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Unsure**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
1.	Language learners of all ages can develop learner autonomy	.0%	2.8%	11.8 %	60.4 %	25.0 %
2.	Independent study in the library is an activity which develops learner autonomy	0.7%	2.1%	11.0 %	54.5 %	31.7 %
3.	Learner autonomy is promoted through regular opportunities for learners to complete tasks alone	.0%	0.7%	4.8%	53.8 %	40.7 %
4.	Autonomy means that learner can make choices about how they learn	.0%	2.8%	11.8 %	61.1 %	24.3 %
5.	Individuals who lack autonomy are not likely to be effective language learners	.0%	12.4 %	32.4 %	48.3 %	6.9%
6.	Autonomy can develop most effectively through learning outside the classrooms	.0%	4.1%	33.8 %	48.3 %	13.8 %
7.	Involving learners in decisions about what to learn promotes learner autonomy	.0%	2.1%	9.7%	55.9 %	32.4 %
8.	Learner autonomy means learning without a teacher	9.0%	43.4 %	20.0 %	19.3 %	8.3%
9.	It is harder to promote learner autonomy with proficient language learners than it is with beginners	9.7%	36.6 %	23.4 %	25.5 %	4.8%
10.	It is possible to promote learner autonomy with both young language learners and adults	1.4%	0.7%	2.8%	60.7 %	34.5 %
11	Confident language learners are more likely to develop autonomy than those who lack confidence	.0%	1.4%	2.1%	51.4 %	45.1 %

	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree
12.	Learner autonomy allows language learner to learn more effectively than they otherwise would	.0%	.0%	7.6%	57.9 %	34.5 %
13	Learner autonomy can be achieved by learners of all cultural backgrounds	0.7%	10.3 %	20.0 %	47.6 %	21.4 %
14.	Learner autonomy is promoted when learners have some choice in the kinds of activities they do	.0%	3.5%	15.3 %	60.4 %	20.8 %
15.	Learner autonomy cannot be promoted in teacher-centred classrooms	2.8%	12.4 %	20.0 %	48.3 %	16.6 %
16.	Learner autonomy is promoted through activities which give learners opportunities to learn from each other	0.7%	0.7%	3.4%	69.7 %	25.5 %
17.	Learner autonomy implies a rejection of traditional teacher-led ways of teaching	0.7%	35.9 %	22.8 %	31.0 %	9.7%
18.	Learner autonomy cannot develop without the help of the teacher	0.7%	17.2 %	21.4 %	49.0 %	11.7 %
19.	Learner autonomy is promoted by activities that encourage learners to work together	0.7%	3.5%	6.9%	65.3 %	23.6 %
20	Learner autonomy is only possible with adult learners	20%	45.5 %	22.1 %	10.3 %	2.1%
21	Learner autonomy is promoted by independent work in a self-access centre	2.1%	16.1 %	34.3 %	42.0 %	5.6%
22.	Learner autonomy is promoted when learners are free to decide how their learning will be assessed	.0%	19.4 %	20.1 %	52.1 %	8.3%
23.	Learner autonomy is a concept which is not suited to non-Western learners	19.3 %	52.4 %	17.9 %	6.9 %	3.4 %
24.	Learner autonomy requires the learner to be totally independent of the teachers	2.8%	50.3 %	27.6 %	16.6 %	2.8%
25.	Co-operative group work activities support the development of learner autonomy	0.7%	2.8%	2.1%	58.6 %	35.9 %
26.	Promoting autonomy is easier with beginning language learners than with more proficient learners	2.1%	31.3 %	36.8 %	25.0 %	4.9 %
27.	Learner autonomy is promoted when learners can choose their own learning materials	0.7%	11.0 %	23.4 %	52.4 %	12.4 %
28.	Learner-centred classrooms provide ideals conditions for developing learner autonomy	.0%	3.4%	6.9%	54.5 %	35.2 %
29.	Learning how to learn is the key to developing learner autonomy	.0%	4.1%	3.4%	66.9 %	25.5 %
30.	Learning how to work alone is central to the development of learner autonomy	0.7%	2.1%	2.8%	64.1 %	30.3 %
31.	Out-of-class tasks which require learners to use the internet promote learner autonomy	.0%	2.1%	8.3%	56.6 %	33.1 %
32.	The ability to monitor one's learning is central to learner autonomy	.0%	0.7%	7.6%	63.4 %	28.3 %
33.	Motivated language learners are more likely to develop learner autonomy than learners who are not motivated	.0%	1.4%	4.1%	51.0 %	43.4 %
34.	The proficiency of a language learner does not affect their ability to develop autonomy	6.5%	46.8 %	19.4 %	20.9 %	6.5%
35.	The teacher has an important role to play in supporting learner autonomy	0.7%	2.8%	5.5%	56.6 %	34.5 %
36.	Learner autonomy has a positive effect on success as a language learner	.0%	0.7%	1.4%	55.9 %	42.1 %
37.	To become autonomous, learners need to develop the ability to evaluate their own learning	.0%	.0%	3.4%	67.6 %	29.0 %

As shown in the table above, Indonesian teachers held positive perceptions of learner autonomy as most teachers opted for "agree" and "strongly agree" in most survey

items. Teachers showed most agreement on item 36 where 98% of them agreed that learner autonomy has a positive effect on success as a language learner.

Most teachers agreed that it is possible to promote learner autonomy with both young and adult learners (95.2%) which indirectly shows their belief that it is possible to promote autonomy with their students. They also showed high levels of agreement that learner autonomy allows language learners to learn more effectively (94.4%).

The table above reveals somewhat contradictory strategies that teachers believed were effective in promoting learner autonomy. Teachers viewed *cooperative group work activities* and *regular opportunities for learners to work alone* as of equal importance, as shown by the same percentage of agreement on these two items (94.5%). For these teachers, learner autonomy can also be promoted through opportunities where learners can learn from each other (95.2%). Equally, they believed that autonomous learners would be able to work independently without support from others.

The ability of students to evaluate their own learning was seen as the most crucial criterion by 96.6% of teachers. This was followed by *learning how to work alone* (94.4%), *learning how to learn* (92.4%) and *the ability to monitor one's learning* (91.7%). Besides these essential characteristics, 91.1% of teachers believed and agreed that they played an important role in the development of learner autonomy (item 35).

Next, teachers indicated that they felt unsure about four areas: whether the promotion of autonomy is easier with beginners (36.8%); whether learner autonomy is promoted by independent work in a self-access centre (34.3%); whether autonomy can develop most effectively through learning outside the classrooms (33.8%); and whether individuals who lack autonomy are not likely to be effective language learners (32.4%).

Teachers disagreed that learner autonomy means a rejection of a traditional teacher-led way of teaching (36.6%). Teachers also disagreed that learner autonomy means learning without teacher (52.4%).

Descriptive statistics reported the survey data without making any inferences about the population. To make inferences about the population inferential analysis must be performed (Cohen et al., 2011; R. B. Johnson & Christensen, 2012). However, the appropriate tests can only be done after some information on data distribution has been obtained. This was achieved using numerical methods, graphical methods, and formal normality tests (Razali & Wah, 2011).

The numerical methods were used in the first statistical in which the skewness and kurtosis values were shown. The results showed that the data were skewed and not normally distributed. To support these results graphical methods and normality tests were conducted next.

Through the graphical methods, histogram, boxplot, or Q-Q-plots could be used (Pallant, 2013; Razali & Wah, 2011). Here, both histogram and box plot illustrate how the data were distributed. The following figures show the distribution of data.

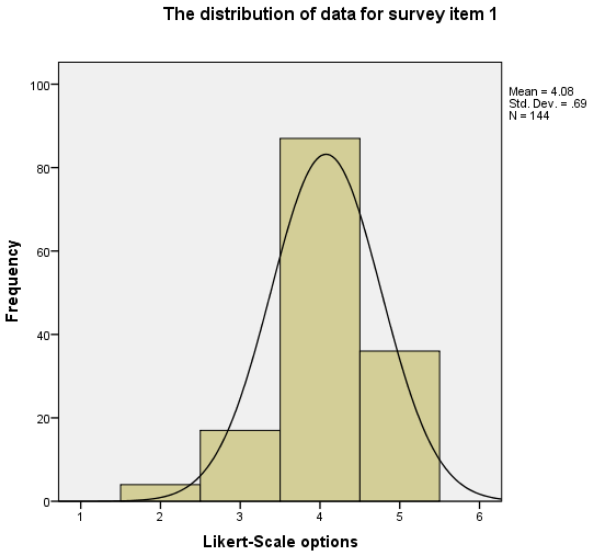


Figure 9. Frequency distribution on survey item 1 (Language learners of all ages can develop learner autonomy)

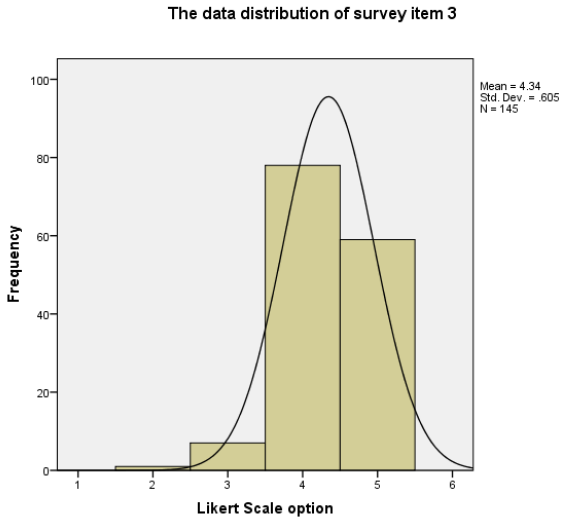


Figure 10. Frequency distribution on survey item 3 (Learner autonomy is promoted through regular opportunities for learners to complete tasks alone)

Through the use of boxplots, the data were shown as follows:

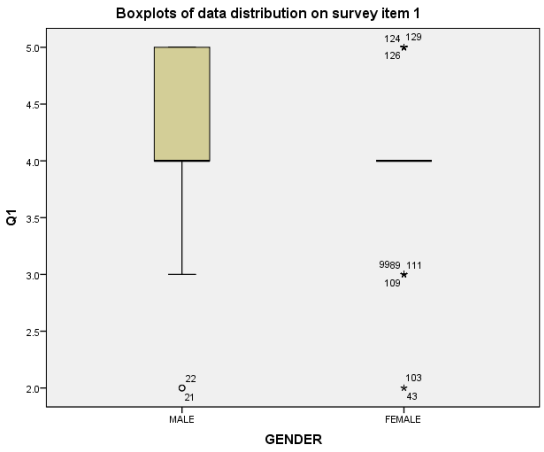


Figure 11. Boxplots for data distribution on survey item 1 based on respondents' gender

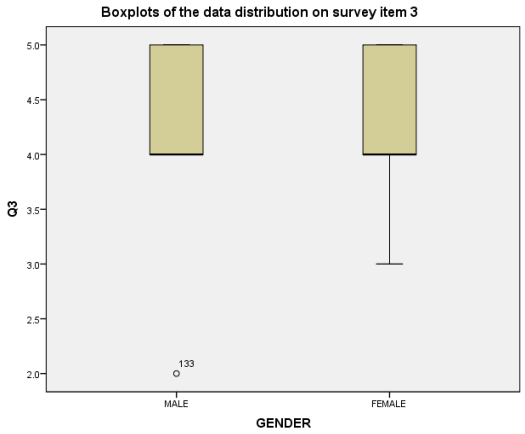


Figure 12. Boxplots for data distribution on survey item 3 based on respondents' gender

The figures above show that the data were not normal, supporting the previous results obtained through numerical methods. This suggested that teachers indicated more agreement than disagreement on learner autonomy. The third method to check the data normality was done by using the formal normality test. The results of the Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests show that the values obtained violated the normality as the *p*-value was 0.00 (Pallant, 2013). This suggested that further analysis should be done through non-parametric methods.

4.2.2 Inferential statistics.

As the data were not normally distributed, the inferential statistics was performed through non-parametric tests (Clark & Randal, 2011). Two tests employed in the analysis were the Kruskal-Wallis test and the Mann-Whitney U test which are able to compare the responses from two or more groups of teachers by showing the mean rank of the scores. These analyses were mainly used to compare teachers' perceptions of learner autonomy

based on characteristics such as gender, age, teaching experiences, qualifications, school types, grade taught, and school distances from Borobudur temple.

1) Teachers' perceptions based on gender

The Mann-Whitney U test was used to compare the teachers according to gender: male and female. The results showed that there was one statistically significant value on the survey item (statement 16), reflecting different perceptions held by male and female teachers toward the promotion of learner autonomy through opportunities given to students to learn from each other. The results showed that female teachers held a higher mean rank (75.60) than male teachers whose mean rank was 60.17. A similar result was shown from their mean comparisons. This result indicated that female teachers agreed more than males that students should have opportunities to learn from each other and this would promote learner autonomy.

2) Teachers' perceptions based on age

Teachers were categorized into four age groups from 20-30, 30-40, 40-50 and 50-60. To compare their perceptions, the Kruskal-Wallis test was performed and the results showed the mean rank and the *p*-values for each survey item. There were seven significant *p*-values, meaning that there were differences of perceptions held by teachers of different ages on seven survey statements. Those statements were items 1, 2, 3, 7, 12, 22 and 27. This test revealed seven main findings on the teachers' perceptions of learner autonomy based on teachers' age:

a) On the first statement, *Language learners of all ages can develop learner autonomy,* teachers aged 30-40 years scored the highest mean rank while the youngest teachers (20-30 years old) had the lowest mean rank. This result was in agreement with the result of the follow up test on mean comparisons where teachers aging 30-40 years had a mean of 4.33 while the youngest teachers had mean of 3.81. This means that those medium-aged teachers agreed more strongly than their colleagues that learner autonomy can be developed with learners of all ages, including their own students aged between 12 and 15 years. The youngest teachers, however, had the least agreement with this statement.

b) On the second statement stating that *independent study in the library is an activity which develops learner autonomy* teachers whose ages ranged from 40 to 50 had the highest mean rank while the youngest teachers (20-30 years old) had the lowest mean rank and the same results were obtained in their mean comparisons where the older teachers' mean was 4.43 while that of the youngest

teachers was 3.90. This indicated that the older teachers agreed that learner autonomy could be developed through independent study in the library where the youngest teachers were more doubtful.

c) On the third statement, *Learner autonomy is promoted through regular opportunities for learners to complete tasks alone*, a similar pattern emerged. Those aged 40-50 got the highest mean rank (89.36) with the mean value of 4.66 while the youngest teachers had the lowest mean rank (58.02) with the mean value of 4.10. This showed that older teachers had more positive perceptions about learners working alone than the youngest teachers.

d) On the fourth statement from survey item 7, *Involving learners in decisions about what to learn promotes learner autonomy,* the same pattern was repeated. The highest mean rank (83.22) was from teachers of 40-50 years and the lowest one (59.90) was that of the youngest teachers. Similarly, the mean comparison showed the highest mean was obtained by the older teachers (4.43) and the lowest mean was shown by the youngest teachers (3.95). The result indicated that older teachers were more willing to share decision-making with their students than their younger colleagues.

e) The next statement was on survey item 12, *Learner autonomy allows language learners to learn more effectively*. The results were similar in that the older teachers agreed with the survey statement more than the youngest teachers. The mean rank for the former was 83.05 and for the latter was 61.31 while their mean comparison showed the mean values of 4.49 and 4.14. Again, it was the older teachers who indicated more positive perceptions about the benefit of learner autonomy on language learning.

f) On the survey item 22, *Learner autonomy is promoted when learners are free to decide how their learning will be assessed*, different perceptions were shown by the same groups of teachers, those aged 40-50 and the youngest teachers of 20-30 years. The result was similar in that the older teachers had a higher mean rank at 81.26, much higher than that of the youngest teachers which was 54.33. The mean was 3.72 and 3.10 for the former and the latter respectively. This indicated that the older teachers were more positive compared to the youngest teachers about giving choice to students about their assessment.

g) The scores were not different for the last statement, survey item 27, *Learner autonomy is promoted when learners can choose their own learning materials.*

The youngest teachers, as in the previous statement, had the lowest mean rank (59.74) and mean (3.38), much lower values compared to those of the older teachers aged 40-50 years which were 83.93 and 3.96 for the mean rank and the mean. This result was again emphasised that the older teachers indicated greater support for giving freedom for learners to choose teaching materials.

Based on each of the analyses above, it could be concluded that older teachers aged 40-50 had more positive perceptions of learner autonomy than the youngest teachers (20-30 year old teachers). A pattern emerged here and it showed that the levels of agreement with promoting learner autonomy were expressed by teachers of 40-50 years, followed by those whose ages were from 50-60, 30-40 and 20-30 respectively. This may indicate that the youngest teachers wanted to have control over the students and establish their role as the dominant participant in classroom as they showed least agreement on involving students with the choices of materials, what to learn, and assessment. The youngest teachers also demonstrated the least agreement with promoting independent study in the library and encouraging students to work alone which suggests that they may not be ready to trust their students to work without the oversight of a teacher.

3) Teachers' perceptions according to qualifications

Based on their qualifications, teachers were grouped into six different groups. A Kruskal-Wallis test was done to compare teachers' perceptions but there were no statistically significant differences in the perceptions of teachers holding different qualifications. This finding indicated that in this Indonesian context, teachers' qualifications did not influence how they perceived the concept of learner autonomy.

4) Teachers' perceptions according to teaching experience

The teachers were clustered into five groups from those having between 0-5 years of experience to those having more than 20 years of teaching experience. The Kruskal-Wallis test found seven statistically significant *p*-values, indicating differences of teachers' perceptions on learner autonomy. The differences were found the response to survey items 1, 12, 19, 23, 27, 28, and 33.

a) On item 1, *Language learners of all ages can develop learner autonomy*, it was teachers whose teaching experience was in the range of 10-15 years who had the highest mean rank (81.58). The lowest mean rank was scored by teachers with the fewest years of experience, 0-5 (47.44). This result was supported by the mean comparison where the former had a mean of 4.32 and the latter of 3.71. This indicated that teachers with more experience in teaching perceived

learner autonomy more positively particularly in the sense that more experienced teachers agreed that language learners regardless of their age were capable of developing autonomy.

b) On item 12, *Learner autonomy allows language learners to learn more effectively*, teachers with 10-15 years of experience showed the highest mean rank (83.53) while the lowest mean rank (48.92) was scored by teachers with 5-10 years of teaching experience and this was shown in their mean comparison. This indicated that teachers with a moderate level of experience showed more agreement on the survey item, while their juniors showed the least agreement.

c) On item 19, *Learner autonomy is promoted by activities that encourage learners to work together*, teachers with the least experience had the highest mean rank (83.21) and those with 5-10 years of teaching experience had the lowest mean rank (51.58). However, in the mean comparison, although the highest mean was obtained by teachers with the least experience (4.35) it was the teachers with 15-20 years in the classroom who had the lowest mean (3.77), and not those with 5-10 years of experience whose mean was 3.79. This showed that those with the least experience supported the promotion of learner autonomy through working together, but those with greater experience showed less support.

d) On item 23, *Learner autonomy is a concept which is not suited to non-Western learners*, the least experienced teachers had the highest mean rank which was 79.65 and their immediate seniors whose experiences ranged from 5-10 years had the lowest mean rank (45.68). This survey item was one of those which had reversed coding and the result showed that the least experienced teachers agreed most strongly that learner autonomy suited non-Western learners.

e) On item 27, *Learner autonomy is promoted when learners can choose their own materials,* it was teachers with 15-20 years of teaching experience who had the highest mean rank (79.50) and mean (3.87), and those whose experience ranged from 5-10 years had the lowest mean rank which was 54.88. However in the mean comparison it was those with 0-5 years of experience whose mean was the lowest (3.24). However the pattern showed that teachers with more experience perceived 'giving learners freedom to choose the materials' positively but those with fewer years of teaching experience did not.

f) For item 28, *Learner-centred classrooms provide ideal conditions for developing learner autonomy*, the highest mean rank was obtained by teachers with 10-15 years of teaching experience while the lowest was obtained by those with 5-10 years of experience. This result aligned with their mean comparison. The mean rank was 81.21 and 46.39 for those groups of teachers and their means were 4.45 and 3.79 respectively. This implied that those with more experience showed more agreement that learner-centred classrooms would develop learner autonomy than those with fewer years of experience.

g) Item 33, *Motivated language learners are more likely to develop learner autonomy than learners who are not motivated* revealed results that were similar to those for the previous item. Those teachers with 10-15 years of teaching experience had the highest mean rank (83.25) and those with 5-10 years of teaching experience had the lowest mean rank (59.82). This was further supported by the mean comparison where a similar result was obtained, 4.61 for the former and 4.16 for the latter. This showed that teachers with 10-15 years of teaching experience had more agreement that motivation played a role in the development of learner autonomy compared to those with 5-10 years of teaching experience.

The statistical analysis above shows that more experienced teachers had more positive perceptions that the age, motivation, learner-centred classrooms, and freedom to choose the materials would enhance the development of learner autonomy. More experienced teachers agreed that learners of all ages who had motivation could develop their autonomy in learning. Learner autonomy could further be enhanced through the use of a learner-centred teaching approach where students were involved in material selection. In contrast, teachers with the least experience did not think the way their seniors did. Instead, they only agreed that learner autonomy can be developed with non-Western learners and one way to promote this is by giving learner opportunities to work together. One possible reason was that less experienced teachers did not want to lose the control over material used in the class and they wanted to control in the class by not applying a learner-centred approach.

5) Teachers' perceptions based on the types of school

When responses were grouped according to the type of school where the teachers worked, there were five groups of teachers: state school teachers (57.1%), Islamic school teachers (32.1%), Catholic school teachers (4.3%), Christian school teachers (1.4%) and

other non-religious school teachers (5%). A Kruskal-Wallis test was performed to compare teachers' perceptions by school type. The result showed three statistically significant *p*-values, reflecting there were differences in perceptions among these groups of teachers. The responses to survey items 3, 7 and 12 were most significant.

a) On item 3, *Learner autonomy is promoted through regular opportunities for learners to complete tasks alone*, the highest mean rank (79.98) was obtained by state school teachers while the lowest mean rank (45.00) was obtained by Christian school teachers. This result corresponded with their mean comparison where the mean of the former group was 4.53 while the latter was 4.00. This indicated a higher agreement from state school teachers with giving students chances to complete their tasks alone as a way to promote learner autonomy. The least agreement was shown by those teaching in Christian schools although this result may have been affected by the small number of respondents coming from these schools.

b) On item 7, *Involving learners in decisions about what to learn promotes learner autonomy*, it was the Christian school teachers who had the highest mean rank, showing their strong support for sharing the decision making on what to learn with their students. Those having the lowest mean rank were Islamic school teachers, indicating that they had doubts about involving the students in deciding what to learn. The mean ranks for those groups of teachers were 86.75 and 55.92, and the means were 4.50 and 3.93 respectively. This showed that Islamic schools teachers kept more control over decisions on learning materials, while Christian school teachers were more willing to welcome their students' opinions about suitable learning materials. This might be because in Islamic schools content was determined by the board of schools. Teachers were responsible for selecting books and materials to use in the class that fit the board's guidelines.

c) On item 12, *Learner autonomy allows language learners to lean more effectively*, teachers from other non-religious schools had the highest mean rank (78.36). The lowest mean rank was shown by those teaching in Catholic schools (46.33). The mean comparison corresponded with this result, showing the former group mean as 4.43 and the latter was 3.83. This showed that those teaching in schools other than state, Islamic, Catholic, or other Christian

schools had the strongest beliefs about the advantages of learner autonomy, but those from Catholic schools had the least agreement on the same item.

6) Teachers' perceptions according to the grade taught

Based on the grade taught, there were three groups of teachers: those teaching grade VII, grade VIII and grade IX. The Kruskal-Wallis test was performed to compare the perceptions of those groups of teachers. However there were no statistically significant *p*-values on the test results which meant that teaching a particular grade did not influence teachers' perceptions of developing learner autonomy.

7) Teachers' perceptions based on distance from school to Borobudur Temple

Based on the school distance from the tourist area, there were five groups of teachers. They were grouped depending on distance from 0-5 kilometres to more than 20 kilometres. The Kruskal-Wallis test presented the mean rank of those groups' scores and there were two significant *p*-values. Those significant results were for survey items 11 and 32.

a) On item 11, *Confident language learners are more likely to develop autonomy than those who lack confidence*, those teaching in schools located 5-10 kilometres from Borobudur temple had the highest mean rank (74.06), while those teaching in the closest schools (0-5 kilometres) had the lowest mean rank (47.63). The mean comparison produced a similar result, indicating that teachers in the closest area to the tourist site did not perceive students' confidence as important for developing learner autonomy.

b) On item 32, *The ability to monitor one's learning is central to the development of learner autonomy*, those teaching at schools located 5-10 kilometres from the temple had the highest mean rank (76.70) while those having the lowest mean rank (52.38) were those teaching in schools located 15-20 kilometres from the temple. The mean comparisons showed similar results, 4.36 and 3.88 respectively. This meant that the latter group had less agreement that the ability to monitor one's learning affects the development of their autonomy.

From the findings above then it could be inferred that the teachers teaching at schools located 5-10 kilometres away expressed the most agreement that confidence and the ability to monitor one's learning were important elements for developing learner autonomy.

4.2.3 Factor analysis.

The Likert scale questionnaire used in this study was designed with ten constructs underlying the 37 survey items. Each construct was represented by a number of survey items. Those constructs were:

1) Technical perspective on learner autonomy
2) Psychological perspective on learner autonomy
3) Social perspective on learner autonomy
4) Political perspective on learner autonomy
5) The role of teacher in learner autonomy
6) The relevance of learner autonomy to diverse cultural contexts
7) Age and learner autonomy
8) Proficiency and learner autonomy
9) The implications of learner autonomy on teaching methodology
10) The relationship between learner autonomy and effective language learning

In this study, a principal component factor analysis was conducted on the 37 survey items with varimax rotation to show which variables (survey items) grouped under each factor. The Kayser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO 0.698. The analysis was carried out to obtain eigenvalues for each factor in the data. The results showed that 12 factors had eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1 and in combination explained 67.2% of the variance. This showed that there were 12 constructs underlying the 37 survey items.

Factor analysis done in this study provided a statistical method for grouping the survey items according to the commonality among them, particularly in measuring the same concept. This was another way of classifying the survey items statistically. The factor analysis classified the 37 items into 12 components indicating that statistically there were 12 components or constructs underlying all the survey items.

Factor analysis in my study was done after analysis to see how the survey items grouped statistically. My analysis showed that there were 12 constructs emerging from the 37 items. However, grouping those survey items into 10 constructs was also possible especially by explicitly specifying the desired number of the constructs in the statistical analysis (forcing the maximum number into 10). It was not clear to me whether S. Borg and Al-Busaidi had decided the number of the constructs prior to the analysis or if they used the constructs emerging naturally in the statistical analysis. Irrespective of the methods they used in deciding the number of constructs, changing the constructs was not the purpose

of my study. My main intention was to use the original instrument to identify Indonesian teachers' perceptions about learner autonomy and make some comparisons with other studies that used a similar questionnaire. Therefore, I maintained S. Borg and Al-Busaidi's original constructs and I did not regroup or rename them into the 12 constructs I found in my factor analysis. The 12 constructs are presented in Appendix 7.

Further, to check the correlation among test items in each construct, the reliability of each construct item was measured. Besides enabling comparisons with the results of previous studies, checking the reliability assured the internal consistency of the instrument. This is described in the following section.

4.2.4 Reliability tests.

To measure the internal consistency of the survey items in each construct, a reliability test was performed. In this case, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to indicate how strong or weak the correlation was among the survey items. The comparisons of those constructs coefficient are as follows:

Table 3. Alpha Coefficient in the original constructs and the new constructs

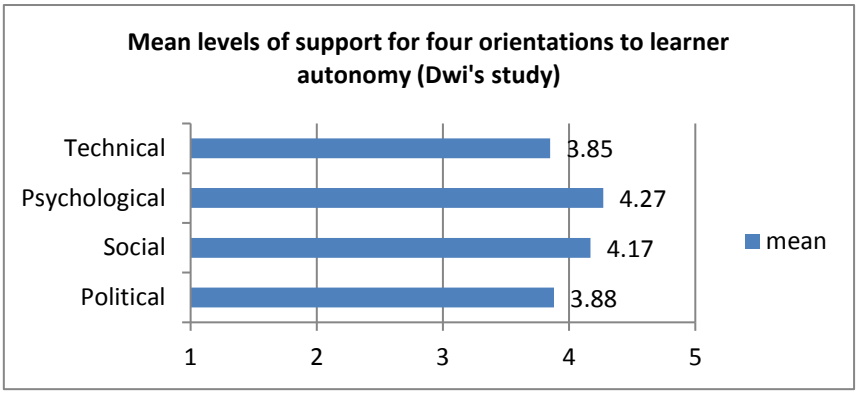
No	Alpha Coefficient for Original Constructs	Alpha Coefficient for New Constructs
1	0.364	0.823
2	0.727	0.653
3	0.619	0.623
4	0.568	0.669
5	0.352	0.672
6	-0.001	-0.765
7	0.242	-0.832
8	0.455	0.461
9	0.549	0.458
10	0.355	0.430

Using the original constructs above, comparisons were made between S. Borg and Al-Busaidi's study and this study for the first four constructs.

Table 4. The comparison of alpha coefficient in S. Borg and Al-Busaidi's study and in this study

Constructs	Alpha coefficient in S. Borg and Al-Busaidi's study	Alpha coefficient in this study
Technical	0.57	0.36
Psychological	0.63	0.72
Social	0.51	0.61
Political	0.53	0.57

From Table 4, it can be seen that this study had a lower alpha coefficient in the first construct compared to S. Borg and Al-Busaidi's study (0.36). However in the other three constructs, the data in this study showed higher coefficient values which means that this study proved that there was a strong correlation of the survey items in those constructs. However neither of the alpha coefficients were within the standard acceptable range where the alpha coefficient should be equal or higher than 0.70. Because the alpha coefficient was so low, it was important to report the mean of each construct to create a composite variable from all items grouped together for each construct. The mean comparison is presented in the following figures:



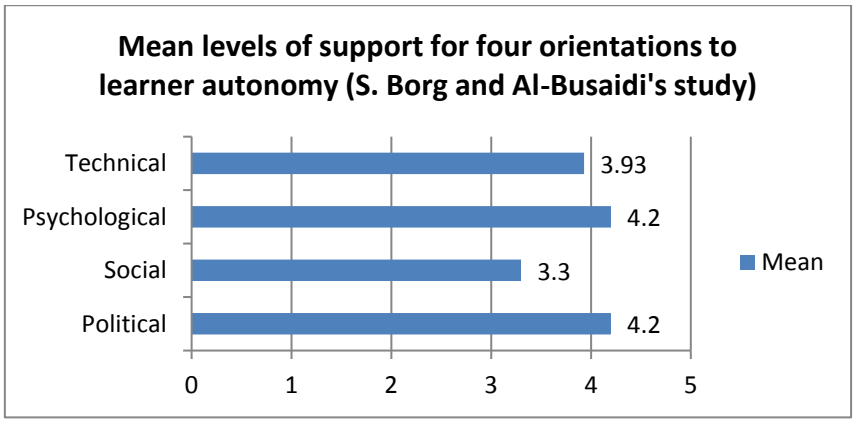


Figure 13. Mean comparison of the four constructs in this study and S. Borg and Al-Busaidi's study

Each of the constructs presented in the figures above was represented by different questionnaire items. Items 11, 29, 32, 33, and 37 were specifically designed to represent psychological perspectives of autonomy. The authors did not specify which survey items belonged to each construct but the survey items can be identified from the theoretical descriptions given by S. Borg and Al-Busaidi for each of the constructs. For example, the social perspective of autonomy is described in relation to the promotion of learner autonomy through cooperation and social interaction (p.14) and items 16, 19, and 25

represent this construct. The political dimension of autonomy relates to the situation where learners are given choices in deciding aspects of their learning, and the survey items 4, 7, 14, 22, 27 represent this construct. The technical dimension of autonomy which focuses on independent learning outside the classroom contexts is represented by items 2, 6, 21, and 31. Similarly, the other constructs can be identified based on each construct's description.

The figures above show that Indonesian teachers had the highest mean for the psychological perspective of learner autonomy (4.27) as did the teachers in S. Borg and Al-Busaidi's study. This indicated that teachers in both studies agreed that students required particular mental attributes for the development of autonomy. The second highest mean from my study was for the social perspective on learner autonomy (4.17) which in S. Borg and Al-Busaidi's study was the lowest (3.3). This may indicate that Indonesian teachers regarded cooperative work or group work as an important aspect for promoting learner autonomy, although in S. Borg and Al-Busaidi's study teachers regarded individual work as more important than group work as indicated by a higher mean for the technical perspective (3.93) than for the social perspective (3.3). Thus the patterns of the four constructs showed that Indonesian teachers had lowest agreement with the technical and political perspectives of learner autonomy, while in S. Borg and Al-Busaidi's study, Omani teachers showed the least support for the technical and social perspectives. This suggests that Indonesian teachers regarded giving choices to students in their learning and giving students the chance to learn outside the classroom as less necessary for developing learner autonomy than working in groups.

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CHAPTER V
FINDINGS FROM THE QUALITATIVE PART OF THE SURVEY

This chapter covers the findings of the qualitative part of the survey. There were two open-ended questions in the second section of the questionnaire addressing teachers' understanding and perceptions about the new 2013 Curriculum, and also teachers' views of the learning resources available in their local environment which is a tourist destination. As reported in the methodology chapter, the findings of this section were generated from a thematic content analysis organized using NVivo 10.

The findings presented in this chapter, however, only cover what teachers reported in the questionnaire. One limitation of the research instrument in my study was the restricted space for teachers' answers. I allowed only 100 words for the teachers' answers and this might have limited what teachers could have said. However, even when they did not write anything about independent learning, the 37 survey items in the first section of the survey suggested that no teachers held negative perceptions about autonomy. In terms of the new curriculum, some participants told me in advance that they had had no training in implementing the new curriculum and felt limited in how much they could comment about the curriculum. With this kind of context, I was not sure whether their lack of responses suggested ignorance of the curriculum. I was keen to find this out in the qualitative phase.

5.1 Teachers' Knowledge and Thoughts about the New 2013 Curriculum

The survey data showed that in addressing the question "What do you know or think about the new 2013 curriculum changes?" teachers' responses demonstrated diverse understandings of the new curriculum. In the thematic analysis 434 nodes (child nodes) emerged from their answers. Those child nodes were the result of the open coding and they served as the initial codes (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). These initial codes were organized further to construct the categories and theme through the stages suggested by Graneheim and Lundman (2004). The initial codes were then grouped into 40 focused codes (served as sub-codes), 20 codes and 11 sub-categories which further coalesced into four main categories as represented in the following table.

Table 5. The theme and categories emerging from teachers' responses to question 1

Sub-categories	Categories	Theme
Background of changes	The nature of curriculum changes	Teachers' knowledge and thoughts about the new 2013 curriculum
Domain of changes		
Strength of changes		
New teaching and learning methods	The nature of the new teaching and learning	
New assessment		
New learning resources		
New roles of teachers and students		
Internal constraints	Constraints of the new curriculum	
External constraints		
Feedback on the new curriculum	Teachers' feedback and further suggestions on the new curriculum	
Suggestions about the new curriculum		

Among those four main categories, the majority of teachers (70% or 102 respondents) addressed the question within the first category or the nature of curriculum changes. The next three categories were addressed by 57%, 37% and 53% of teachers respectively. The comparison of the number of teachers addressing the survey question within the four different categories is presented in the following chart.

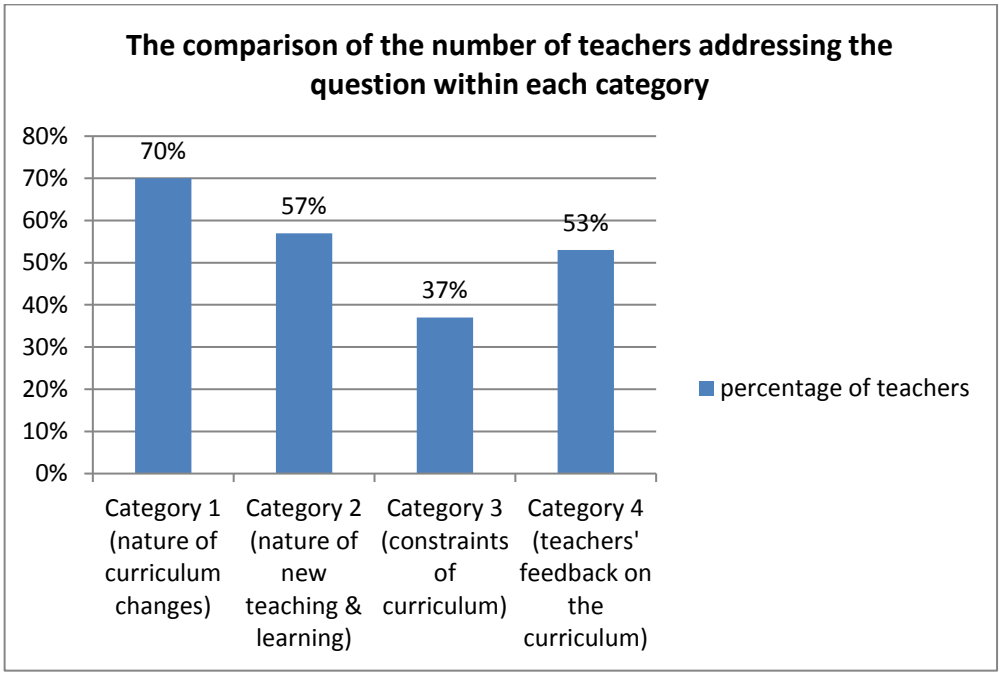

Figure 14. The percentage of teachers' responses in each category

The chart shows that most teachers had some understanding about the new curriculum and they recognised that it required teachers to adapt to new ways of teaching and learning. While constraints from this curriculum implementation were identified by

around one-third of the respondents, more than half of the respondents offered positive responses. The following sections present further details of the sub-categories within each category.

5.1.1 The nature of curriculum changes.

This category represents the answers of 70% of the respondents on their understanding about the new curriculum. Teachers described their understanding of the rationale for the new curriculum implementation, the domain of the changes, and the strengths of the revised curriculum.

a. The background of the changes.

The implementation of the new curriculum was perceived by 44% of teachers as resulting from two main factors namely new challenges and new targets (goals) within national education. Some teachers (3%) acknowledged the presence of those challenges:

> The changes of the curriculum (into 2013 curriculum) were done because of various internal and external challenges.

The internal challenges involved the need to build students' character and competency as the teachers believed that the older generation had some concerns about the moral degradation of young people. The external challenges were perceived as pressures coming from the 21st century era of globalisation where education was expected to generate competent students who would be competitive internationally. One teacher remarked:

> It (2013 curriculum) is a curriculum which meets the challenges of globalization era. This curriculum is very appropriate especially in its attitude evaluation which [addresses the issues of] youth naughtiness, moral decadence, and a decrease in national unity.

In other words, globalization, the potential moral degradation of youth, and 21st century models of learning accounted for the new curriculum in Indonesia.

Many teachers (44%) believed that new national educational goals exposed a need for curriculum change to improve the quality of education and curriculum, teachers, as well as student achievement. Most teachers mentioned improving students' academic and non-academic quality as the main target of the curriculum. Three proposed student characteristics most commonly mentioned by teachers were that they should be active, autonomous and creative. Using the wording of the new curriculum, one of the teachers specified students' characteristics:

> A curriculum is an element contributing to the developmental processes of students' potential quality. The 2013 curriculum is designed based on the competences required to develop students in becoming: a qualified person who is capable of and productive in meeting global challenges, an educated person who has faith in Allah and who is noble, healthy, intelligent, skilful, creative and autonomous, and a responsible and democratic citizen.

To improve student quality, teachers were also required to change:

> This curriculum is designed to create more active, creative and autonomous students and teachers.

In terms of curriculum improvement, some teachers mentioned that the 2013 curriculum wished to improve the quality of the teaching resources, learning processes and curriculum governance:

> The 2013 curriculum is the continuation of the previous curriculum and it has been implemented with the expectation that teaching and learning processes and activities will improve and accelerate the attainment of the education goals.

These answers indicated teachers' understanding of the rationale for curriculum change.

b. Domain of changes.

Forty-four percent of the respondents reported the domains where changes to the curriculum had been made. A few teachers (6%) stated that changes had been made to the national standards of education:

> There are four changes within 2013 curriculum, to: graduate competence standards, standards of process, standards of content, and evaluation standards.

The curriculum orientation and stakeholders' ways of thinking about education were also perceived to have changed for the better. The new curriculum was perceived by 26% of teachers to achieve a balance of competence, learner autonomy and character building. These were all specified in teachers' responses:

> The 2013 curriculum is an improvement on the previous curriculum and it aims at developing students' autonomy and building their characters.

It is a curriculum where students

> are required to be autonomous and active in searching for information without relying too much on their teachers.

Nearly a quarter of the respondents (23%) believed that those involved in education, mainly teachers and students, needed to change their ways of thinking about teaching and learning:

> The 2013 curriculum shows the changes of mind sets (ways of thinking) in the teaching and learning processes, from teacher-centred to student-centred, from one way interaction to interactive interaction, from passive to active learning, etc.

In addition, they felt that the roles and contexts for education were less fixed than in the past:

> anyone can be the teacher, anyone can be the learner and any place can be the classroom.

In short, according to many participants, the curriculum documents were intended to change the orientation to education and the mind sets of educators.

c. Strengths of change.

The curriculum changes were viewed by 17% of teachers as benefitting teachers and students and an improvement on the previous curriculum. The syllabus was prepared by the government which reduced teachers' workload:

> The positive side of this curriculum covers the availability of syllabus so that each teacher's task is only to develop lesson plans from it.

These teachers also believed that this new curriculum had the potential to develop students' skills, improve their knowledge and make them more enthusiastic and effective learners:

> I see that this curriculum is good and it enables the learners to improve their ability and develop their potential. Learners can become critical and persistent.

This new curriculum was also felt to be an improvement on the previous curriculum:

> The 2013 curriculum is a more organized curriculum; teaching preparation and student evaluation have been fully covered in teachers' and students' books.

It emphasised building students' character through developing more active and autonomous learners:

> The 2013 curriculum is different from the previous curriculum. Within this curriculum students are required to be autonomous. The teaching and learning focus is on students (students-centred) by reducing teachers' roles.

Students were no more viewed as knowledge receivers, but were expected to become knowledge constructors:

> The learning process (of this curriculum) changes the learners from the ones who are taught and told about the knowledge as in the 2013 curriculum they have to find out by themselves.

The teachers' answers above showed that they perceived some benefits from the new curriculum. They clearly articulated what they perceived as good for them and their students. They also perceived that the new curriculum was a refinement of the previous curriculum.

5.1.2 The nature of the new teaching and learning.

The second category covered teachers' understanding of the nature of teaching and learning proposed by the new curriculum. Nearly 60% of teachers (57%) knew that the new curriculum had revised teaching and learning processes, assessment methods, teachers' and students' roles, and resources types to be used for teaching and learning activities.

a. New teaching and learning methods.

Forty-two percent of teachers wrote that the changes were reflected in the activities, approaches, methods, and learning models recommended for use in the classrooms. About one third of the teachers (33%) described that within the implementation of the new curriculum there was now a

> scientific approach which promotes students' critical thinking and student-centred learning processes employing project-based learning, problem-based learning, [and] discovery learning.

According to 21% of the teachers, the main activities promoted by this scientific approach were "5M" activities:

> The differences between the 2013 curriculum and the previous curriculum lie in the learning processes which according to the government regulation No 81A year 2013 appendix IV, consist of observing, questioning, collecting information or experimenting, associating, and communicating.

Other activities mentioned by another 13% of teachers included

> creating a new product and working cooperatively, to develop their language skills autonomously through either group work or individual work.

The new way of teaching also came with new tasks for teachers:

> Teachers are required to be able to develop learning materials by themselves and present them with interesting media and a variety of methods so that the learners are interested and challenged in learning.

These answers suggested that teachers recognized the expectations of the new curriculum for them to revise their teaching methods. Some of the answers used the wording of the curriculum and this suggested that teachers had read and learnt the curriculum content.

b. New assessment.

The new curriculum proposed new assessment processes where evaluation covered not only knowledge and skills, but also assessed students' social, spiritual and mental attitudes. This was reported by 14% of teachers in their questionnaires:

> The [student] evaluation is not limited to their knowledge and skills, but it includes the evaluation of [students'] spiritual and social attitudes.

Teachers were aware that evaluation used three main methods:

> The system of character evaluation is done through individual evaluation processes, peer evaluation and teachers' observations which further may alter students' characters.

Teachers also mentioned the work load involved:

> The evaluation system which is complete and complex means that every activity done by learners is appreciated and evaluated. This takes time and requires care and thoroughness of teachers in giving the scores.

By involving more aspects and more parties in assessment, evaluation was seen by teachers as holistic, complex and time-consuming, and as making them increasingly accountable.

c. New learning resources.

Ten percent of teachers mentioned that

> The learning process should cover the development of three areas: knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

Moreover, teachers observed that the teaching resources suggested in the new curriculum were IT-based. A characteristic of the new curriculum mentioned by a teacher was:

> The using of IT as a media in teaching and learning process.

This demanded the teachers' skills to use technology:

> Teachers are required to learn further to be able to deliver the IT-based materials.

Similarly, the students had to learn to use IT:

> The 2013 curriculum used a student-centred approach so it demanded students' active learning through both the scientific approach and the use of IT.

The curriculum also required the use of media such as the computers, internet, laptops and LCD (liquid-crystal display) projectors. Teachers wrote:

> [A]teacher who uses curriculum 2013 should not give information/ method/ material all the time to the learners as [in the] conventional

> ways; but as a teacher, he/she should give students opportunities for browsing information from the internet or other media.

> Before begin teaching, we prepare our lesson plan first, it is better to use teaching media with technology tools, like LCD, Laptop etc.

The learning settings also were extended to students' houses, surroundings and society:

> Students' learning takes place at home, in school, and in the society.

And

> With scientific approach, students are expected to be more enthusiastic in learning both inside and outside the classroom.

Those answers indicated that teachers, friends, family and other people were regarded as learning resources by the respondents. These human resources, especially family, were considered by teachers as able to contribute to students' learning at home and society.

d. New roles of teachers and students.

The roles of teachers and students were also seen to be changed by the new curriculum. Nearly one-third of the teachers (32%) mentioned 11 types of students' new roles and 17 new roles for teachers. Students were expected to be active, autonomous, communicative, cooperative, creative, critical, innovative, and smart learners. An example of their answers was:

> KTPS (school-based curriculum) [is a change from] the 2013 curriculum. It works more on enhancing and optimising students' active participation in teaching and learning activities (when previously students were the objects of teaching and learning activities they are now to be the subjects of teaching and learning activities).

Similarly, teachers were required to be active, creative, and innovative. They would serve more as facilitators, evaluators, guides, helpers, motivators, supporters, classroom organizers, IT masters, learners, lesson plan and material developers, as well as task, feedback and conclusion givers. One teacher explained that:

> The roles of teachers within the teaching and learning activities [now include] becoming facilitators, organizing the teaching and learning activities, giving feedback, giving explanations, giving confirmation. Teachers do not just allow the students to construct the knowledge by themselves but teachers must also give the necessary assistance for the students.

Figure 15 shows the number of teachers who mentioned the new aspects of teaching and learning mandated by the new curriculum.

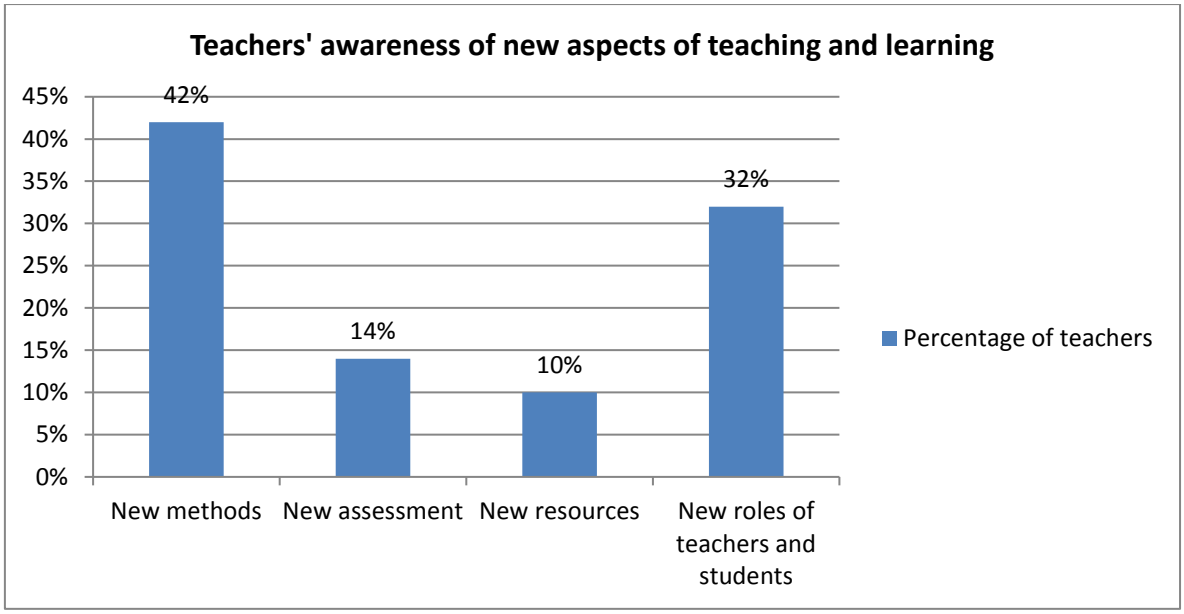

Figure 15. Teachers' view of the changes to teaching and learning

The figure above shows that the new methods introduced by the 2013 curriculum were foremost in many teachers' minds. The next most significant aspect they were aware of was the renewed roles for themselves and their students. The new approaches to assessment and resources were reported by a smaller number of teachers.

5.1.3 Constraints of the new curriculum.

The next theme concerned the constraints of the new curriculum mentioned by teachers. The data revealed that out of 145 teachers, 53 (or 37%) of them perceived obstacles that might hinder the successful implementation of the curriculum. Those factors are presented as follows:

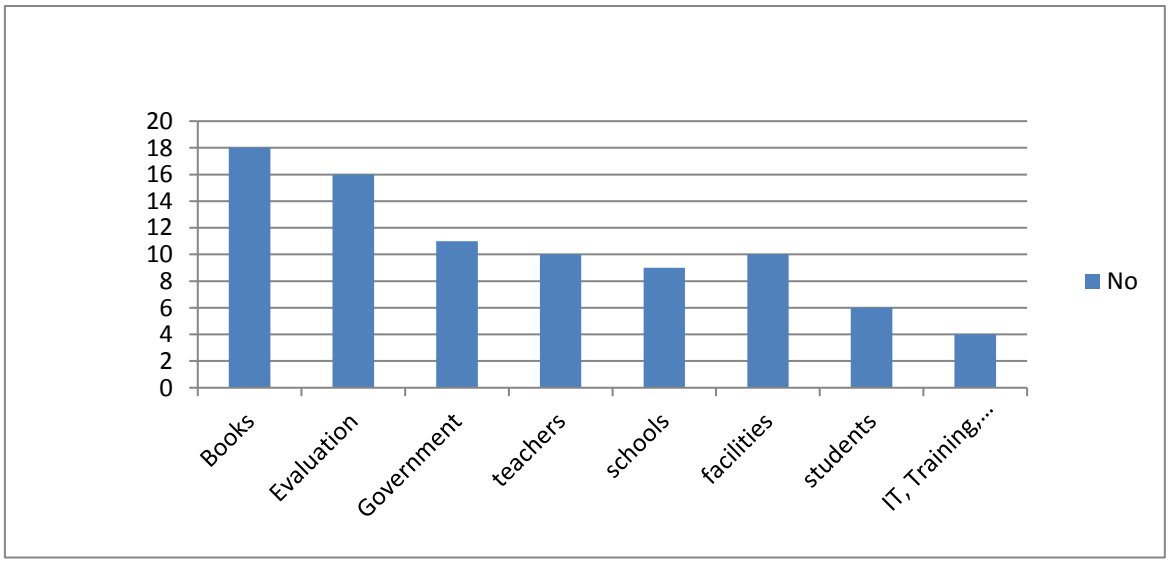

Figure 16. Obstacles to implementing the new curriculum

Table 6 shows the relationships among these obstacles:

Table 6. Factors contributing to problems in the curriculum implementation

Constraints of the new curriculum								
External								Internal
Insufficient preparation of people			Limited resources			Unsupportive settings		Problematic evaluation
government	teachers	students	Books	facilities	IT & Training	schools	social context	evaluations

The table above shows that teachers reported both external and internal constraints to implementing the curriculum. Internal constraints were those coming from the curriculum itself and the external constraints came from outside the curriculum. Both of them are described below:

a. Internal constraints.

Teachers felt that the new approaches to evaluation proposed in the new curriculum would constrain their practice. Evaluation was perceived by 16 teachers or 11% of the respondents as a problem. These teachers found the new assessment requirements were complicated, burdening and hard to manage:

> The weakness, however, is that teachers are burdened too much for evaluation processes.

The assessment was perceived as time-consuming since teachers had to write quite long evaluations for each student:

> what is felt to be hard is the evaluation process as it takes so much time that it may affect the teaching and learning processes.

There was also a lack of clarity about the national examination as teachers were unsure of its content, coverage, and forms. A teacher wrote:

> In theory, 2013 curriculum is good … But in reality there are various polemics which invite many questions: why is the evaluation made complicated? Why does the lesson plan force the questioning [stage] which is often interpreted incorrectly? Why has the formulation of national exam not been completed? Why have students' textbooks not arrived for nearly one semester?

These answers indicated not only teachers' objection to the new system of evaluation but also their lack of knowledge about it and how it works in relation to the national examination.

b. External constraints.

Most of the constraints to curriculum implementation were perceived to come from external factors that included people, settings, and facilities.

1) Insufficient preparation of people

The survey data revealed that those involved in the curriculum implementation did not feel prepared.

a) Government

Eleven teachers (8%) reported delays by the government in distributing books and providing training:

> The government can't deliver the books that must be used on time.

and

> The preparation of the teaching staff or teachers was not done equally. At the beginning of the new academic year, there were still training and workshops being held.

These were seen by some teachers as an indication of the government's lack of preparation for the new curriculum implementation.

b) Teachers

Teachers also perceived themselves as an obstacle to implementation. Ten teachers (7%) mentioned that teachers were unprepared and had limited knowledge of and skills associated with the curriculum, computers and technology. They felt that

> the constraint is that a lot of teachers and facilities are not yet ready.

It was also mentioned that changing their teaching style was hard:

> Some constraints include precisely how to change the teaching style of teachers who are used to teaching with the teacher-centred approach into teachers who are facilitators with students at the centre (student-centred).

These answers suggest that teachers were aware of their lack of readiness to implement the curriculum.

c) Students

A small number (5%) of the teachers believed that students' lack of motivation and limited abilities would undermine the curriculum implementation. These teachers asserted that

> The 2013 curriculum may be not appropriate for schools whose students are low in motivation and capabilities.

Teachers also felt working in isolated schools exacerbated the difficulty in implementing a student-centred approach and they believed that

> Schools located in marginal areas where most students are low-motivated are hard to involve in student-centred activities.

These answers indicated that teachers perceived that their students were not ready or able to learn in ways advocated by the new curriculum.

2) *Unsupportive Settings.*

Settings referred to the places where the curriculum was implemented which included schools and wider environment.

a) Schools

Schools' location, size and type were viewed as problematic by 6% of the respondents. Schools located in villages, or isolated rural areas were perceived to have more problems in implementing the curriculum as students in these areas were felt to have limited motivation and capability and these schools were more likely to lack books and other facilities. Teachers wrote:

> The changes required in the 2013 curriculum have not been adjusted according to the school's facilities, especially in small schools where facilities are limited.

Teachers acknowledged that while private schools faced problems in implementing the curriculum due to the limited numbers of books, problems in small schools were believed to result from limited facilities.

b) Social contexts

An unsupportive social context was also perceived to be part of the problem by less than 5% of the respondents. This was seen as a particular issue where the social environment was not in alignment with the teaching in school, such as:

> when the schools want to build [aspects of] students' character like politeness, but outside the schools the education they receive does not support them to be polite.

3) *Lack of support or facilities.*

Facilities and supports which were expected to facilitate the implementation of the new curriculum such as books, LCD, internets, IT, and training were lacking and this appeared to work against the successful implementation of the new curriculum.

a) Books

Limited availability of text books was mentioned by 18 teachers (12%) as a problem preventing curriculum implementation.

> Up to now, there are insufficient student books for each student (one book for one student) while teachers' books are not available.

Teachers believed that this impacted on the teaching and learning in the classrooms. One outcome of having insufficient or no books was the continued use of the previous curriculum by a number of teachers.

> Textbooks from the government have not come to schools and therefore there are some teachers who still use the old curriculum.

b) Facilities

Limited IT facilities such as access to the internet, LCDs, and laptops, were mentioned as contributing problems. These were identified by ten teachers (7%) who made comments in their questionnaires such as:

> For schools where facilities are not complete or poor, teaching and learning activities will be difficult to conduct or the results will not meet the expectations.

c) Teacher training

Limited opportunities for professional learning was felt to be a problem by a very small number of teachers (3%). A teacher wrote:

> The five days of training is insufficient.

These answers indicated that teachers expected more supports in the new curriculum implementation.

5.1.4 Teachers' feedback on the new curriculum.

Over half of the teachers (53%) described their thoughts and perceptions about the new curriculum. Positive, negative, neutral, mixed feedback was given along with suggestions to improve the implementation of the curriculum.

a. Positive Feedback

Fifty teachers (34%) expressed a positive response to the curriculum. They considered that it was the most appropriate and the best curriculum. One teacher felt that:

> The 2013 curriculum is the most appropriate formula to be applied in Indonesia now.

The teachers believed that the curriculum supported the development of learner autonomy, creativity, skills, knowledge and attitudes. Some wrote:

> The 2013 curriculum is very effective to train students' autonomy and creativity.

It was also felt that the curriculum met the need for character-building.

> With the 2013 curriculum it is expected that students will not only have good knowledge, but also become skilful and behave well, so that they are ready to compete in the global context.

Teachers appreciated that this curriculum provided greater opportunities for students to be active learners. They wrote:

> The positive thing in the 2013 curriculum is that it intends to reduce the teachers' domination of the learning activity.

In addition, they felt that it was important that students were prepared to learn outside the classroom:

> My opinion about the 2013 curriculum is that this curriculum is basically very good to be implemented at schools. Students will become active and learn from the environment, and the learning activities will take place in a more interesting way.

b. Negative Feedback

Forty-three teachers (30%) viewed the new curriculum negatively. They expressed their dissatisfaction about a number of issues:

> The changes of the curriculum from KTSP to 2013 curriculum are inappropriate for the situation and condition of education in Indonesia. There are several lessons whose hours each week have been reduced or increased. In particular, English classes, [which are] lessons assessed in the national examination, have only 4 hours / week and for Senior High School only 2 hours per week. In elementary school, English has even been dropped, and this is inappropriate. The text books from the government have not arrived so that there are some teachers using the old curriculum.

Since it had been put into practice very quickly, the curriculum was perceived by the teachers as unfinished:

> I only know that the new 2013 curriculum [has been introduced] so suddenly that it is not ready and there are still changes [being made] here and there even up to now.

Some of the teachers could not understand the curriculum objectives and felt unready to implement them. One mentioned:

> I do not completely understand it and I still need training and further understanding.

The evaluation in particular was perceived as complicated and confusing by teachers:

> We don't understand about the actual classroom evaluation.

c. Neutral feedback.

Teachers who were neutral (6%) did not show explicitly where they stood but thought that it would take a long time to set in place. They mentioned that

> The 2013 curriculum can be implemented but it takes more than this very short time for its implementation.

The new curriculum was seen to have good objectives, make students active and autonomous but it would be successful only if it was supported by better facilities. A teacher wrote:

> The 2013 curriculum can activate students in learning if it is supported by teachers' capabilities and adequate facilities.

d. Mixed Feedback

Another 19% of teachers gave mixed feedback as they could see both positive and negative sides of the curriculum. They mainly mentioned that the curriculum was good but the implementation was a challenge due to the lack of readiness of the teachers and having to wait for books from the government:

> The 2013 curriculum is actually very good and I agree that it should be used in teaching the students because they can understand what is taught by teachers. In this case, they are asked to observe, question, collect the information, analyse and communicate. But the constraint in the curriculum lies in the unavailability of the textbooks up to now.

They approved of the inclusion of attitudes in the evaluation, and the enhancement of students' active participation and creativity. Teachers explained that the curriculum was an effective incentive to train learners to be autonomous and creative but the facilities to support the implementation were not readily available:

> With the curriculum changing from a school-based curriculum into the 2013 curriculum, a positive influence comes within the teaching and learning activities in the classrooms as students have to be more active and teachers serve as facilitators. But for schools whose facilities are limited then the teaching and learning activities are difficult to practise and the results are far from the required expectations.

The problem was worsened by what some teachers described as the complicated evaluation which was hard to understand. Students with limited

motivation to learn were also mentioned as inhibiting the curriculum implementation by a very few teachers.

e. Further suggestions

A small number of teachers (6%) offered suggestions to improve the new curriculum implementation. They suggested that the government should have provided resources before rolling out the new curriculum:

> It is better that we prepare everything first and then we start using the new curriculum.

And

> Before it is implemented in each school, facilities should be completed by the government.

Teachers mentioned that teacher training to adapt to the changes should be ongoing:

> Teachers' understanding about the 2013 curriculum is very poor, so the training on the curriculum within small groups in the cluster activities based on the lessons taught by teachers should be done continuously so that teachers as the educational drivers gain better understanding of it and the content of the curriculum can be completely mastered.

It was felt that the government should also take into account the diversity of students' capabilities, omit the national examination which was not considered to be in line with the philosophy underpinning the curriculum, and revise and streamline the evaluation system. Teachers wrote:

> I do not think it is appropriate if students have to sit national examinations during the implementation of the 2013 curriculum. This is because the students will only master a lot of theories and not the practices and skills.

Interestingly out of 145 teachers, there was only one teacher who offered a solution for the lack of textbooks. This teacher suggested that other teachers could copy and share what they had:

> The problem faced is a technical one as up to now the textbooks for teachers and students have not arrived. But this is not a real big problem. Teachers can still solve this problem by copying the books.

The findings above indicated that teachers had gained some understanding about the new 2013 curriculum. Teachers were aware of some of the reasons for the curriculum changes, the aspects that had been amended, the new teaching methods, and some of the

curriculum constraints they faced. Teachers were also able to offer feedback and suggestions to improve the current practices and implementation of the new curriculum.

5.2 Learning Opportunities in the Local Environment

The second open-ended question asked teachers about what they saw as learning opportunities in the environment outside the classrooms for students to learn English. The participating teachers recognised a wide range of activities, resources, benefits, constraints, supports, current practices, feedback and suggestions concerning the use of learning opportunities outside the classrooms in Magelang Regency.

In the analysis, 85 child nodes emerged in the open coding and they were regarded as initial codes. These 85 initial codes were then grouped into 20 focused codes (sub-codes), 12 codes, 9 sub-categories, 3 categories and 1 theme. These are presented in the following table.

Table 7. The theme and categories emerging from teachers' responses to question 2

Sub-Categories	Categories	Theme
language and non-language learning practices	Learning resources and activities	Learning opportunities outside the classrooms in the local environments recognized by English teachers
human learning resources		
various places as learning resources		
various things as learning resources		
benefits of the outside classroom learning	Benefits, supports and constraints of using outside-classroom learning	
supports for learning outside classrooms		
constraints for learning outside the classrooms		
teachers' feedback	Feedback on using outside-classroom learning and the current practices	
current practices		

Teachers' responses to the question in each of the categories were also analysed numerically. The following figure represents this analysis.

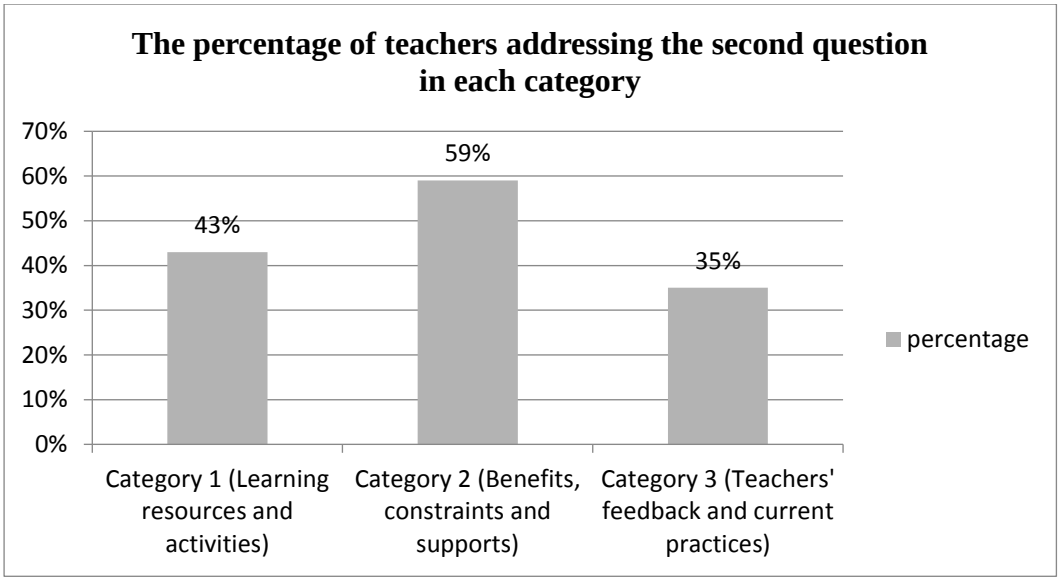

Figure 17. The percentage of teachers' responses in each category

The chart shows that the teachers participating in the quantitative survey were most concerned about the benefits, constraints and supports offered by the new curriculum. A smaller number of teachers (43%) recognized the learning opportunities offered by the local areas, and teachers' feedback on and current practices using outside-classroom learning opportunities concerned 35% of the respondents. The details of each category are presented in the following section.

5.2.1 Learning resources and activities.

This category covered available learning resources in the local environment in Magelang Regency and the outside-classroom activities which were regarded as learning opportunities by English teachers. There were 131 references to this category made by 63 teachers or 43% of the respondents. Those references were further organized into several sub-categories as presented below.

a. Learning activities

There were two types of learning activities mentioned by 29 teachers in the survey which they saw as opportunities for learning English outside the classrooms. The first concerned language practices while the second focused more on non-language practices.

Teachers were aware that tourist spots had the potential for students to communicate independently in English:

> Students can practice dialogues directly with other people, learn from things around them.

They could also

> speak with tourists from abroad at the temples in our environment for example Mendut Temple, Prambanan, Borobudur and other places.

The opportunities for independent language learning were also mentioned by teachers:

> Independent work by reading textbooks and additional books, browsing from the internet, visiting international tourism objects like Borobudur Temple and Mendut Temple are opportunities for learning outside the classrooms in my local areas which can be done by foreign language learners.

Another teacher mentioned that the students could read

> labels of products written in English and popular English songs.

The other activities mentioned by teachers were writing descriptions of places they had visited and watching foreign movies. These answers suggest that teachers had thought of activities that would encourage students to learn English independently of their teacher.

b. Learning Resources

In addressing the question, 39% of the teachers identified learning resources available in their environment. There were three types of resources they mentioned namely people, places, and things.

1) English-speakers as learning resources

Teachers mentioned tourists, local people and friends as learning resources for the students. They explained that students could practise English speaking with them outside class, for example, students could come to Borobudur Temple to have

> speaking practice with tourists at tourism sites.

2) Places as learning resources

Teachers mentioned many places which they saw as providing opportunities for students' learning. Those places were located both within school and outside school. Teachers perceived potential places for using English within school such as:

> In my environment there is a language laboratory, science laboratory, and library which can be used for outside classroom learning.

and

> I consider field, yard and school environment as local places serving as outside-classroom learning opportunities.

Those located outside school areas included both private and public domains:

> My students live in a *pesantren* (Islamic boarding house) and thus it is the learning area outside the classroom for them.

and

> A lot of students have extra learning outside the classroom by joining the closest learning centres.

Teachers also mentioned markets, public places, rivers, the natural and social environments, and tourism sites as places for learning. Those places belonged to the public domain where outside classroom learning could be conducted:

> Actually there are more learning opportunities outside the classroom because our town, Magelang, has a lot of amazing tourist destinations which provide opportunities for students to try communicating with foreign tourists especially in English.

3) Things as learning resources

Both living and non-living things were considered to be resources:

I sometimes use the yard and various plants as learning media.

The non-living things mentioned by teachers included both authentic materials and teacher generated materials. Those authentic materials included materials on the internet,

> Besides having tourist destinations, Magelang is a place with sufficient information technology, so students have also opportunities to learn outside the classroom.

and realia such as:

> reading newspapers, magazines, (and) other books about knowledge which can develop someone's life skills.

However, teachers also valued non-authentic materials like school textbooks and multimedia. They felt that students were capable of

> learning autonomously by reading textbooks and additional books.

5.2.2 Benefits, constraints and supports.

Teachers identified a range of benefits, supports and constraints present in their local environment. Those answers were given by 59% of the respondents which represented the highest percentage of teachers' answers.

a. Benefits

The local environment was perceived by the teachers to provide a positive atmosphere for learning, a potential to increase students' learning result, and an opportunity to introduce students to their surroundings.

Positive learning atmosphere

A number of teachers considered that learning outside the class was motivating. Some of them wrote:

> Outside classroom learning makes all students enthusiastic and motivated because there is a different innovation. Students can develop and become autonomous, and they are relaxed and not nervous so that they can be more focused because the learning is joyful.

They felt that out-of-class learning also made students more active, increased their curiosity, developed students' talents and offered them more freedom in expressing their ideas:

> Studying outside the classrooms gives many opportunities for students to have more curiosity.

Teachers also felt that it offered a stimulating change of scene:

> Learning outside classrooms is one way to avoid the creation of learning burnout, boredom and perceptual learning in the classroom only.

Teachers were aware that students not only gained confidence in using English in general, but also that learning outside the class had the potential to enhance vocabulary improvement, problem solving skills, memory improvement, and creativity:

> The outside classroom learning in our environment is very supportive towards the teaching and learning activities because our local environment is close to the tourist object so that it can add or increase students' foreign language (English) mastery.

because

> By learning outside the classrooms students can be helped to find, formulate and solve the problems related to their learning materials easily.

The other positive result according to the teachers was that students became more autonomous when their learning took place outside the classes. This was specified in many of the teachers' answers such as:

> Learning outside the classrooms supports students to learn autonomously and to express their creativity and autonomy.

Acknowledgement of the environment

Teachers also reported that learning outside the classroom offered students a more authentic context for learning. They mentioned:

> Learning outside the classrooms is very effective and natural, students can see directly the examples of the real or factual materials which can be used as objects of learning.

And also

> It gives freedom and opportunities for students to notice the environment and surroundings.

Those answers suggested that teachers believed that the environment offered authentic opportunities to learn English.

b. Supports

Several teachers considered that the environment provided support through the availability of tourist sites, conducive school environments and these led to high levels of student motivation. They wrote in their questionnaires:

> Actually the environment gives support due to the availability of the tourism objects near the schools which provide opportunities for the students to develop their language skills.

c. Constraints

Some teachers pointed out that using learning opportunities outside the classroom was not without its challenges. They described internal and external obstacles ranging from problems coming from themselves to problems of the availability of time.

1) Internal problems

Teachers regarded themselves as barriers to learning outside the classroom along with students, parents and tourists. Some expressed concern about their unfamiliarity with techniques for teaching and learning outside the classrooms. An example of the answers was:

> It is difficult enough to practice because, as a teacher, I realize that we do not have good methods or ways yet. In fact, outside the classroom activities require students who have adequate English skills especially for speaking and writing. I still see a problem (on) how to encourage the students to communicate with each other by using English.

They worried that their students were preoccupied with television and their IT devices. Teachers wrote:

> The learning opportunities for students in our environment are very limited because students watch too much TV. Students play too much with their hand phones.

Although their students seemed to be adept at using electronic devices, the teachers did not believe that their students used IT for learning:

> The students here have quite a lot of opportunities to learn outside classrooms through the use of the internet connection although some of them do not use this opportunity well; they access the internet for something else such as playing online game, accessing Facebook etc.

They did not feel that they could rely on parents to support the students' learning:

> Junior High school students that I teach have various family backgrounds. But most of them are low-class families. This is what does not support the students' learning because most of the parents have limited time to support their students (in learning).

And, they could see that there were problems involved with trying to engage tourists in conversation:

> Unfortunately not many students take advantage (of the availability of tourists) whether because they are shy, unmotivated or because the tourists are already with the guides so that they are hard to approach.

2) Systemic/ Structural

Teachers also noted constraints arising from school structures/systems. Living in an Islamic boarding house (*pesantren*) was one example of a barrier to doing outside classroom learning activities. This was explicitly shown in some answers such as:

> The environment where I teach is limited and thus the opportunities to learn outside the class become less optimal. My students live in "*pesantren*" and thus it is their [only] place for learning.

Also, within the *pesantren*

> it is not appropriate if the male and female students meet. We have to be very careful.

Teachers also mentioned that schools face bureaucratic problems. One of the teachers remarked that:

> [Taking] the opportunities for learning outside the class for schools close to the locations of the tourist destinations is very beneficial for English learners but sometimes schools face some complicated

bureaucracy stuff and therefore teachers face difficulties to take learners to find tourists even to engage in conversations.

Time was seen as an issue too:

> Students in our schools are students who, I am sure, can be autonomous. But the limitation of time and a big number of lessons hours or activities make their opportunities for learning autonomously limited.

Teachers also felt that there were insufficient teaching materials in English made available to them (at the time the study was conducted) in schools:

> But it [outside classroom learning] needs more materials to be conducted, for example we need more English books [to use] as our readings or newspapers in English.

5.2.3 Teachers' opinions and current practices.

Teachers expressed a variety of opinions about the availability of learning opportunities outside classrooms in their environment. Teachers also shared some of their current practices.

a. Teachers' opinions

Most of teachers believed that learning outside class had a positive influence on students and they were willing to try this:

> Learning can be done inside and outside the classrooms. Learning outside classrooms has positive effects on students. Students become more enthusiastic in observing things. Students become active in their discussions with the groups. Students' confidence increased so that their autonomy improves and learner autonomy develops. By learning outside the classrooms students develop naturally as they do not feel monitored 100% by teacher. Students can reach their own potential.

And

> Learning opportunities outside the classrooms are in fact very interesting for students, they are more enthusiastic. As for teachers, it is easier in explaining.

Another teacher had mixed feelings:

> Learning does not always occur either inside or outside the classroom.

Other teachers were also ambivalent:

> Outside classroom learning is appealing with the directions and guidance from teachers completed with the sufficient facilities. But our school faces constraints from the

> geographical location which is less reachable especially as the learners live quite far from the school and they have to go to school on foot. Therefore learning opportunities outside formal learning hour is less effective.

Yet other teachers saw little potential for learning in the local area:

> Our school environment is rural, so I see no [opportunities] for learning [English].

Some teachers offered suggestions for optimising learning opportunities from the local environment. They believed that there needed to be a formal program for outside class learning and this might involve coordinating the school, family and social environments for students' learning. After mentioning that there are multiple learning opportunities outside the class as there are many available tourist destinations, a teacher continued writing:

> But of course we need to manage this kind of program well to get better results and match [the program] with students' needs especially for their job opportunities in the future because English is an international language nowadays.

Other teachers felt that learning opportunities outside the class were needed so that students could become equally familiar with the school environment and also family and social environments. Those three environments were considered to be very supportive if considered holistically:

> These environments should be (made) relevant with the situations and conditions of the learning. If the environments are good and supportive, the learning goals will be achieved and vice versa.

b. Current practices

The teachers' responses in the questionnaire revealed their opinions about both the feasibility and the frequency of using learning opportunities outside the classrooms.

1) Feasibility

Some teachers believed that learning outside the class could be achievable in their schools:

> (It) is very possible to be conducted; this can help in reducing students' boredom, students can have more knowledge other than classrooms and it can inspire learners in developing the knowledge.

> It can be done by using multimedia, the language laboratory and the library. At certain times out-door activity is needed.

Another teacher showed that teachers faced problems in taking students to find tourists. This suggested that it was not always feasible. Another group of teachers showed that there were few chances to take advantage of outside classroom learning opportunities:

> But in our schools it [independent learning outside the classroom] is still difficult to conduct as students still need to be motivated and guided by teachers, and they have to be provided with sufficient facilities to learn autonomously.

2) Frequency

Teachers wrote three different answers concerning the frequency of taking learning opportunities outside the classrooms. One of the teachers regularly engaged their students in learning outside the classroom showing a high frequency of this kind of learning:

> I personally always apply outside classroom learning. As an example, when the learning material is about "describing places" the students observe the buildings around them and describe them.

Another teacher however wrote that learning outside classroom was unusual in their practice. This teacher answered:

> Although we have not or rarely done outside classroom learning but it would be effective and contextual for students because students would be able to practise directly so that students would easily remember or get impressions of what they are doing.

The other teacher mentioned that sometimes learning outside the classrooms was achieved by making use of resources available at school. The answer given was:

> I sometimes use the school yard and the variety of plants available as learning media.

Teachers' answers indicated that teachers recognized that learning opportunities are available in their local environment. Teachers were able to mention various resources which can be used for outside classroom learning. Teachers knew that they could take advantage of the availability of tourism sites like Borobudur Temple and its visitors for enhancing students' language learning. Teachers were aware of the potential benefits, supports for and constraints to conducting learning in their local environment. It should

also be noted that some teachers may have misinterpreted the question by giving some examples of activities or resources used for non-English subjects.

Overall, the findings suggest that teachers knew what was expected from them by the new 2013 curriculum. With teachers' awareness about the local learning resources, teachers appeared to know that it was possible to widen students' learning context beyond classrooms. Yet, they encountered complex problems in implementing the curriculum and in facilitating students' autonomy development outside the classrooms. This suggests that multiple factors affected teachers' practices as they began implementing the curriculum. Some appeared to be totally beyond the teachers' control.

The next chapter draws on qualitative data from the multi-case study. The findings were presented for all the nine cases based on the thematic analysis of the interviews and observation data. The analysis process for those cases was similar to the one used for generating the findings in this chapter except that there was no quantification used in the case study.

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CHAPTER VI
MULTICASE STUDY

This chapter presents the case of each of the nine teachers who participated in the qualitative phase of the study. These nine cases were selected according to teachers' perceptions of learner autonomy revealed through the survey which ranged from very positive to less positive. Although each case had distinct characteristics, the cases are presented in three clusters to show similarities in the teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to developing learner autonomy. The three clusters accommodate teachers with consistent approaches to implementing learner autonomy development, teachers with mixed approaches to implementing learner autonomy, and teachers with conflicted approaches to implementing learner autonomy development. The findings were generated from a thematic analysis of the interview and observation data as described in the methodology chapter. Some themes such as reducing the teacher's dominance, promoting learner autonomy, allowing space for autonomy development, creating positive learning experiences, experiencing teaching problems, and building professionalism were common to all the cases. An example of this thematic analysis can be seen in Appendix 6.

In this study I distinguish *supporting* and *developing* autonomy based on the distinction offered by Smith (2003) between weak and strong pedagogy for autonomy. I equate 'supporting autonomy' with a strong pedagogy for autonomy in which teachers assume that their students are autonomous. Teachers with strong pedagogy believe in maintaining the autonomy of their students and support students to achieve a higher level of autonomy. The main task of teachers with strong pedagogy is to create situations for students to exercise and optimise their autonomy to build on their current level of autonomy. On the other hand, 'developing autonomy' means adopting Smith's weak pedagogy for autonomy. Such teachers regard their students as having low levels of autonomy or as non-autonomous students. Teachers with weak pedagogy tend to train students to be autonomous bit by bit. These teachers still dominate class activities and view autonomy as a product of their instructions.

6.1 Consistent Approaches to Implementing Learner Autonomy Development

Three teachers were very optimistic about developing learner autonomy. These teachers perceived the new curriculum positively. They agreed that students should learn independently and they aimed to develop independent learning in their classrooms. In addition, they were fully aware that their role was not to be the dominant learning resource

for students but instead to be a learning facilitator. All of them used peer-supported learning where students could learn from each other and then use the skills obtained from the group work to do their individual work. As these teachers saw the value of developing learner autonomy for students' future lives they were considered as teachers with consistent approaches to implementing learner autonomy development.

6.1.1 Mrs. Dewi.

Mrs. Dewi was an English teacher who actively worked towards learner autonomy development. She was teaching grade IX and she used the old (2006) curriculum. She indicated her positive perceptions toward developing learner autonomy in the survey and reinforced this in the interview. Her practices in promoting independent learning included reducing the teacher's control, and providing support for students' independent learning. She tried to expose her students to a range of learning resources and make the curriculum relevant to students' lives while at the same time building her professionalism. Her classroom practices covered the following six themes:

a. Reducing the teacher's control

To encourage learner autonomy, Mrs. Dewi believed that it was necessary to reduce her control. She served as a learning facilitator where she managed the class, monitored students' progress, assessed students, and handled classroom problems. She also involved students in materials selection and encouraged her students to participate actively in her class.

She found that monitoring was important in facilitating students' learning as she could evaluate students' progress and observe what students were doing in their group work:

> Of course I need to know if they do it or not. Or if they are just cheating, just doing nothing. I have to know that. They have to do what I ask them to do and I can observe the progress of their task. (Interview 2)

An example of her way of reducing control over materials selection was by collecting texts chosen by students and using these as contexts for a test:

> So, in the class, I will get eight, eight different texts and then I can use these texts when I give an assessment for them... and I just make some questions dealing with the texts. (Interview 2)

To ensure that students participated in her classes, she planned for interaction between herself and her students, and also for interaction among students. She provided opportunities for individuals to engage with either the

teacher or their friends in presentations and discussions. Besides encouraging classroom discussion and questioning students, Mrs. Dewi pressed the whole class to provide detailed and thoughtful responses:

> What are they? Mention the examples of short functional texts. (Observation)

In this way, she invited students to contribute more in the lesson, reducing Mrs. Dewi's talking or explanation time. She asked the class to recall what they knew about the texts and mentioned the examples of the text they knew. At times, she asked a particular student to provide examples for the rest of the class:

> Maybe you can give the examples of a report text Mbak Fatia? (Observation)

Once some students responded, the others followed and thus the class became lively and students enjoyed many opportunities to speak.

Mrs. Dewi gave opportunities for her students to participate by encouraging her students, either collectively or individually, to talk. This practice, along with taking the role of facilitator and involving students in materials selection, seemed to illustrate her intention to both reduce her own control as teacher and increase students' control and participation in the classroom.

b. Promoting independent learning

Mrs. Dewi employed peer-supported learning and assigned group and individual work to develop her students' independence. Her students learnt from their peers through taking turns in presenting information about texts they had found themselves:

> They know the texts because each group has to present the text and the other groups have to pay attention. "Please you ask more questions if you do not know about the texts". Then the next week after all the groups have presented, I will give the test. (Interview 2)

They also supported one another's learning collectively in composing a story:

> Each group one email. You can compose your story okay? If you have a laptop, so far only three groups have brought laptops, you can continue this task and then send to my email …One group one story. Okay, you make it with your group. (Observation)

Group tasks were followed by individual work. She gave homework where each student had to practise individually the same task they had completed as a group:

> In joint (construction of the text) each group must send one email per group but after that one student, each student has to send the email to me. (Interview 1)

She gave the individual work at the end of her classes:

> And then at home you have to send it yourself, not as a group, but each student must send one email to me. (Observation)

For Mrs. Dewi's class, the outcome of each learning session was for students to work independently. In this way, her teaching practices seemed to reflect her effort to prepare students to learn independently after working together with their peers.

c. Providing support for students' independent learning

Mrs. Dewi made herself available as a learning resource inside and outside the classroom. She ensured that she could be reached by her students through social media:

> It is for "*gaul*" [mingling] with my students. I have Facebook. I have twitter, I have BBM. I have the others to connect with them. So they feel close to me. (Interview 2)

She welcomed it when her students contacted her outside lesson times to ask her questions about the homework, future lessons, test materials and other issues.

> Maybe at night my students will ask me "Mom, tomorrow what topic will be discussed?" then "What will tomorrow's test be like?" I will answer. Like this: "Mrs. Dewi, what are the materials for tomorrow?" "Procedure text". "Worksheet pages 71 – 79 Mom?" "Yes". Like this. I keep connected with my students. (Interview 2)

She believed that students' questions indicated their preparation for learning:

> At night, every time. I like it, they know. So it is an indicator to me that they want to study. If they ask me what material is to be discussed tomorrow it is an indicator for me that they will study this tonight. (Interview 2)

She also believed that it was her job to motivate her students to be autonomous:

> I have to motivate them that every year that this world is more, more, and more challenging. So you have to be a smart person. You have to prepare yourself to meet your future adulthood.
>
> It is a kind of my motivation for them, to motivate them. They will have more challenges next year. They have to be more independent next time. So they have to learn autonomously. (Interview 1)

She also gave advice about the national examination where she emphasised that her students would need to be independent and self-confident:

> I tell my students that in the final examination they have to be self-confident. "You have to do your test by yourselves. Do not cheat. Don't ask your friends because their questions are different. There are 20 kinds of tests so now you have to try to be self-confident." I just want to motivate them so that they gain self-confidence. (Interview 2)

In these ways Mrs. Dewi gave multiple opportunities for her students to reach her especially for support in their out of class learning.

d. Exposing students to varied learning resources

Mrs. Dewi drew from a wide variety of classroom texts to engage her learners:

> Of course I use many references books from the MGMP (teachers' association), from the government and from other sources. There are so many books here. Sun, Erlangga, Flash, BSE, so many books here because no matter they will find. They will buy as much as books I ask them to buy. (Interview 1)

Mrs. Dewi valued authentic texts and used the internet to support learning in her class. The use of authentic materials was evident when she taught the students about short functional texts:

> I think it is the same as my topic now, short functional texts.
> Because I find the authentic materials like itinerary and signs, notice, email, labels. These are authentic materials. (Interview 1)

By introducing students to different kinds of learning materials, Mrs. Dewi showed the students potential learning tools for use inside and outside the classroom, equipping them to learn independently.

e. Making the curriculum relevant to students' lives

In addition to prioritising authentic materials, Mrs. Dewi indicated that the local tourist area was a valuable resource for her students:

> I think it is very advantageous. Many advantages here because the authentic materials and the areas of tourism can support my students about their… their English to be fluent, to be a good speaker. If they can apply it in their tourism object, if I ask my students to go: "please go to Borobudur Temple and please practise with tourists. Then you can ask them about bla bla bla..." and it is so important. Many advantages for them. Benefits. (Interview 1)

Mrs. Dewi believed that learning could be enhanced by seeking out exposure to English in the local environment. Besides, she thought that parents and wider society were resources that could enrich her students' learning:

> Maybe the most important [factor] is the environment must support their motivation, their parents at home and then their society and here school. (Interview 1)

She felt that parents should play their role in motivating students to learn, showing their children that they value learning. She also involved parents in monitoring students' learning progress by requiring them to check and sign their children's test paper or assignments and then send it back to her. This showed her effort to make students aware of two things, first, that their parents cared for and supported their learning, and second that learning at school is valued by their parents and by wider society.

She also used authentic text types to show the link between curriculum and real life. She demonstrated this by introducing email-writing to students instead of letter writing as she assumed that her students used email more frequently than letters.

As English speaking was available in the local environment, Mrs. Dewi felt that English learning was relevant in her students' lives. Her efforts to engage parents, draw on resources from the environment and her use of authentic texts suggested that Mrs. Dewi tried to build close connections between students' learning and their real lives outside the classroom.

f. Building professionalism

One of the ways in which Mrs. Dewi built teaching professionalism was by using media in her teaching. She used an LCD monitor and laptop to present her power points, media that were not always available to or used by teachers in other schools. She also used the old curriculum as she taught grade IX:

> And here in writing, in KD 6.1, there is some writing. And one [learning outcome] is short functional texts and in short functional texts email is an option. So I don't follow this as my *sesuka saya* [as I wish]. But I got it from the syllabus that I have to teach my students about email and letters. (Interview 2)

In terms of evaluation, she perceived herself as conforming to the old curriculum:

> Actually if we discuss about, we talk about evaluation, I use the curriculum. I use the *standar isi* [standards of contents] because it is my guidance to teach my students. I am not off track here. And then if today we discuss KD [Basic competence] 6.1 about writing I will ask them to write too. It is a kind of evaluation too. And then there are writing rubrics like punctuation, and then contents, coherence like

> that. I use these. I use the guidance from the government. I am not off track. (Interview 1)

Mrs. Dewi felt positive about her teaching environment and expressed her satisfaction with her school:

> Of course here is more ideal. (Interview 1)

She also felt good about the students:

> I think my students here are um.. you can see, they are all smart. They know what I said. Even though they cannot answer in English but they know what I said. (Interview 1)

She taught the students in English and this might reflect her belief that students could understand her.

She felt positively about the new curriculum which she perceived as only differing superficially from the old curriculum:

> I think the 2013 curriculum has good activities too, taking a scientific approach. (Interview 1)

Mrs Dewi used aspects of both curricula in the same class which suggests that she was confident in exercising her professional judgement and adapting the curriculum.

It was evident that Mrs. Dewi believed in life-long learning, as she had continued her own education by upgrading her qualifications to a master's degree. In addition she was very committed to her work and this was shown by her efforts to comply with government directives. This is also underpinned her decision to use group work:

> I think it is um.. the demand of our government that we have to build our students' character, their attitude, they have to be more, more cooperative with their friends. (Interview 2)

She also demonstrated her love of her profession in some of her interview statements:

> I want to be a professional teacher. (Interview 1) and
> To be the best to my students because I love to be a teacher. (Interview 1)

Even so, she struggled to implement some aspects of the new curriculum:

> My limit is sometimes about assessment. The assessment is so "*ruwet.*" The newest curriculum is so complicated. (Interview 1)

Then she faced some conflicts of interest:

> When I am asked by the government or my headmaster to do the assessment as they want to, I do not want to assess like that. Collecting the test results and must do this, must do that. You have to do this. You have to do that. I do not like it but I have to do that. (Interview 1)

Finally although she knew the potential of tourist sites for enhancing students' learning, she perceived obstacles to taking advantage of those sites:

> But sometimes the teacher is not concerned with this. We just fulfil the objectives of the goal of the lesson as *standar isi* (standards of content) ask. (Interview 1)

This statement suggests that Mrs. Dewi perceived a lack of alignment between the curriculum requirements to use local learning resources and the learning objectives.

In summary, although Mrs. Dewi mainly used the 2006 curriculum, in practice she had begun to implement aspects of the new curriculum. This practice might have arisen from her belief that both curricula were similar. She agreed that students should learn autonomously because she was aware that students would need to be autonomous to prepare for the national examination and also to manage their future life. She provided students with learning experiences which supported their autonomy development possibly through her trust in students' ability, and possibly because the school had up-to-date ICT facilities. Becoming an active social media user was part of her strategy to connect with students and serve as a learning resource outside the classrooms. She also involved parents in monitoring students' learning as a way to provide more support for students. She acknowledged the use of a range of learning materials, but she did not use the local tourist areas as a means to enhance students' language learning. Instead she focused on meeting the curriculum objectives using the resources available to her.

6.1.2 Mrs. Wina.

Mrs. Wina was another English teacher who held positive perceptions about learner autonomy and its development. She was teaching grade VIII and she applied the newest, 2013 curriculum. Like Mrs. Dewi, Mrs. Wina's teaching practice reflected her support for developing learners' autonomy. She promoted this by reducing her dominance and creating positive learning experiences in her classroom. Even though she fulfilled her professional responsibility to prepare students to become autonomous, she also struggled with limited resources and personal issues. The following themes represented her teaching practices.

a. Promoting learner autonomy

The strategies used by Mrs. Wina in promoting learner autonomy consisted of assigning both group and individual work, sharing control with students, maintaining a commitment to develop learner autonomy, teaching students to reflect on their learning, and serving as a learning resource both inside and outside the classroom.

She assigned group work to students:

> Next, students can perhaps work in groups to find further information about materials. (Interview 1)

She believed that group work would help students learn from one another:

> Many of those who do not usually talk will be helped by other students.
> Those who cannot do it can directly ask their friends. (Interview 2)

She assigned group work to promote students' imagination and creativity:

> Now I have some pictures. I will divide the pictures among your group. And here, there are many envelopes here. There are many kinds of pictures of animals inside it. Each of you will get one envelope and a picture. Then I want you to complete the picture. For example here there is a picture. There is a place. Maybe a zoo. And there are still others. You can complete the picture with the animals by sticking them onto the picture. Then after you finish, please make sentences based on the pictures you stick. (Observation)

The group work enabled students to work together, negotiate, discuss and cooperate with their peers. Once they had finished they had to present the results to the class.

Mrs. Wina followed group activities with individual work for homework:

> For homework, please describe one of the animals around you. (Observation)

The individual task built on the knowledge and skills developed in the classroom. Students were also given the freedom to choose animals around their home.

On another occasion she asked the students to prepare materials for a presentation related to a procedural text:

> Please next week in the next meeting, be prepared. Please bring any stuff you want. Bring it from home. Then present to the class the goal, materials and the steps while you are also demonstrating the process. (Interview 1)

This was in the context of students learning how to perform actions such as preparing meals or making beverages through a sequence of steps. This authentic and individual task allowed students to choose what to present. They had to perform

the process at home before describing the stages to the class. She found out that students were creative in preparing for their presentation. This suggested to her that students could learn at home independently once they were shown how to do a task in the classroom.

Mrs. Wina supported students' autonomous learning by sharing control over where students conducted their learning:

> Okay you can do your work inside or outside (the classroom). (Observation)

She also gave the freedom to students in designing the project or the task given particularly when students had to create an environment where different kinds of animals existed together:

> So there was no requirement this should be glued here. I did not give any model so that they could create it based on their points of view. (Interview 2)

She reflected on her commitment to developing learner autonomy:

> Well, one support may be the requirements of the global era… that students are required to be autonomous. In the future, every individual will be required to be able to make independent decisions and independent actions. As every individual is required to do so thus it [their autonomy] should be developed from now on. (Interview 1)

Along with this commitment, she tried to increase students' awareness of and responsibility for their learning by teaching students to reflect on the purpose of their learning:

> Sometimes for students, going to school only means coming to school. I often ask "What is your purpose of going to school? You have clear goals and you have to stick to them. In the English lesson, this is the topic and this is the material so I have to get through this material." I often tell them something like this. (Interview 1)

Mrs. Wina also became her students' learning resource by modelling the use of English for different purposes inside and outside the classroom. In classroom, she delivered lessons in English:

> Sometimes when students want to ask for permission to go to the restroom I try to make them speak English. Then when other friends from other classes want to come to the class, they have to use English to ask for permission too. We familiarize them [with how] to do so. (Interview 2)

Outside the classroom, she spoke English with her students and to engage them in conversation:

> Sometimes if I meet students who do not greet me in English, I start to greet them "Hello, good morning, how are you?" (Interview 1)

She added:

> Sometimes I am serving in the school co-op. "How much? Here is the change, thank you. How much mom? One thousand only." Sometimes I answer in English (interview 1)

This behaviour indicated that she often initiated English practice with the students outside class. In this way students could take the initiative to meet her and practise their English. Though the opportunities to learn outside the class were limited, she encouraged students to seize every chance to practise their English:

> Don't keep silent when you meet foreigners. It is an opportunity. (Interview 1)

By advising students to speak with tourists, Mrs. Wina gave students a possible context for independent learning.

b. Reducing the teacher's dominance

To reduce her dominance in the class, Mrs. Wina served as a learning facilitator to optimise her students' active participation. She was aware of her role:

> Students are the subjects so that teachers are expected to be motivator, facilitator, so they help students in their learning. (Interview 1)

and

> So, teachers are just facilitators. (Interview 2)

In her role as a learning facilitator, she managed and monitored the class adeptly. In her efforts to encourage students' participation, she applied the five stages of teaching from the mandated scientific approach, namely observing, questioning, finding information, associating and communicating. She described the process as follows:

> We as teachers give the information to students. Sometimes we give pictures or perhaps play videos or give other examples. Then students do the observation related to the materials. Following that, students are given the chance to ask, asking questions related to materials to either teacher or friends. … Next, students can work in groups to find further information related to materials and then after that associating. So here students are able to find out, for example when we use discovery learning students are able to do it. With teachers' guidance, students can find out the form or may be the formula from the material. Associating. Then it is ended with communicating. (Interview 1)

She believed that students must be active:

> As it is student-centred, it is they who have to be active. (Interview 2)

Besides giving opportunities for students to ask questions, Mrs. Wina enhanced students' participation by questioning students and asking them to give examples. She increased students' opportunities to talk by asking them to do presentations:

> Okay, I want you to present in front of the class. Please I want you to show your results in front of the class. (Observation)

Although the activity might not be fully communicative, students were expected to take a significant proportion of the lesson time and share their work regularly, replacing some of the teacher's talking time. This was an example of the communicating stage which was proposed by the curriculum. In this sense, student presentations were effective in reducing teachers' dominance in class.

c. Creating positive learning experiences

Mrs. Wina believed that students' enjoyment in class was important and thus she put effort into creating positive learning experiences. One way she did this was by creating a learning process that progressed from one easy and familiar task to those that were increasingly complex. To make learning achievable and engaging, she linked the new materials with what they already knew:

> Perhaps by using pictures and things around students, students can easily get the materials. So they can absorb the new concepts so that they will accept them easier because they already know oh here is the duck and this means that they will imagine [other resources] available in their environment. (Interview 2)

To make learning appealing she frequently employed different texts and learning resources to enrich the materials from which students could learn:

> To avoid the monotony, we may use various learning materials. (Interview1).

At the same time she enhanced students' self-esteem by praising their work:

> All correct? Very good. (Observation)

Mrs. Wina used different strategies to build her relationship with the students for example by learning students' names and showing trust to her students:

> I think you can discuss [this] with your friends this morning. (Observation)

She gently corrected students when their answers were not accurate and this further built her relationship with students. This also built students' confidence in their answers:

> Dinosaurs. Okay. Maybe Ari has dinosaurs at home, but in the forms of pictures, not real dinosaurs. (Observation)

She also made learning relevant to students' lives by linking teaching content to their environment:

> Like when I taught descriptive texts, maybe students have visited areas around our district. ... I take advantage of the availability of objects which may not be that popular but are available in the environment they know. They know really well. (Interview 1)
>
> … but because Borobudur is the mascot of Magelang, the icon here, so Borobudur surely emerged [as a topic]. (Interview 1)

In the past she also had taken students to Borobudur Temple which they had found motivating.

d. Building professionalism

The strategies used by Mrs. Wina to build her professionalism included following the curriculum, improving her professional competence, and keeping teaching commitments. First, she acknowledged her use of curriculum:

> Now we are in the implementation of 2013 curriculum.
> I strongly agree with this program.
> Here I also expect students not only to master knowledge because the new curriculum requires the practices as well. (Interview 1)

She analysed the old and new curricula and concluded that the new curriculum was largely similar to the previous curriculum. She believed it only differed in the use of terms:

> Well, I think concepts are actually similar. But in this case as the scientific approach is taken from science, we have to follow the stages. Previously, in Exploration, Elaboration and confirmation, we must use those stages. When we use BKOF, MOT, ICOT all stages appear. We already have those stages. Only terms. Terms. Well that's what all lessons should be. But now if we have observation stage, well it is just because it is written, isn't it? Obviously, the first stage is surely observing. (Interview 1)

Mrs. Wina was aware of the accessibility of tourists in the regency and she took advantage of this to develop her own speaking skills:

> Sometimes when I go to Yogyakarta or go home I meet tourists on the bus. Always. I spend my time for having conversation with them. (Interview 1)

She also joined an English workshop, did classroom action research, and reflected on her teaching practices.

> Thus like now, until now students learn English. Perhaps from elementary school, junior high school, senior high school, but sometimes even after graduating like myself in the past, their language was still poor. (Interview 1)

> When we compare with teacher-centred [teaching approaches], the previous way, the result was that students became passive. They could not, well, their production was not good. (Interview 1)

Mrs. Wina was aware of her professional duties:

> The first is our obligation. We have obligation to teach so we must do that. (Interview 1)

These included maximising her students' exposure to English:

> And then oh I really have the commitment that students must hear more and more English. (Interview 2)

and maintaining high expectations:

> Next, maybe our dream, our expectations of students so that they are successful, so there are our hopes to make students successful. (Interview 1)

However, Mrs. Wina prioritised her teaching over her own learning and this prevented her from joining an English community:

> The additional work (of teaching) is so much. Then okay, give up. (Interview 1)

This showed that she put the teaching work above her other interests.

e. Struggling with resources and personal issues

Personal issues and a lack of resources affected Mrs Wina's teaching. For example she was concerned about the lack of teaching facilities:

> Yes perhaps if we look at the facilities in my school there is still a lack of facilities. If we want to show the video to make learning interesting, sometimes we have to take the portable LCDs here and there. (Interview 1)

She found that sharing a limited number of electronic resources was frustrating:

> We have two LCDs. Queuing. "Will you use that?" if so, okay I will not use it. (Interview 1)

Even though she was aware of the potential of the local tourist sites, she had no time or financial support to take students out:

> Maybe because it is far, we have to deal with the timing and the fees as well, so we find areas closer to students. (Interview 1)

During the school renovation period, she also had some issues with classroom usage:

> In yesterday's class, there were some students from Class D in that class. They were divided into some classes. Because the classes were renovated so three classes were mixed. (Interview 2)

She found her students often shy and unmotivated which also added to the challenges that she faced as an English teacher:

> But in reality, on average in my school the students are lacking the motivation to learn. (Interview 1)

She explained further:

> Sometimes, the low motivated students, regardless of the amount of time given for them to complete the task, are not able to finish. There are such kinds of students. (Interview 2)

In addition, she doubted the potential of shy students:

> Sometimes the shy students have less ability to develop learner autonomy. (Interview 1)

This may have prevented her from trying particular pedagogical practices.

The second issues were more personal. They covered her struggle with energy, time, focus, motivation, expectations and the curriculum. In terms of energy, she described:

> Sometimes, what it is, well, our energy is divided as well. (Interview 1)

Her time was spent preparing for the accreditation:

> When we have the accreditation, I would like to take the holiday but then I cannot. (Interview 1)

She admitted that her focus was divided:

> Maybe [my problem is] not the burden, but the focus. Well the focus is split, focusing on this, having to do that. (Interview 1)
> I should have been focusing on the following lesson actually. (Interview 1)

She had both teaching and administrative tasks where she had to make reports concerning the teaching documents which had to be submitted at a particular time and thus she could not manage to focus on planning lessons as she had to prioritise completing the reports.

Mrs. Wina could not find time to join the English community but her desire for exposure to English remained strong:

> If only my school were close to Borobudur Temple, maybe I could take students out and this activity was the program when we had English for tourism. (Interview 1)

Finally Mrs. Wina also revealed her difficulty in applying the curriculum:

> The evaluation is too complicated. Too complicated. (Interview 1)

Mrs. Wina was aware of the need to develop learner autonomy to support students in their future lives as global citizens. She welcomed the new curriculum and perceived the differences between the newest and the old curriculum only lie in the terms used to describe the teaching and learning stages. She agreed with the new curriculum and implemented it in her classroom. She also encouraged students' participation in classroom activities. She used power points in introducing materials and she delivered lessons in English, indicating that she was up-to-date in using IT in her teaching. She had taken students to Borobudur temple in the past and she wished that English for Tourism (EFT) was still offered. She found it difficult to connect her students to English speakers, so she stepped into the role of speaking model and partner inside and outside the classroom. Her awareness of her own limited English proficiency even after learning English for many years motivated her to support her students to use English as much as possible. She took advantage of the many English speaking tourists in her area to enhance her own speaking skills and this was part of her plan to improve her professional skills as an English teacher.

6.1.3 Mrs. Maya.

Mrs. Maya was another teacher who supported learner autonomy. She was teaching grade VIII and she used the 2013 curriculum. She supported learner autonomy by teaching students to learn independently and by playing the role of learning facilitator. She created positive learning experiences for her students in accordance with her belief that enjoyment in learning would enhance students' learning. In her efforts to optimize students' learning she encountered both constraints and affordances. Five themes reflected her beliefs and teaching practices.

a. Giving practices for independent learning

Providing opportunities for students to work together was her primary technique to encourage independent learning. She was explicit about the importance of group work:

> I usually use group discussion, group work, group project or portfolio. Students can be assigned a project and they search and use information from resources other than books. They have note books, they have textbooks and they can use internet. (Interview 1)

She believed that group discussions enabled students to help one another:

> Usually discussion works and the smart students can guide their friends. (Interview 1)

Another example of classroom activities where students were required to work together was when Mrs. Maya asked them to work with partners to create sentences describing pictures:

> Let's look at the pictures, all the pictures, then what activities are in progress? Yes. Please observe these pictures and discuss. How many activities are there? Please observe any kind of activities. If you are done, then try to write. (Observation)

Through this assignment students worked together to describe the people, activities, times and places to best express the pictures. Each group might describe the same picture differently. Students needed to have a discussion and agree about what to write. Then they worked together in writing the sentences using the format they had learnt in previous lessons. Finally they presented their work in front of the class group by group. This group activity was then followed by a similar activity completed individually.

Mrs. Maya also planned other individual assignments which drew upon authentic materials to prepare students to work independently:

> For example when we had a topic about invitations, we had invitations to a wedding party, birthday party, circumcision party and so on. Students searched [for examples] from other resources. They searched for examples of the invitations and they got various examples of invitation texts which are used in daily lives. (Interview 1)

This kind of assignment was followed by classroom activities where students were encouraged to learn independently about the characteristics and content of different texts. Mrs. Maya mentioned:

> And giving the task to student is quite helpful because we can present what students have found. We can see text A, text B, text C, text D, text E. Students also compare the texts, finding which one is complete and which one is not. Then they observe together. I let students find the text themselves and make them learn the characteristics of the texts. So, students must learn to find them independently. If there is an incomplete example, I keep presenting it. Students [also] find out independently some information related to for whom the invitation is, when it is for, the date, the venue, event etc. (Interview 1)

She had also assigned individual speaking tasks to be carried out at a local tourist site:

> So I gave a task for English practice in Mendut Temple. There were some students who learnt independently, practising when they had time to do so. There were students who met tourists from Japan and America. When they recorded the conversation, I could hear they were

> saying yes or no, and students had enough proficiency to do the practices. (Interview 2)

In addition to setting group work that prepared students to work independently, Mrs. Maya provided opportunities for students to develop autonomy by reducing her dominance and serving as a learning facilitator. She was aware of her position in class:

> We know that as a teacher we are only one of the learning resources and not the only learning resource. (Interview 1)

She also reduced her talking time:

> From 2003 until now I enjoy my teaching more if we don't merely use teacher talk. Instead we use group discussion, role play, research or projects. (Interview 1)

She showed her commitment to developing students' autonomy and independence:

> Students learn not only theory, grammar structure but also the practices. Students learn by searching [for] information independently. And this is the process that I want to build. (Interview 1)

She wished to step back and allow students to play an active role in their learning:

> Besides, I want to become facilitator or motivator so that students can be excited, active and able to find the knowledge themselves in learning English. (Interview 1)

Along with enabling her students to learn from their peers, find the learning materials by themselves, analyse the texts they found and come to conclusions about a text, her role as facilitator in the classroom indicated her intention in supporting students' autonomy.

b. Facilitating students' learning

To facilitate students' learning Mrs. Maya served as a learning resource and a class manager while at the same time she monitored students' learning. Her monitoring allowed her to teach strategically:

> But I have to cover the parts that students have not understood and apart from learning from many resources they can learn from me. (Interview 1)

Though she reduced her dominance, she still guided the students' learning and gave examples as well as correction.

She was skilful in managing her class. One of her techniques for handling students' attention was done by calling the students by name:

> Secondly by being called, they will keep [paying] attention right? Those who were previously speaking, concentrate and those joking also then concentrate. And the name calling is very effective to focus one class into a team. (Interview 2)

As a class manager she guided the learning process from the beginning to the end. She shared lesson objectives with the students and directed the activities:

> We will summarize together, we learn to summarize what we have discussed in our two-hour lesson. (Observation)

In this way, she could make sure that she had a well-managed classroom and she had smooth transitions from one activity to another without being too dominant in the classroom.

c. Creating positive learning experiences

Mrs. Maya built good relationships with her students and strove to make learning interesting. Her belief was:

> Because knowing [students] means I have closeness, right? That's what I always apply when I teach. (Interview 2)

She knew her students characteristics too:

> In group 1, Kris is smart, the one I often mentioned, but he moves around a lot… Then in group 2, Deri is very attentive. He listens, he pays attention to others, he has his movement too but he has good manners. In group 3 there is Melati. Her voice is sweet but not that loud. She can guide group 3. In group 4 Riko and Noah are good. In group 5 there is Putri. (Interview 2)

Mrs. Maya wanted students to enjoy the lesson and she felt that the enjoyment would assist students to understand new material:

> I believe when students have no burden students will feel happy in following the lesson. For me this is a foundation, when students are happy, they are active, two hours of lesson will be spent without any burdens, full of enjoyment. So when the material is delivered everyone will be okay. (Interview 2)

In addition, she perceived that the enjoyment would further benefit students' motivation to learn:

> Students can learn from today's activity and of course students have motivation to learn further. If students have the motivation this will become the push for them to keep learning English. (Interview 2)

To make the process of learning the language easier she used code-switching:

> At the end I use mixtures of languages, bilingual or trilingual. (Interview 2)

She added:

> Sometimes the language used varies, Javanese, English, and Indonesian. (Interview 2)

This showed how Mrs. Maya tried to make English learning fun and encouraged students not to worry about knowing the meaning of every word.

d. Optimizing students' learning

Increasing students' active participation, providing more exposure to English and focusing on collective and individual grammar mastery were techniques used by Mrs. Maya to optimize students' learning. To make her class active, she involved students in every activity. For example, she asked an individual to make a sentence:

> Dita, please make a positive sentence, a simple one using this pattern. (Observation)

She also asked a student to evaluate their friend's sentence:

> Rendi, is the sentence correct? I and my family watching TV. (Observation)

The way she directed students enabled her to give each student optimal learning opportunities. This was because everyone had the chance to be asked and therefore they paid attention to the activities as the next student chosen might be themselves. To provide more English exposure, she attempted to make English both the content and medium of her teaching:

> I try to use English in every lesson of mine. (Interview 2)

She also brought authentic materials to her class:

> So far I personally use various media that can be used. We can use newspapers, magazines, environment properties, media, and rubbish. I have used the Jakarta Post and Time Magazine too. (Interview 1)

She created opportunities for students to have English practice with tourists who visited the school:

> Tourists visit our school with student x's parents because the student's parents own a homestay and they bring tourists here. (Interview 2)

She explained her role:

> The teacher's role is for opening, as the one who asks when students still have not got questions. (Interview 2)

Mrs. Maya gave opportunities to her students to use English, interact with both English speakers and English authentic materials. This indicated her work to enhance students' English learning.

e. Encountering affordances and constraints in teaching

Mrs. Maya showed optimism about implementing the new curriculum:

> The 2013 curriculum requires a lot of media, photocopy, practices, IT, OHP, power points. It is actually more complicated. But for me, any changes should just be welcomed. I am sure, over time, I can implement it. (Interview 1)

She learnt from her practice that her students could learn more autonomously:

> And for me, I am amazed that when I give my students freedom and I only guide them, it turns out that they can learn well. It's astonishing. (Interview 2)

She indicated her wish to keep learning to refine her teaching practices:

> Whatever happens when I teach, I still want to learn in my daily work, learn everything. I am the kind of person who welcomes the changes, then I learn from many sources. Just enjoy and follow. We need to know. And for the changes to make things better, I am always ready. (Interview 2)

An example of her learning was:

> I open the dictionary. If there are new materials, they have to be learnt. For me, teaching is also a learning process. My principle is: don't feel ashamed to ask. I welcome all new learning. I do not feel ashamed of asking Mrs. Ama for example. I don't feel I am losing my dignity of asking how to make lesson plan and the like. (Interview 2)

Despite her optimism about mastering the curriculum and her willingness to learn, she encountered various teaching problems. Students were at the root of one of her problems. She identified students' fear and shyness as challenging for practising English:

> The challenges for practising were being afraid, being shy, and the like. (Interview 1)

Her example was:

> The students only wanted to take pictures but did not want to practise their English. May I take picture with you? (Interview 2)

She was also aware of her teaching problems in using the new assessment form:

> The evaluation from the newest curriculum is complicated to administer. (Interview 2)

She was uneasy about the new teaching materials:

> What I dislike is teaching or getting questions or materials that I never got. (Interview 2)

Along with those problems, the unavailability of the text book also contributed to her teaching challenges:

> The 2013 curriculum is applied this year. Since last year it should have been prepared. From July 14, 2014 the books should have been accepted. So in these five months of implementation there are no books. (Interview 1)

The school's lack of resources made it difficult for her to take students off-site:

> The obstacles may be found in the fees and transportation. In fact, at school, we must not charge students even only once. But then when everything is free we cannot proceed. (Interview 2)

The school could not afford the transport and other fees to take students to the tourist sites. This proved especially challenging for this English teacher. She added:

> The number of the classes is also a problem. Not all tourists want to be asked to have a conversation. For example in outdoor conversation, tourists refuse even when students really want to talk to them. So when tourists are surrounded they perceived students as intrusive. Some get angry and some get upset. (Interview 2)

Mrs. Maya also had a vision of what learning should be:

> I want students to be easily managed or in other words active and so teachers will not have to ask them to learn. (Interview 1)

She was fully aware that students' motivation played a great role in their academic success:

> So the source of the success in today's education is certainly students. How high their motivation is, if they have high motivation or not, whether their curiosity is high or not. (Interview 1)

Furthermore, she perceived that the new curriculum required a great deal of technology so she visualised teaching with better facilities:

> Here we have no LCD. The 2013 curriculum needs a lot of media, a lot of photocopying, a lot of practice, all IT based, using OHP, power points. (Interview 1)

She added:

> I want a teaching place like that... I want adequate facilities. (Interview1)

She in fact wanted a designated English classroom:

> Actually for my teaching I want to have a special room like the one used in the moving class. I want all the resources that I use in teaching and learning activities to be displayed there, such as books, pictures, magazines, dictionaries, teaching media, students' work so that in the teaching, all I want to use is available. That is my dream. (Interview 2)

In developing learner autonomy, she commented:

> Learner autonomy can be achieved with support from all parties. One is from school. School for example has to support [teachers and students] by providing good learning facilities. Then support from parents, from property and the environment, and also students' readiness and the teacher's readiness. And all have to form a good synergy. (Interview 1)

She believed that the government should play a support role too:

> We have the Mendut temple, the Borobudur temple, but up to now, nothing has happened. The tourism board has not promoted English practise as a teaching and learning strategy. … So in my opinion, there must be cooperation among government, travel agents and guides. In classroom English learning, if it is possible, once a year students should be taken to the Palace or Borobudur to prepare them so that they learn to be brave [to use English]. (Interview 2)

She was aware of the potential of tourism for promoting English learning provided this was presented as a coherent program. This was consistent with her desire for students to develop sufficient independence to learn without being forced.

In short, Mrs. Maya supported the development of learner autonomy. She knew that students were the key to learning success. She also recognized the potential of learning resources in the local environment. She had taken advantage of them in the past and she hoped for future support to enhance English learning within the regency.

These teachers above believed that students should be autonomous or independent in their future lives and thus needed to be prepared for independent learning at school. This belief made these three teachers different from the other six teachers. They had consistent approaches to promoting learner autonomy.

6.2 Mixed Approaches to Implementing Learner Autonomy Development

The following cases were teachers who made an effort to teach their students to be more independent. They differed from the first group in that their main reason for doing so was to follow the curriculum requirements and to enact their belief that students' independence would result in the reduction of their teaching work. They had mixed approaches to promoting learner autonomy as it was the curriculum and personal reasons which drove their practices of developing learner autonomy, suggesting that they may not have believed in the value of autonomy for their students. In addition, they were not convinced that the curriculum could be applied in their contexts. Consequently, they seemed unable to optimize their students' autonomy development.

6.2.1 Mrs. Nelly.

Mrs. Nelly taught all grades of JHS and she used both the 2013 curriculum and the 2006 curriculum. She was doubtful that the 2013 curriculum could be implemented in her school. Even so, her practices when she was teaching grade IX and using the old curriculum illustrated many features of a learner-centred classroom. The following themes represented her classroom practices:

a. Facilitating students' learning

To facilitate students' learning, Mrs. Nelly worked to become a learning resource, direct students' learning and monitor students' progress. However, even as a learning resource, she believed that she was responsible for delivering the lesson:

> For me, teacher talk is also important. (Interview 1)

She assumed responsibility for selecting the teaching materials and objectives, explaining them, and giving examples, although she also included examples which students had come up with:

> Mrs. Nelly : What else?
> Student : Bus, on the bus
> Mrs. Nelly : Yes, in the bus, yes, about the increased price of petrol. For example, starting next week, there will be an increase of bus fees due to the increased price of petrol. (Observation)

She shared the learning objectives with her students through her power point:

> Okay, here is the standard of competence.
> Later, we can express the meaning in the functional text in the form of announcement and then express the meaning in the functional text by using accurate, fluent and meaningful spoken language. Next, this is the basic competence. (Observation)

She taught grammar explicitly too:

> Verb one. It cannot be "will going" for example, but "will go", "will express our condolence", "will express our sympathy", ok? So, you can use future tense. (Observation)

She directed students' learning by managing the classroom, giving writing and reading practice, and focusing on students' pronunciation, grammar and communication skills. Mrs. Nelly organized the activities by giving instructions for each activity such as:

> Please observe this type of announcement. (Observation)

And managing students' group work

> Yes, in order to finish faster, you can divide the work, two making the sentences and two designing the setting so that it is attractive. Okay? (Observation)

For Mrs. Nelly, the primary purpose for group work was sharing the work so that it could be accomplished faster. Students worked in groups to design a holiday programme by first discussing what to do on the holiday, where to go, how

to get there, how much it would cost, how to register and other related details. Then they divided up the tasks and set to work.

During reading practice she invited students to read the text aloud. Sometimes she asked the whole class to read together to reduce students' shyness and then directed individual students to read. Mrs. Nelly focussed on communication skills by emphasizing the use of English in her classroom:

> I reinforce the use of common expressions frequently used in class. For example the word 'not yet' and then 'finish' and then expressions to ask for permission. I reinforce the use of those expressions. (Interview 2)

Her focus on correct pronunciation was evident especially when she reviewed students' pronunciation mistakes. For grammar mastery, she asked probing questions about grammatical forms:

> But how is the form? Will+ V1 right? Like do. But why does this say "we will be"? What is the reason? Why? Especially on "will be on", why is it so? (Observation)

The third strategy she used was monitoring students' learning progress. She checked students' progress by checking their understanding of the materials directly. She reminded students to learn at home too.

Mrs. Nelly showed her determination to be a learning facilitator as she focused more on students' learning than her own teaching.

b. Allowing space for learner autonomy to develop

Mrs. Nelly limited her dominance in the class and supported students' independent learning and this provided space for learner autonomy development. She gave numerous opportunities for students to speak and to provide examples:

> What kind of announcement can you find? (Observation)

In another example, she offered the chance to answer:

> Who will answer? (Observation)

Sometimes, she picked a particular student:

> Would you like to answer please? (Observation)

She was aware of the need to share control with students:

> Mrs. Nelly: I hope they can get what they have to get.
> Researcher: From you or their independent searching?
> Mrs. Nelly: Well, through collaboration. Not only from the teacher. It should be from students as well. (Interview 1)

Then, she illustrated this when she invited class participation in putting a text in order:

> We will discuss together. What is the first sentence? Which is the first? (Observation)

Mrs. Nelly had positive perceptions of independent learning:

> Yes, what I actually want is they dig the information independently. So that it is more meaningful. (Interview 2)

Mrs. Nelly explained how she supported students' independent learning through assigning individual and group work:

> Learning independently, thinking independently, then in pairs, and in a group of four. Well, I just implement, because both 2006 curriculum and 2013 curriculum recommend collaboration. So that we can learn independently, then we can work in group, cooperate with others and divide the tasks. (Interview 2)

She made students learn independently from dictionary:

> I want them to guess, make relations between words and then open the dictionary. (Interview 2)

She encouraged students to learn from their friends too:

> Students may feel shy to ask to teacher and so they can ask their friends. (Interview 2)

She also allowed students to make choices in their learning:

> Please, you are free to do it. (Observation)

The freedom she offered helped students to decide on the learning strategy to use:

> May be there is one or two difficult words? You can either ask or open your dictionary. (Observation)

Making students speak and contribute to class activities meant limiting the teacher's talking time and dominance. Along with encouraging students to learn from friends and resources such as the dictionary, she believed in the benefit of independent learning. Mrs. Nelly thus encouraged students to become active and independent in her classroom.

c. Creating positive learning experiences

To give positive experiences to her students Mrs. Nelly made learning relevant to life, increased students' fondness of learning by never getting angry, by making students enjoy the learning, and by showing her sense of humour and building good relationships with students. To make classroom language learning relevant to her students' real life, she used authentic materials:

> I often use realia. (Interview 1)

And viewed her students as resources:

> [I believe in]Using students. [for example] I used pictures and things such as fruit. I asked students to bring their favourite things. There were students who brought dolls. They brought balls to describe. Even there was a student who only brought a pencil, a pen. (Interview 1)

She knew the value of taking students to the local tourism site and using native speakers of English as learning resources:

> When I taught in a previous school, we went to Borobudur. At least when [students] have no confidence to greet, they can listen to native speakers' words, some words. Then we also approached them, we spoke to the tourists first to see whether they were willing or not [to have conversations]. Then [the tourists] were willing and students were also happy. (Interview 1)

She would have liked to continue using the tourism sites for students' learning in her current school:

> I have asked students to at least visit the closest tourist area. (Interview 1)

She gave examples from real life which she believed would add to her students' knowledge of the environment. This may have illustrated an interest in the students' wider social development. As an example, when teaching descriptive writing she asked students to describe their mothers but with the added purpose of developing moral values:

> Automatically they can describe their mothers not only physically but also in personality. And I also want the other values or attitudes. What I apply is for example to love the mothers, obey, respect the moms and I also explain about mothers. (Interview 1)

She avoided getting angry in class and her ready sense of humour inspired her students to love learning. She built relationships with her students by showing her care and appreciation for them. She remembered not only students' names but also where they lived. She checked students' stationery and offered hers to those needed it. As a teacher she was not reluctant to apologize and similarly, she tolerated students' mistakes:

> In fact, making mistake is normal because they are learning. (Interview 2)

At times, she gave rewards to students:

> Sometimes I give them, but today I forgot. May be only a pen or sometimes money, 1000 rupiahs. (Interview 2)

The kind of situation meriting a reward was when:

> May be the students are brave to come to the front. Then when others were not brave enough to answer, the student was confident to answer. (Interview 2)

Mrs. Nelly tried to make learning pleasurable to her students. She also used authentic learning resources so that students could learn from materials available in their environment. This made learning relevant to students' lives.

d. Building professionalism

Mrs. Nelly was committed to teaching well and following the curriculum although she experienced both success and failure.

> Well we indeed teach by following the curriculum. (Interview 1)

and

> Ideally, I want to be like the [teacher] I found in the book I read, the [kind of] one expected by the government. (Interview 1)

She also reflected on the existing approaches to teaching:

> May be from long time ago, they are dictated. Oh this step. This is the homework. So that students lacked independent learning. (Interview 1)

She believed that teacher-centred approaches like this prevented the development of learner autonomy.

She tried to learn from her colleagues:

> I keep asking my colleagues. (Interview 1)

She did not mind teaching with limited media:

> There is no problem even when I do not use the LCD. (Interview 1)

Although Mrs Nelly was satisfied with aspects of her teaching, she measured her teaching success by her students' scores:

> So far, if we see the result, in terms of scores, it is still far. Far from perfect. In the last result, the rank is still bad. (Interview 1)

She attributed these poor results to weaknesses in her teaching. She was not satisfied with her teaching.

Mrs. Nelly experienced both success and failure in her teaching. However, she continued to try to improve herself. She asked her colleagues for advice, and did not feel that it was necessary to have an LCD to teach well.

e. Struggling with teaching problems

Mrs. Nelly encountered challenges in her teaching career. She felt that personal weaknesses affected her teaching but also that unconfident and

unmotivated students, lack of parental support and teaching facilities posed challenges. Even after teaching for 10 to 15 years, Mrs. Nelly still worried about her competence:

> Yes, but I am far from the ideal. Far from perfect teacher. Yes, that's me. (Interview 1)

Her negative perception came from her belief that she had a lot to learn:

> Well the obstacle is from the teacher. From me. Well, the lack of basic knowledge. (Interview 1)

She also acknowledged that she did not preparing multi-modal lessons:

> But sometimes there is an obstacle, the laziness. I do not make my own [teaching] materials. (Interview 1)

It upset her when students seemed unmotivated:

> Sometimes students are not enthusiastic. Students don't have the motivation and then the teacher, me, becomes emotional. (Interview 1)

She also felt that she failed to motivate her students:

> I have not had optimum effort in motivating students so that they have not got the ability to learn independently. (Interview 1)

In spite of her drive for professionalism, Mrs. Nelly was sceptical about the national curriculum and examinations:

> If students are taught using the most recent curriculum, it has not worked in my school. (Interview 1)

She also felt that she still had limited knowledge of the new curriculum:

> Evaluation, well this is the part where I feel really lacking of understanding. (Interview 1)

In addition to that, the pressure of the national examination restricted what she felt she could achieve in her classroom:

> But now, on one hand, I would like to teach like the [recommendations] in the curriculum but grade IX is rushed with the national exams. Then try out 1, and next try out 2, something like that. (Interview 1)

Another concern that she had was about internet use:

> I worry because nowadays a lot of morally deviant information comes from the internet. (Interview 1)

Moreover, Mrs. Nelly considered her students' lack of confidence contributed to the teaching challenges:

> Well, it is a particular problem. They might use English very rarely. They are shy. (Interview 2)

She noticed the same problem when asking questions in class. She found that her students worried about getting negative responses from their friends if they answered incorrectly:

> Yes, because the culture here is always like that, "Mom, what if I am wrong?" Well, perhaps the friends' habits in which they always say "hu…" [a boo] when a friend is answering. So, indirectly there is fear and a feeling of being judged. (Interview 2)

She felt that her students' limited motivation presented another challenge in her classroom:

> Students do not do the task, they do not bring dictionary. They have the wrong schedule and they get up late. (Interview 1)

She perceived that it made it problematic to give independent tasks:

> Then the logic is that when they are alone they are lazy. (Interview 2)

Personal issues and perceived limitations of her students were not the only problems she faced. Another challenge resulted from limited facilities and parental support. She mentioned that her school was under-resourced such as:

> Well here we take turns in using the LCD. There are three LCDs. (Interview 1)

The lack of financial support hindered the realization of her desire to take students to the tourism site:

> Well, the obstacle is that the entry ticket in Borobudur is expensive. (Interview 1)

In terms of parental support, she said:

> Then parents sometimes, sorry to say, are less caring about their kids' education. (Interview 2)

She believed parents were too busy to monitor their children's learning because she could tell that students rarely studied at night and were unlikely to prepare for the next day's lessons. She perceived this as poor parental support.

Overall, Mrs. Nelly knew the benefits of independent learning. She encouraged students to participate in the classroom and taught them to be more independent even when she used the old curriculum. However, she also maintained a dominant role in the classroom. Her desire to take students to the tourism site and her use of authentic materials showed that she recognized the potential of local learning resources in her area. Although

she worked to improve her teaching knowledge and practices, Mrs. Nelly was a teacher who was inhibited by problems in her work and this contributed to limited commitment to the new curriculum.

6.2.2 Mrs. Netty.

Mrs. Netty was teaching grade VIII and she used the new curriculum. She was aware that the new curriculum required her to serve as a learning facilitator in the class and she agreed with this idea. She perceived that when students became more independent, her role of teacher would become easier. However, at the same time she was not fully committed to implementing the new curriculum in her classes. The following themes represented her classroom practices.

a. Reducing the teacher's dominance

Mrs. Netty attempted to limit her dominance when teaching. She did this by making her students more active and independent, giving both individual and group work, and sharing some control with students. In making her students active, questioning her students was one of her strategies:

> You should come. Don't be late. What does this mean? (Observation)

She also used discussion which was followed by student presentation:

> Now you must be with a group of four. Make a dialogue. Give two responses and an invitation. So, you have to make a group. A group consists of four. Make the dialogue. Give response and invitation. (Observation)

Although Mrs. Netty asked students to form a group, in practice, she expected students to work individually in the groups:

> You one, one (pointing at another student), one (pointing at another student), one (pointing at another student), four okay? (Observation)

Thus group work here meant that students sat together in a group but they did their tasks on their own.

She gave collective speaking practice by asking students to read together and asking students to take turn in reading the dialogues. Students were asked to share their personal birthday experiences when she introduced the function of invitation:

> What is your interesting experience? Please tell your friends in front of the class. (Observation)

She trained her students to be more independent by using observation stage and peer evaluation. Her use of discussion was related to this evaluation:

> I use discussion because I want the score. There is a peer-evaluation. We have peer evaluation that you can see if you observe longer. So in a group each student will evaluate those four students. My goal is for evaluation among peers. We have self-evaluation, personal evaluation, and peer evaluation. (Interview 2)

By asking students to evaluate their own and their peers' learning and progress, students could see how different people learnt differently. Students also knew their own strength and weaknesses and they could learn from the peers whose progress was more noticeable. Through this type of evaluation, students gained autonomy in their learning as they determined how to solve their own learning problems, what to learn more and from whom to learn it.

Mrs. Netty also shared management of the class by negotiating the time for and nature of a task with students:

> How many minutes? (Observation)

Or

> 2, 3 or 4 dialogues? (Observation)

She allowed students to choose a meaningful context for applying a particular language function (giving instructions):

> Any instruction will be fine. You can ask people to sweep, give something, take the rubbish, and then throw the rubbish in the bin. You can make such instructions. Open the door is also fine. Up to you. It is free. (Observation)

She also balanced group activities with individual learning:

> Please learn the material up to chapter 5. Learn it independently. (Observation)

Overall, Mrs. Netty worked to make students participate in class and thus reduced her talking time and decreased her dominance in the class.

b. Maintaining the teacher's control

Although Mrs. Netty tried to reduce her dominance, she maintained overall control managing class activities and evaluating students.

As a learning resource, she explained the materials, presented the examples, became the model for students in speaking, and gave review and feedback to students. An example where she explained the material was:

> Today we are going to learn about to give response, to give response, to give response to instruction, instruction. To give response to instruction. To give response to instruction and then to give and respond to an invitation. (Observation)

She then continued by giving examples:

> To give instruction. To give response, instruction. Stand up please for example. Stand up please. Sit down please. Sit down please. Sit down please for example. For example. Sit down please for example. Stand up please. Instruction. Stand up please. Sit down please. Okay now may be clean the whiteboard please. Clean the white board please. Clean the white board please. Go back please. Go back please. Come in please, for example. (Observation)

In effect, she maintained her dominance as it was she who finally decided what was to be done in class after she tried to negotiate with students:

> Four dialogues in five minutes? Five minutes should be for five. You should be able to make five. (Observation)

She also had the final say about assessment:

> I have my own evaluation. There is an evaluation book. The evaluation is also among friends, groups. The group is active or not, polite or not, discipline or not. (Interview 1)

In class, she checked collective and individual learning progress and understanding by questioning students. By asking the whole class and individual students she felt satisfied that everyone understood the material. In this kind of evaluation her role as evaluator could not be replaced, resulting in teacher's dominance.

c. Creating positive learning experiences

Mrs. Netty built good relationships with students, encouraged them to love learning English and linked learning to real life to create positive learning experiences for her students. She began each class by asking students to say the class motto as she believed that this ritual motivated her students. She apologized to students for example when she called a student the wrong name and she tolerated her students' use of Indonesian. Like Mrs. Nelly, she felt that offering rewards was a way to show her appreciation when students made an effort in her class:

> Now if students can answer, they are given rewards. For me, the rewards are only applause, "Good". "Good" or give applause. (Interview 2)

To make the learning close to real life, she took advantage of the natural environment:

> I have taken students out. There is a pine tree, please describe. Then what do you get from the task? Then students improve the vocabulary like twig, bough. There students will add new vocabulary and enrich their vocabulary. (Interview 1)

She also used authentic materials:

> For example, yesterday was about invitations. In chapter four there is a birthday card or other cards. I brought some examples, real examples

so that students know, become familiar and fond of the authentic texts. (Interview 2)

She asked students to share their experiences of visiting the local tourist site:

Please share if you have visited Borobudur. (Interview 1)

To encourage students to enjoy learning English, she used gestures to prompt students to guess what she meant. She did not blame students if they made mistakes. She also presented funny examples, gave amusing demonstrations and she further showed her sense of humour in incidents such as:

Take me to the toilet please. Can we? Take me to the toilet. Can we? (Observation)

This was funny because in our culture we do not ask people to accompany us to the toilet.

d. Building professionalism

As an experienced teacher, Mrs. Netty responded positively to the new curriculum. She expressed her support by following it and being positive about developing her students' autonomy. She used the teaching stages advocated by the new curriculum:

There are: discussion, teacher talk, question and answer session, questioning, observing, presentation or students' practices. (Interview 1)

She further mentioned her reasons for using those activities:

The requirements of the 2013 curriculum are indeed like that; questioning, observing, communicating, and associating.

She believed that there were advantages in developing her students' independence:

When it works, teachers are comfortable. Teachers are comfortable as they only need to monitor, observe as a facilitator. (Interview 1)

Mrs. Netty focused on students' English mastery by setting her own goals in teaching:

My goal is that students are not afraid of using English in daily activity. (Interview 1)

This goal seemed to relate to her awareness that her regency was a tourism area:

Magelang Regency is close to Borobudur, tourism. So in my opinion, if it is possible, we speak English in English lesson. If it is possible. But I invite my students, I often invite them [to speak in English]. So that yesterday we used mixed languages so that students can speak and practice. (Interview 1)

She worked to improve her classroom teaching and her students' learning behaviour by negotiating with students:

> Students become active and teacher does not become somebody they are afraid of. (Interview 2)

Mrs. Netty also reflected on the balance of power in her class:

> It seems like it is more on me, still teacher-centred. But not too teacher centred. (Interview 2)

Her reflection helped her to evaluate her teaching practices and illustrated her effort to improve her future teaching.

e. Experiencing teaching problems

Mrs. Netty described challenges to her teaching which ranged from problems with the new curriculum, problems with students, to problems with support for students' learning. She found it difficult to implement the curriculum in her classroom:

> In the 2013 curriculum teachers are only facilitators. Teachers are only facilitators in an ideal situation. Then students learn independently. I want that kind of situation. But in my school it hasn't worked. It has not worked. When students were left like that, it did not work. (Interview 1)

Certain elements that were hard to apply:

> But the one had not worked so far were the questioning, observing. They had not worked. Even in my class, they had not worked, not even reaching 50%. It is in my case. I did not know about others. (Interview 1)

She did not find the professional development on the curriculum helped her to understand the questioning and observing stages:

> After implementing the curriculum, then I understood what to do. At the beginning when I joined the workshop, I did not understand what questioning and observing was like. After I practised them then I started to understand what those activities were like. (Interview 2)

Sometimes she adapted her lessons:

> I have given 10 minutes for students to finish the work and students directly expressed their objection. Then I always ask "how many minutes?" in fact, in the lesson plan the time is already stated how many minutes, how many minutes, how many minutes. But that is only theory. The practice is not always similar with that. (Interview 1)

Another problem she encountered was her lack of understanding about evaluation:

> I haven't been really clear about the most recent evaluation. So, the new evaluation covers attitude, skills, and a journal. I do not understand about those evaluations. I still face difficulties. (Interview 1)

She found her students too passive and fearful to use English:

> So the students are still afraid of speaking English in English classroom. There were also students who did not respond. "Do you understand?" I asked. They kept silent. (Interview 2)

Besides, she felt that their lack of vocabulary was at the root of their limited participation in class:

> The obstacles is that students' vocabulary is very limited. (Interview 1)

Other obstacles were time constraints and limited learning resources. She worried that she had insufficient time to fulfil all her responsibilities:

> If for example if I am rushing to finish the lesson plans perhaps I am not able to complete the administration stuff. (Interview 1)

At school, she recognized the lack of facilities:

> Here, our school is not ideal yet. It should have used LCDs. (Interview 1)

She also perceived the inadequacy of learning resources for the students:

> And the facilities for students are less than supportive because they only have a book and a dictionary and the dictionary is only for those who own it. (Interview 1)

In short, Mrs. Netty perceived the advantage of developing learner autonomy in her class. She worked to make learners more independent but she maintained control over the classroom learning as she believed the new curriculum was not suitable for her students. She asked her students to share their experiences in their visits to the tourist sites, showing how she valued linking classroom learning to real life.

6.2.3 Mr. Ali.

Mr. Ali was another teacher whose perceptions of learner autonomy were ambivalent. He taught grade VII and used the new curriculum. Mr. Ali felt that his expected new role as a facilitator was not effective in his class. He was aware that achieving learner autonomy was one of the goals in his school in response to globalisation. However, his compliance with this expectation of developing learner autonomy appeared to stem from a belief that his teaching burden would be reduced if students were more independent. He mostly complied with the letter of the new curriculum because it was mandated by the government although he introduced several additional features such as an English hour every week and used other books to supplement the government textbook. Mr. Ali was also aware that local tourist sites could be used as learning resources. He had not taken students to the temple in the regency but he discussed it in the classroom. His teaching practices covered the following activities:

a. Allowing space for autonomy development

Mr. Ali described what he expected of an autonomous learner:

> Well ideally, like what I said before, students search [for information] independently. (Interview 1)

He felt learner autonomy was important for his students:

> It's clear. Autonomy is the primary concept that we emphasize to students. Because in my opinion students will remember more when they find [information for] themselves. So, in my opinion it will be deeper and more impressive for students. (Interview 1)

His strategy to develop learner autonomy included providing chances for independent work:

> For independent work, we have short term and long term homework. So there are two, structured and non-structured. (Interview 2)

In the classroom, he asked his students to use their dictionary rather than telling them definitions. He also shared control with his students by allowing them to design certain tasks. Besides, he believed that independent learning could take place automatically in certain contexts:

> When coming to library, unconsciously they will get new information and that in a kind of learner autonomy in getting information. (Interview 1)

Mr. Ali's words indicated that he agreed with developing learner autonomy. However, his agreement seemed primarily to result from his belief about the benefit of learner autonomy for himself:

> And the teacher seems more comfortable. Because teacher becomes relaxed. Teachers can just sit and observe. (Interview 1)

This showed that he believed that when students became more autonomous or independent, his workload would be reduced.

b. Maintaining the teacher's dominance

Mr. Ali believed that he made students active by offering chance to ask, by questioning students, by involving them in class activities and by giving them tasks. He liked to ask for his students' points of view:

> Group work, cooperation, "*gotong – royong*". Yes. Is the ant a weak animal? In your opinion, in your points of view, is it weak? (Observation)

However, most of the questions were yes or no question where students' chances to expand on their answers was very limited.

At times he prompted students to show their reasoning:

> There, in the highest diagram, who are they Sella? When we see the picture, in Sella's opinion, how do you read that? Mr. Alex. Please explain. (Observation)

But he believed that information provided by the teacher was the most important aspect of his role:

> And what cannot be left [out] is clearly teacher's talk. (Interview 1)

He facilitated students' learning by guiding class activities. He monitored students' learning and concluded that his students lacked basic English skills because they were new to studying English:

> Because here, in the slope of Mount Merapi, there are still many elementary schools that have not introduced English to students. So English in junior high school is something new for them. (Interview 1)

His statements suggest that he knew that ideally his role was to assist students to learn autonomously but as he believed that students had no knowledge of English, he maintained the role of the main transmitter of knowledge.

c. Creating a positive learning atmosphere

Mr. Ali built good relationships with his students by knowing their names and their unique characteristics. He believed that getting close to them was important:

> In my opinion, when we get close to students, we know them and we know each of characters. This student is like this while the others are like that. (Interview 2)

He also praised his students when they demonstrated their learning:

> When they answer correctly, of course we give compliments. We give appreciation. (Interview 2)

Paying attention to his students individually was another way to maintain a learning relationship:

> It is not fair for them when we regard or treat them equally, in my opinion. (Interview 2)

This indicated that Mr. Ali wanted to deal with individual learners and help them learn in their own ways.

d. Providing support for students' learning

One way that Mr. Ali supported his students' learning was by teaching them to be disciplined and build good work habits. To make sure students remembered to bring learning materials such as a dictionary, he used fines:

> Yes, we make regulation. So, students must bring dictionary. Those who do not bring it must pay 500 rupiahs. (Interview 2)

Another thing he did was enlisting parental support particularly for using fines in his classroom.

> Well yes, that has also been approved by students' parents. (Interview 2)

He believed that using strict authority was a good starting point for building positive habits:

> In building students' character, we have to start by forcing. (Interview 2)

He also felt that it was important to encourage students to view a wide range of resources as materials for learning:

> In my opinion, learning materials are not limited. So when we inform students about a theme or topic, for example, students can access [materials] by themselves. So we only give the theme and students access independently either through internet or through any sources where they can find the learning sources. (Interview 1)

He also created meaningful learning by encouraging students to love English learning and making the learning relevant to life. He tried to prevent students from feeling bored:

> Well in my opinion, when students are about to receive knowledge, we have to prepare them or make their condition ready for learning. So when students have motivation, students feel like "I can be like that" Insha'Allah it will be easier for us to give information to them. I usually give real life stories, take the lessons from them, from what we find in our surrounding. So that is my habit in teaching. (Interview 2)

To make learning relevant to life, he used authentic materials and discussed local learning resources. An example of his use of authentic materials was making students learn from an ant:

> Okay, Mr. Ali will give the conclusion. An ant, even though it seems so small, it dies when we step on it, but behind the small body, the animal that dies when you step on it, but there is a philosophy that we can learn. (Observation)

He also used a real life example when he asked the students to compare himself and the guest (me). He used me as an example more than once:

> Remember the ant, isn't it? The small animal can reach the target. Mrs. Tina is studying abroad without paying. Why? Because she is smart. Actually not only because she is smart but she has the dream, she has effort and she has target. I am in the comfort zone and will remain like this. When Mrs. Tina has a dream, has the passion, she will try. This is a real example, real life. (Observation)

In making the learning relate to students' lives, he discussed Borobudur Temple:

> In 2013 book, especially for grade VII, the theme is place of origin and the characteristics of the places. Thus Borobudur emerges automatically. (Interview 1)

He also supported the use of local learning resources:

> In my opinion, it is very good because each area has its own characteristics, its own tourism objects and in the tourism object, we get used or often find foreigners. Students can develop their ability in using English there. (Interview 1)

Although he had not taken students to the temple, he stated that he linked the materials with what was available in Magelang Regency:

> Yes, clearly, linking [materials] with Borobudur, linking with the wealth of Magelang particularly. (Interview 1)

He also supported English for Tourism, a subject that had recently been dropped from the curriculum:

> For the last two years, previously we had English for Tourism (EFT). For me it was very good when we could explain or describe our rich culture, Borobudur, either from history, aims, to meaning of those buildings or their parts, each of the stories. But now, it has been dropped. So, in my opinion, my personal point of view, it has meant a decline in English [as a] subject. (Interview 1)

This showed his awareness of the potential for using the tourism sites as learning resources.

e. Building professionalism

Mr. Ali showed his passion for teaching English:

> I love [it] all. We have to be thankful for it [the job] and we have to do it. (Interview 1)

He also had a positive outlook:

> So we have to keep positive thinking although there will be some obstacles there. (Interview 1)

He felt very positive about the new curriculum:

> Well, every change must be applied and done. (Interview 1)

He added:

> What is important is that we keep making an effort in searching for information on how to implement it well. (Interview 1)

In following the curriculum, his argument was that:

> Because we belong to schools under the ministry, so we have to follow what is mandated by government. So we follow it. (Interview 1)

He also recognized that the curriculum asked him to take a less teacher-centred role:

> In the 2013 curriculum, teachers only serve as facilitators. (Interview 1)

He chose to adapt the curriculum to his context to meet the needs of his students by adding the English hour and by using materials to supplement those issued by the government:

> Besides 2013 curriculum textbooks, we still use previous textbooks, last year books, and library books from last years. (Interview 2)

Even when he agreed with the new curriculum, he reflected that he still used a teacher-centred approach in his classroom when needed:

> It is clear as it is only a review, it used teacher-centred approach. But in my opinion there is a balance [between teacher and students] as when there is a question, I offer it to students who want to answer first. If no one answers, it is then me answering it. (Interview 2)

In terms of his habit of praising students, he linked this with teaching students about appreciation. Mr. Ali was planning ahead to institute English Day in school to enhance students' English proficiency. His current effort was in enhancing students' vocabulary mastery:

> So for me, vocabulary is very important for English learning. (Interview 2)

This was supported by a time allocation for vocabulary learning:

> As we have 5 hours for English, we use 4 hours for learning skills and the other one hour is specially allocated for vocabulary. (Interview 1)

His aim of lifting students' English proficiency was related to his view of globalisation:

> Yes. We have other expectations; clearly we want to equip students with English mastery because now in the globalisation era, there are extraordinarily quick developments. Outside influences. We receive (and) adopt new stuff from abroad. So, that's as the preparation for students to face the globalisation era. (Interview 1)

He hoped that his students would gain English proficiency:

> For me, I wish students would become familiar with using English expressions in their daily lives. Because English is an international language. (Interview 1)

Apart from his effort in building his professionalism as an English teacher, he identified obstacles in his teaching. He believed that people reacted differently to the new curriculum implementation:

> For students, yes there are problems, Teachers as well. Because not all people feel comfortable with changes. (Interview 1)

In his school, he acknowledged that English was a hard subject:

> I don't really know [about] the teaching of English for the whole area of Magelang Regency. But in my school, English is one of the difficult lessons for students. (Interview 1)

He had concerns about students' English achievement in national examinations in the regency level:

> In Magelang Regency, in comparison with other [examined] subjects, English was not in the top level but it is in the middle or low level. (Interview 1)

However, he felt that it was difficult to improve his students' achievement without adequate facilities:

> Yes. Because we are in this school still facing the limitation of facilities. To support the teaching and learning activities, we still experience limitations. (Interview 2)

What is interesting for Mr. Ali's case was that he added the learning hour to meet the need of his students, particularly to develop their vocabulary. This showed his commitment to his students' English learning.

To sum up, Mr. Ali supported the new curriculum and learner autonomy development. He saw learner autonomy development as a way to reduce his workload. He encouraged students to be more active as new language learners but he kept his dominance as, in his context, he believed it was necessary to behave as more than just a learning facilitator. His use of discussion about local tourism sites such as Borobudur and his support for the use of local learning resources showed that he knew their potential.

6.2.4 Mrs. Sinta.

Mrs. Sinta was another teacher whose perceptions of learner autonomy were ambivalent. She perceived the new curriculum as good and she supported the idea of developing learner autonomy especially as she believed that her work would become easier when students were more independent. She recognised the potential of tourism sites and she suspected that these allowed for a meaningful emphasis on English learning in Magelang Regency. Even so, she had not taken the students to the temple. Rather, she used texts about the local tourism objects as discussion points in the classroom. She wanted her students to use English in speaking and she hoped that she could find speaking partners in her school particularly as she felt her personal English proficiency was decreasing. Her decrease in English use was a problem she recognised. She also believed that she was handicapped by limited resources at school and also by her low academic ability students with limited support from home. However, she maintained a professional attitude and

optimized the use of available resources. At the same time she created positive learning experiences, reduced her dominance and allowed space for learner autonomy development.

a. Reducing the teacher's dominance.

As she was aware of the curriculum requirement that students should be active, Mrs. Sinta reduced her dominance by encouraging her students to be resources for one another:

> When there is something ... related to the lesson that students haven't understood, I ask them to ask their friends first. So not directly ask the teachers. So ask their friends first. (Interview 1)

Nonetheless, she maintained her role as most significant resource as she knew that her explanation was still needed. She also served as a learning facilitator where she managed the overall lesson, monitored and evaluated students' learning.

In making students active, she used discussion, she invited volunteers to answer and she also offered chances to ask:

> Any questions? (Observation)

Her way of reducing her dominance was a sign that she was proceeding toward developing learner autonomy.

b. Allowing space for autonomy development

Mrs. Sinta described her vision of how to support learner autonomy development:

> My view is that students are supposed to just observe in the first part or observing stage. Then teachers are indeed not required to explain. So let the student dig [for] the information. So that is the point of students' independence. In the past, students were given knowledge and then given the exercises. But for the 2013 curriculum, from the beginning students are taught to be independent. Students dig [for] information independently from the observing activities then they develop it to the questioning stage. (Interview 1)

But she also had a very personal reason for advocating autonomy:

> Mrs. Sinta: For me it is important that students become independent.
> Me: Important?
> Mrs. Sinta: Yes because it will reduce my work. When students become independent, the teacher just needs to control then guide them, I won't have to continuously focus, they won't have to be guided all the time. So when students can learn by themselves, it will be easy. (Interview 1)

She also trained her students to do independent learning by using books and the dictionary:

> Students also have textbooks, they have a dictionary. Please use them. (Interview 1)

She also gave homework regularly:

> So, after the lesson finishes I surely give homework. (Interview 2)

Mrs. Sinta used a number of strategies to provide chances for learner autonomy development. As with Mr. Ali, however, her support for learner autonomy was mainly related to her belief about her work reduction when students became autonomous or more independent.

c. Creating positive learning experiences

Mrs. Sinta encouraged students to enjoy learning by making learning interesting and preventing students' boredom. She also motivated her students to learn English by sharing experiences with her students. Besides, she built the relationship with her students by praising their efforts:

> Very good. All are smart. (Observation)

The other way was showing her care to them:

> In giving the task I give the task which does not need much [financial] cost. (Interview 1)

She knew her students well because of the small size of the class:

> I am the class teacher and the class is only one. A class for grade VII, a class for grade VIII. And the number of students is only 19. Sorry 18. So, it seems easy for me to memorize [their details]. (Interview 2)

She further commented:

> I love calling names as it seems closer. If called with *Mas* or *Mbak*, it seems like we have distance. (Interview 2)

This showed that she wanted to be closer to students as a way of building her relationship with them.

d. Optimizing available resources

In her current school, Mrs. Sinta tried to solve the problems she encountered. She did this by adapting the curriculum:

> I have to do extra. The students indeed need the work to be explained first. So we have used the newest curriculum but the explanation is still given. (Interview 1)

To solve the unavailability of the book what she did was:

> I copy the books but only the important parts. (Interview 1)

She added that she tried to reduce the copies as a way to solve the financial problem:

> Sometimes when I want to copy a lot, but I have to keep thinking. So I have to minimize the use of photocopy. (Interview 1)

She acknowledged her students' limited vocabulary and she worked on it by allocating time for vocabulary tests:

> But there is an addition for me personally that is vocabulary test. I do that. (Interview 1)

She explained:

> It is not too often. But for grade IX, those who will sit the national examination, the vocabulary test is an obligation. I oblige them to memorize 20 words in a week. In grade VII and VIII I just knew that there was also vocabulary test where students matched the words and the meaning. So I feel that a vocabulary test is important. In addition, if students are not required, well for some smart students, when they see certain words and their meanings, they can directly save the words. But for other students, when they are not obliged to memorize, sometimes they do not want to memorize independently or they do not want to open the dictionary. (Interview 1)

She also believed that ICT would be a support for her teaching:

> For LCD, thank God, yesterday we just got one more. So we have two. (Interview 1)

Mrs. Sinta believed that students could learn from authentic materials and environments. She used pictures in her class and an example of what she did was:

> I made a link. For example, in the past we had a text entitled Borobudur Temple so it was easy to explain. Then yesterday students were taken to Elo River to see the rafting activities. In each lesson, sometimes I tell stories about the surrounding environment. So [I] discuss places that students have ever visited. (Interview 1)

She also took students to learn outside the class when she introduced counting:

> In introducing the counting and things in the environment including trees, introducing trees, what trees we have and what are the numbers of the trees. (Interview 1)

This showed that Mrs. Sinta had an awareness of the potential of local learning resources available in her environment.

e. Building professionalism

Mrs. Sinta supported the new curriculum:

> In my opinion, when the curriculum is implemented according to the procedures, the result of the 2013 will be better. Students are required to be active and thus become more independent in the learning. (Interview 1)

She had implemented it in her classrooms as she was also aware that it was the mandate from the government:

> Because grade VII and VIII have used the 2013 curriculum so the stages cover observing, questioning, exploring, then experimenting, networking and communicating. (Interview 1)

She aimed to refine her teaching. She reflected on her teaching practices and felt that better technology would make her a more effective teacher:

> When there is a power point the teaching becomes more organized. (Interview 1)

She added that her teaching would be supported when the standard dictionary was available:

> So the dictionary is also supportive to learning when they are standard. (Interview 1)

To improve her knowledge she also upgraded her knowledge by attending professional development workshops:

> We had short workshop. There was an example of video in which the learning in it had fully used the 2013 curriculum. The students had already become totally independent. They had complete independence. (Interview 1)

She tried to get advice from other teachers too:

> I got a chance for sharing with a teacher from another school. (Interview 1)

The feedback she got was:

> "Bu, if possible, students are required to know the meanings of the vocabulary in the worksheet, or they should be drilled because it is very important" I got the feedback and I did that. (Interview 1)

She then planned her future teaching. She wanted in her future teaching to use LCD and include more outdoor activities. To have better teaching and learning she felt that she needed more able students:

> I want active students. If possible, I want them to communicate by using English. (Interview 1)

She also hoped to improve her teaching practices:

> When the students are okay, I want to do guiding. First I only give a model in a short time then guide them so that they can work independently. (Interview 1)

Her other expectation seemed to be influenced by her previous teaching experiences. She had taught in both senior high school and junior high school:

> I have taught in a Junior High School in Yogyakarta. (Interview 1)

She also felt that her passion for English was not reflected in her current students:

> In the past, I had an experience in my junior high school where I love English because I love music first. I love music first. Then when there

were advertisements related to English, I also wanted to know what their real meaning. So I often share this with my students but in fact the passion is different. (Interview 1)

In her previous life and teaching career, she used to use English more:

> In the past, when I taught in senior high school, the school was a bit bigger. I had a partner as we had more than one English teacher. Sometimes my colleague who was senior and a government teacher invited me to have a conversation using English. So I had no other choices except responding. But here I am alone. (Interview 1)

Her past work experiences appeared to influence her expectations in her current work place. In her past schools she had found students and colleagues as active partners for conversations, and she wanted the same in the current school.

f. Experiencing internal and external teaching problems

Mrs. Sinta encountered some internal and external challenges in her teaching. The internal obstacles came from herself:

> But here sometimes I feel confused with the school condition. (Interview 1)

Her confusion was due to the different school environment which was unlike that at her previous school. In the previous school she could take students to the basketball court where they could sit around and do the learning. But in her current school, she found no such a place, and she was afraid of the worms which could make students felt itchy as it was the worm season.

She also felt that her proficiency had declined during her work as an English teacher in her school:

> It seems that I have lost a lot of my knowledge, I mean my active communication. In the past my lecturer often invited students to have conversation by using English. Now it is decreasing. The skill is decreasing as it is rarely used. (Interview 1)

She felt that she was not an active English user anymore:

> I am passive, I rarely use it. (Interview 1)

The external problem she faced was in teaching what she perceived to be weak students with very little support from their parents. She could not implement the practices shown in the curriculum workshop as her students needed more help:

> So, how can I say it? I used the new curriculum but I still explained. It should be done. More explanation is needed although teachers were not required to explain too much. (Interview 1)

She realised that other teachers shared the confusion about giving explanation to students:

> When we heard the 2013 curriculum for the first time, teachers commented "although we give explanation, students do not understand, so what will happen if we do not explain the lessons?" So the understanding was that no explanation is given to students. But I think we can still explain the materials, it depends on the students' capability. If they still need the explanations, we should provide them. (Interview 1)

The need to explain seemed to relate to her belief that her students had low academic ability:

> Or because indeed students are really poor in terms of their human resources. (Interview 1)

She also knew that her students had limited vocabulary:

> Sometimes when we take them to real situation, well like yesterday when I taught grade IX, they met the word luxury. It was their first time to hear that word. (Interview 1)

She believed that some students were dependent too:

> But most of my students; independence was in the middle to low level. (Interview 1)

She perceived that the parents of her students did not show an interest in their children's academic success:

> Sometimes I ask: "You got 90, how are your parents? You got 50 how are your parents?" "So so. The most important thing is it is signed." That is. So here is where my disappointment lies. (Interview 1)

She also had concerns about the resources in school. She felt the facilities in her school were still limited:

> Because there is only one LCD, and one laboratory room, then my class, class VII, has no electrical outlet so we have to take turns. (Interview 1)

In terms of dictionary she commented:

> Here the limitation is on the dictionary. The school has provided dictionary but they are not standard dictionaries. (Interview 1)

Another problem was the textbooks unavailability:

> All, grade VII, VIII have not got the books. (Interview 1)

Another obstacle dealt with financial matters:

> The obstacles in the small school surely relates to finance. (Interview 1)

She added:

> If we want to use students' class treasury, the number of students is also very small. (Interview 1)

Mrs. Sinta indicated that she struggled a lot in her work as she worked with limited support or facilities, students of limited ability, and little parental support. Besides, she struggled with her disappointment in her declining English proficiency.

Mrs. Sinta trained students to learn independently by encouraging her students to ask their friends or to use the dictionary. The homework she gave in each lesson was also a strategy to make students learn independently at home. Interestingly, coexisting with her desire to follow the curriculum in making students more active and independent, she looked forward to an easier job when her students were independent. She recognised the potential of the local learning resources in the regency and she wished there was more emphasis on the English proficiency of students studying in Magelang Regency. Despite the problems she faced, she was creative and used pictures, hand phones and the school environment to facilitate her teaching.

These four teachers above shared similarities in the way that they viewed the benefits of learner autonomy. They implemented the new curriculum by reducing their dominance but in some ways they maintained a teacher-centred classroom. Thus they had mixed approaches to implementing learner autonomy development.

6.3 Conflicted Approaches to Implementing Learner Autonomy Development

The final two teachers employed teaching practices which did not appear to enhance independent learning. These teachers perceived the new curriculum positively but in their efforts to give learners independence and freedom, these newer teachers lost control over the classroom activities. Students did not appear to be on-task during independent classroom activities and these teachers struggled to control them. They were categorised as teachers with conflicted approaches to implementing learner autonomy development due to their lack of classroom management which limited any opportunities for autonomy development.

6.3.1 Mrs. Diana.

Mrs. Diana taught by using the newest curriculum and she had positive perceptions about it. She accepted the role of facilitator and was aware of the benefit of doing so. She recognized the potential of tourist sites and she took advantage of those places by presenting the texts related to them in the class. She focused on students' use of English and she planned to take students for English practice in those places. Her main concerns were about the lack of facilities in her school which make her feel unprepared to implement the curriculum. She found her students to have limited English proficiency but she kept

trying to build their character and English skills. Her teaching practices were represented by the following themes:

a. Directing students' learning

She closely directed classroom activities and managed the time carefully. At the beginning of the lesson she prepared the class to learn by asking students to clean the blackboard and find the chalk. She then introduced the task by playing a song through her laptop and she checked students' homework. She monitored students' progress and evaluated it:

> Moreover, for me, although it may be a bit difficult for some teachers, especially when the time of teaching is only 1 or 2 hours, if there is a task, I tend to mark [it] directly. (Interview 1)

She also gave corrections when students made wrong pronunciation and gave necessary help to students in their learning:

> Maybe when they are not able to search [for] the information or they are lacking information I can help them. (Interview 1)

In addition to guiding the learning processes, she assigned group and individual work. For her, group work was a means for learning from peers:

> So usually if they are active, they are not alone, I am active, their friends are active they can exchange the information among peers. (Interview 1)

For the individual work, she gave similar tasks to those completed in class as homework:

> Okay, the task at home, if today you had written in Bahasa Indonesia, please find a song in English. Please write individually. (Observation)

This showed that she expected students to be able to work independently and find, compare, and select English songs and then write about one of them.

b. Reducing the teacher's dominance

Mrs. Diana tended to be the main learning resource in the class:

> Yes, first I usually introduce the materials, what the materials are about. After that, I try to find out whether they have understood or not. Then I explain a little and when they have got the understanding, I finally present the examples. (Interview 1)

But she realized that she only wanted to be a learning facilitator:

> For me, it is better to be just a learning facilitator so I let the students develop and become active. (Interview 1)

She further explained:

> Usually if students want to search for information independently and they are active perhaps, they will understand it more. (Interview 1)

She was flexible about aspects of students' learning for example in deciding on the group size:

> Student: Can we have 5 members?
> Mrs. Diana: Yes, you can have 5 or 4. (Observation)

She also maximized students' active participation by offering chances for students to read aloud:

> How to read it? You are brave when reading together. Now who'd like to try? Is there [anyone]? (Observation)

She also selected individual students to respond:

> Okay, now I point Banu who previously wanted to give opinion.
> Okay, in your opinion, what is the message of the song?
> (Observation)

She questioned students and she involved students in class activities such as in reading and singing. By doing so, she ensured that everyone took part in the learning activities.

c. Creating positive learning experiences

Mrs. Diana made students' learning enjoyable and related it to their lives. She tried to make the learning process straightforward:

> I start with the simple. May be something that they see as simple. (Interview 1)

She also selected materials with care:

> I try to arouse their interest with something interesting. (Interview 1)

She created a conducive learning environment by asking students to pay attention:

> Okay, done? If you are done please be silent. I will explain the instructions. (Observation)

To relate the lesson to life, she discussed tourism sites in the class:

> Maybe they are mentioned in the texts. May be Borobudur Temple or Gardu Pandang (viewing post) or places around here are mentioned in the texts. But that's only the descriptions. So we ask students to imagine the places. So far that is what has been done. (Interview 1)

She recognised the potential of the available tourism sites for students' learning:

> Well, like what I said before, the use of tourism objects. We can do the learning in tourism objects. (Interview 1)

She also built a relationship with her students by memorizing students' names:

> Yes, I intentionally memorize [the names] although my memory is not as sharp as other teachers' but quite poor, but for those students who are a bit over they will be easier to remember. For me memorizing the names is important and they have to be memorized. If not, may be students feel that they were not recognized. If those memorized are only certain students, there will be jealousy. (Interview 2)

She shared students' evaluations with them:

> So students are asked to collect the work and I directly check it and it may be shown to them. "This is your score. I have the report of score" and from there students will realize "oh my score is recorded there". (Interview 1)

She also believed that it motivated students if they knew their evaluation results:

> When students, those who are lazy, they will know more, "this is your score, these are the empty ones, these are the other scores. So when they see their friends have completed all the task and have full scores, they will get the motivation to ask "which part I haven't completed mom? Why my score is like this? So that kind of effect. (Interview 1)

She encouraged her students by giving compliments and not criticising them:

> The first line please. I will not criticise the reading. (Observation)

By using these strategies Mrs. Diana created a positive environment for learning English.

d. Building professionalism

Mrs. Diana has developed professionalism through working as a non-government teacher, teaching at two schools at the same time, following the most recent curriculum, and reflecting on her teaching practices. She enjoyed the challenge of the new curriculum:

> Here, because we have used the new curriculum so we follow it, we try. (Interview 2)

She thought it would benefit her students to practise English outside the class:

> Perhaps one day I can take them to the tourist sites, if we can afford it. By going there students can practise their English when doing the interview even if they only use simple questions. It develops their confidence. We can practise with the tourists. (Interview 1)

At the same time, as a new teacher she tried to build both students' character and their English proficiency. She built students' English skills through religious activities held at school:

> I want them to use English, I mean they can communicate in English and because here the students usually have [a religious] seven-minute talk, recitation, so English can be used in those activities. So students can make a speech in English or something similar to that. Although

> our school is a private one, with Islamic basics, we are not left behind. Not all Muslims are left behind. (Interview 1)

She supported the goals of her school:

> When I mention that students can make the speech, one of the goals is for promotion, the school promotion, so that it is interesting. (Interview 1)

She added another reason for developing her learners' English proficiency:

> Perhaps for the knowledge. Most books on religion were written in English due to its status as an international language. There are also liberal books or books written in English by anti-Islam authors. If we do not master English, how can we oppose them? (Interview 1)

Despite enjoying her teaching career in a religious school, she felt disappointed that there was no more civil servant recruitment. This showed that she would have liked to become a government teacher but the government had applied a moratorium that no new civil servants were recruited.

e. Facing obstacles in curriculum implementation

Mrs. Diana identified various obstacles in her teaching. First, she felt that she encountered problems with the school's resources:

> So actually the problem is here. Because actually the goal is perhaps good but the facilities are inadequate. (Interview 1)

More specifically, she gave an example:

> For me, for the current 8th graders, the [government] books are not available. (Interview 1)

She would have liked better ICT resources:

> LCD, not all. May be only the top floor. Only some. So, there are also LCDs on the lowest floor but only one or two. So not everyone can use it. (Interview 1)

In implementing the curriculum, she felt the lack of readiness:

> So we are still "*gagap-gagap*" [unsure] in implementing it. (Interview 1)

Moreover, she struggled with the use of group work:

> When for example the group gets similar type of students with low-ability, sometimes what they discuss is different [from the topic]. Sometimes it is like that. … They seem to have discussion but what they discuss is different. (Interview 1)

Another problem came from her perception that her students were weak. She felt that her students had limited ability and were dependent on the teacher:

> And students usually, these days, not all students want to search [for] information independently without the teacher's help. Sometimes it's like that. (Interview 1)

She also found some of her students unmotivated:

> Although we have explained as detail as possible, sometimes in the next task, when they are required to work independently to search further information, some of them are lazy. There are such kind of students. (Interview 1)

Her students wanted to be entertained:

> There is sometimes a class which tends to be noisy. They want to do something. So in learning, they do not want something fixed, they want games, they want that. (Interview 1)

She believed that when she had smart students they would be active without being asked to be so:

> Then, if for example students have adequate intelligence they usually will be active automatically. (Interview 1)

She suggested that she would be able to implement the curriculum better if she had better facilities and a higher calibre of students in her classroom.

Mrs. Diana worked on reducing her dominance in the class. She perceived the curriculum positively but she could not fully implement it due to various contextual and non-contextual factors. Her struggle with group work showed how the independence she gave to students made her lose control over what students were doing. She recognized the potential of the local tourism sites in supporting English learning but she had not taken students to visit them. However, she had discussed those objects in class signalling how she tried to link the classroom learning to students' environment and real life.

6.3.2 Ms. Arina.

Mrs. Arina was teaching grade IX and used the old curriculum. She was also teaching grade VII and she perceived the new curriculum positively. She knew how to make students more independent in their learning. She felt that it was important to support the curriculum and develop learner autonomy and she strove to fulfil her professional responsibilities by improving her teaching practices and developing students' communication skills. Even so, she maintained her teaching dominance by managing the class closely and becoming the main learning resource in her classroom. Her teaching was supported by the availability of foreigners' visits which allowed her students to do some speaking practice. To create positive learning experiences, she built good relationships with students, created an enjoyable learning environment, used authentic learning resources and

recognized the need for psychological support for students. The teaching problems she identified mainly arose from the nature of her students which she perceived as weak and "active", and from the limited facilities. She also encountered internal teaching problems as she felt that she had limited access to English, lacked skill in teaching preparation and had unpredictable teaching results. Her teaching practices were represented by the following themes.

a. Maintaining the teacher's dominance

Ms. Arina kept her dominance as she managed and directed all classroom activities. She was the primary learning resource for her students where she explained the materials and tasks, as well as gave examples, corrections and conclusion. She realised that lack of preparation was the source of many of her classroom problems:

> Then the result is that we had more portion [in talking], we have to explain. (Interview 1)

When she was not well prepared, she had to explain more and take extra time to handle the class.

She talked a lot as she started with a review of previous lesson, then explained the next task, answered students' questions, wrote on the board, explained the task, and discussed materials. She took a long time to give examples. Then she also corrected students' pronunciation and finally concluded the lesson.

b. Creating positive learning experiences

To create positive learning experiences, she built good relationships with students by being close to them:

> I may, 50%, become a friend because in the middle of their learning students share their feelings. Miss, I experienced this and this at home. (Interview 1)

But she also kept a professional distance:

> But of course there must be a particular line. Even though I am their friend but there is a limit. (Interview 1)

Her current relationship with students was:

> The closeness is closer. There is nearly no distance. (Interview 1)

She knew her students' names and hobbies as she had taught them previously, and she could call on them in class when they were noisy. She added that it made a difference when she knew her students:

> Surely, there are differences. What it is. Students may tend to get close when their teacher knows their names. And also, for example, when there are some students making noise, we can call their names directly

> or we can also make an examples by using the students' names and they will realize it that it was directed to them. (Interview 2)

She praised them in class, and expressed gratitude when she accepted students' answers.

Ms. Arina created an enjoyable learning environment by making students physically active. She reduced their sitting period. Her reason was:

> If they are not taken to outdoor activities or activities which require them to move, they will get sleepy. (Interview 2)

An example of what she did was using games from YouTube:

> I use it. It made students felt that this is learning but it uses running as they have to catch each other. That's games. (Interview 1)

She felt that games were an effective teaching technique:

> Then for games, student are trained to learn unconsciously. So what they know is that they are playing. But in fact there is a particular learning in it. (Interview 1)

At other times she presented funny examples, varied task design, and linked students' lives and the materials. She also employed authentic learning resources in which she used people such as students, tourists, and guests as learning resources:

> Mr. Munir, the head of education board of Ma'arif sometimes brings the tourists to tour our school then students have a chance to ask questions. Mr. Munir is a teacher in a school in Borobudur. In that area there are a lot of UNESCO volunteers and sometimes they are taken here. (Interview 1)

Tourists engaged in self-defence activities also visited the school:

> And sometimes the foreigners visiting the self-defence institution are taken here. (Interview 1)

She made her students examples too and when I came she also used me as an example:

> We have to imitate her motivation okay? (Observation)

She used the internet to support her teaching:

> Now the internet is no more an expensive thing, they can also access internet. (Interview 1)

An example was the Facebook group she created with her students:

> We also created Fb group. Because I asked my students "Are you active in social media?" "What social media?" Facebook. Then we created a closed group and now we have discussions. (Interview 1)

She also used other authentic resources in the classroom such as videos, games, and TV ads. She designed tasks related to students' environment:

> For example when [we were studying how to write a] report text we linked with snake fruit. And the students had to make the report. (Interview 1)

She believed these were beneficial:

> Because those examples were really available in the environment. So students can understand through the examples given. That's my opinion. (Interview 2)

She had also planned a visit to the temple:

> For English club extracurricular, this academic year the visit to Borobudur will be at the end of the academic year. (Interview 1)

Ms. Arina was also aware of the importance of psychological supports for learning such as students' motivation, confidence and enjoyment of the lessons.

> I want my students to get motivated. (Interview 1)

She added:

> When they are motivated I hope the learning objectives can be achieved. (Interview 1)

She felt that self-confidence was necessary for students' learning:

> I think if students have the confidence to greet or ask question to the foreigners, it is a support. (Interview 1)

She also wanted students to enjoy English classes.

Ms. Arina worked to make students' learning enjoyable and she was creative in the way that she used Facebook to discuss English materials and to accommodate students' questions after school hours. The visits of tourists provided a bridge between learning and real life.

c. Building professionalism

Ms. Arina built her professionalism by following the curriculum guidelines. She held positive perceptions about it.

> So far, I have followed the curriculum. I haven't had any other ideas about it as in my opinion the evaluation in the 2013 curriculum has been organized. There are evaluations of knowledge, attitude and skills. (Interview 1)

She added:

> The 2013 curriculum encourages students to be more active and not to rely on the teachers as learning resources. (Interview 1)

She tried to make students more independent by making students learn from their friends. She explained how peers could become learning resources:

> What is often done is discussion, group discussion then students are asked to observe something. In… individual work, they cannot exchange ideas. (Interview 1)

She added that she used text analysis to encourage students to learn independently through reading and observing:

> Those (the texts) are glued on the wall. Then students analyse the texts and categorize them. So I give the codes of the texts like text A, B, C, and D or sheet 1, 2, 3. Next, I ask my students to analyse them. For example, the first sheet, what kind of text it is, what about its purpose, structures, and contents. Something like that. It is because students have to be forced to read and that is one of the ways to make them really read those texts. When we only ask them "Please read this text", I am pretty sure that they will not do it fully. That's it. (Interview 1)

Her reasons were:

> Students should be forced to read and that is one way to make students really read. (Interview 1)

Ms. Arina explained her approach to develop learner autonomy:

> Perhaps by familiarizing students with the library, well this may not only be for English subjects, so, we can make use of the library. Another example, we can make use of the applications on the laptop or hand phones which support the learning. (Interview 1)

She also developed students' communicative skills by making students speak in class, focusing the lesson on communicative skills and expecting students to have outside class speaking practice. To make her students speak, she questioned them and offered them the chance to speak. She also asked students to give examples, repeat the answer and review the lesson. She told a class:

> The most important from our English learning is that we can speak English. (Interview 1)

She prioritised communication over grammar:

> First students need to be skilful, then confident, and not afraid. Grammar does not have to be correct. (Interview 1)

She added:

> Either we want it or not there is a relationship, I mean we have to master English to communicate with tourists because someday we will need it, we will have the need to use English. (Interview 1)

She also had a focus on out-of-class English practice as she established an English club for students. Besides, she expressed her desire to take students to have English practices:

> I myself have not made use of them but I want to take students to tourism village or to the tourism objects like temple. (Interview 1)

She admitted that she liked teaching in Magelang Regency because of the tourism potential. She mentioned:

> Because Borobudur is quite popular, quite popular in foreign countries, there are many visitors coming here. (Interview 1)

Ms. Arina also tried to improve her teaching by learning from her school experiences. Her past experiences informed her teaching practice:

> My English teacher was very grumpy and so when we faced difficulties we were afraid of asking. Therefore if for example teachers are like friends, then asking questions will not be a problem. (Interview 1)

She used these to plan her future teaching:

> I have to change, I have to be more optimal. (Interview 1)

She reflected on her teaching in an effort to improve her teaching practices:

> Because I have been teaching for several academic years, for example, if I applied an activity in the previous years, I evaluate it, what was missing. But then the improvement is not much. For example if in the previous year students were asked to find the parts of the texts, in the future I will provide them with the text parts but the students should analyse them. So, like that, I myself did the evaluation. (Interview 1)

In this way she tried to improve her own practices by evaluating her lessons. This showed that she practiced reflective teaching.

d. Dealing with weak students and limited facilities

Ms. Arina found some of her students were shy with English speakers:

> When students are shy, it also becomes a problem. (Interview 1)

She also appreciated it when students had the courage to ask questions:

> Here there are more students who ask. (Interview 1)

Although she encouraged students to ask questions, she realised that her students' habit of asking her questions signalled their dependency on her. When dealing with the students who kept asking and calling her, she felt:

> Well, it is actually troublesome. But because they may be very enthusiastic, so they have to be responded to, there is no other way, although previously explanations had been given and they could also find [the answer] in their books. (Interview 2)

Students' sleepiness was another challenge for her:

> The worst hour is after afternoon prayer up to 3 pm. Students usually like being told stories. So most of them are sleepy. (Interview 2)

She wanted English to be her students' favourite subject but this was not easy. Although some of her students were shy, she acknowledged that she had active students:

> The majority of the students here are active. (Interview 1)

Thus the activities she chose for students were mainly designed to encourage this:

> As the students in this school are quite active, so I take advantage of them. (Interview 1)

She added:

> The activities which require students to run and then the games were used because the students cannot stay silent. Very active. May be the new teachers often get surprised that the students here are more active than the students in other schools. (Interview 1)

She signalled that what she meant by active was something else, reflecting how students were unable to keep silent or sit nicely.

Next, she encountered problems with the facilities. Her feeling was:

> Here the school is not ideal yet. Not yet ideal. (Interview 1)

The natural environment also created some problems:

> The internet can be used in good weather. Because this school is far from residential centre, sometimes the telephone does not work in the heavy rains. (Interview 1)

This showed that the internet access was not stable due to the weather changes.

e. Having internal teaching problems

Ms. Arina identified that the greatest problem she faced was her own lack of teaching preparation. She was busy as a teacher as she taught two different grades and gave additional lessons after school to prepare students for national examinations. She was aware that she had limited teaching preparation time:

> Sometimes time becomes an obstacle, sometimes I could not really prepare myself. (Interview 1)

She also perceived her explanations were not always effective. She also found the new forms of evaluation hard:

> Perhaps it is more complicated. (Interview 1)

She added, even when she had tourist visits, these were infrequent and she did not use the local learning resources to balance this. Thus, she did not provide many opportunities for English practice. In addition, her teaching results varied. Sometimes she failed:

> I experienced it (failure), often. Later, later in the middle of the activities, there are always students asking "What do we need to do?" "What do you ask us to do?" Then students kept asking about the relationship between the activities and the learning materials. Sometimes there were students who were not able to meet the lessons, the objectives. A lot. Therefore, the conclusions should be given. (Interview 1)

The success of her teaching was limited to certain group of students:

> It was effective for students who enjoyed it. I think it is effective enough. (Interview 1)

This showed that Ms. Arina really struggled in her beginning years of developing her teaching career.

Ms. Arina worked to train students to be more independent. She made students learn from friends and she used observation as a stage for students to be more independent in their learning. Outside the class, she provided support through using a Facebook group for discussion with the students. But she remained the main learning resource for her students. Then when students had to analyse a text independently, my observation showed that the independence she gave to students resulted in an uncontrolled classroom. Students were very noisy as they talked in Indonesian or Javanese and the discussion was not about the material learnt. This was because her students tended to call out to her when they faced difficulties and she answered. This hindered these students' development of autonomy.

In short, these two teachers directed students' activities carefully but off-task and dependent students posed a particular obstacle. Both of them tried to make everyone participate in the class activities but they were not successful in making students more independent in learning the language. Students remained dependent on the teachers and group work created for the purpose of peer-learning did not appear to enhance their independence. In this way, the lack of classroom management limited their efforts to develop autonomy.

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CHAPTER VII
INTERACTIONS BETWEEN TEACHER BELIEFS AND PRACTICES

This chapter explores in more depth the interaction between each teacher's beliefs and practice in developing learner autonomy. Any study of teachers' beliefs and practices needs to take context into account, therefore the macro-context, exo-context and micro-context of each individual case is considered. These terms are borrowed from Zheng (2015) and draw on Bronfenbrenner's (1996) ecological systems. This analysis clusters the teachers into three groups based on the strength of each teachers' beliefs as revealed in the survey. But no neat formula could be developed that accounted for the many individual aspects of the findings, as each case is unique in its own context. For this reason, a diagram is provided to portray the complex interactions between teacher beliefs and practices experienced by each individual teacher, and each case is nested within its own particular contexts. The presence of any tensions within the cases is further indicated by the use of broken lines in the diagrams to emphasize its complexities.

7.1 The Beliefs and Practices of the Teachers with Consistent Approaches to Implementing Learner Autonomy Development

The first three teachers had positive approaches to implementing learner autonomy development according to the survey result and their observed teaching practices. Interestingly, a cross case analysis showed that contextual factors played different roles in shaping and being shaped by individuals' teaching practices. A diagram for each teacher provides an overview of how the teachers' strong beliefs in supporting autonomy interacted with their teaching practices and contextual factors.

Mrs. Dewi

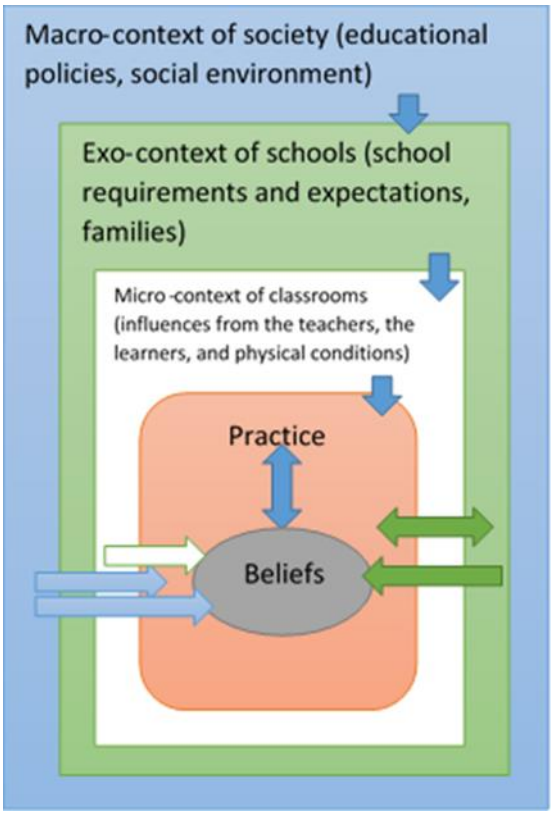

Figure 18. Interactions between Mrs. Dewi's beliefs, practices and contextual factors

Mrs. Dewi perceived learner autonomy positively and her teaching practice reflected this perception although she was teaching grade IX with the old curriculum. The micro context of the classroom such as her perceptions of the students' high level of motivation and learning ability, the access to teaching resources and the availability of the internet contributed to the consistency between her beliefs and teaching practice. Mrs. Dewi's perception of the students' high ability also affected her beliefs that students could learn independently. Within the exo-context of school, her school had directed teachers to implement the curriculum in the classroom, and the students' families supported classroom practices of developing learner autonomy by providing students with laptops and monitoring students' learning results from home. The macro-context of society dictated that the school had to implement the national curriculum according to the existing educational policies. The availability of the tourist sites and authentic materials also affected both teacher's beliefs and practices. Mrs. Dewi believed that English learning can be enhanced by exposure to English in the local environment, and her teaching also employed authentic texts found within the local environment. She also believed that globalisation requires students to be autonomous to prepare them for the future. Her

successful practices strengthened this teacher's beliefs that students could conduct autonomous learning. In this case, contextual factors were supportive to Mrs. Dewi's beliefs and practices. As Mrs. Dewi believed that learner autonomy was important for students' future lives, she made an effort to develop learner autonomy in her classroom so both beliefs and practices aligned to support her positive approaches to implementing learner autonomy development.

Mrs. Wina

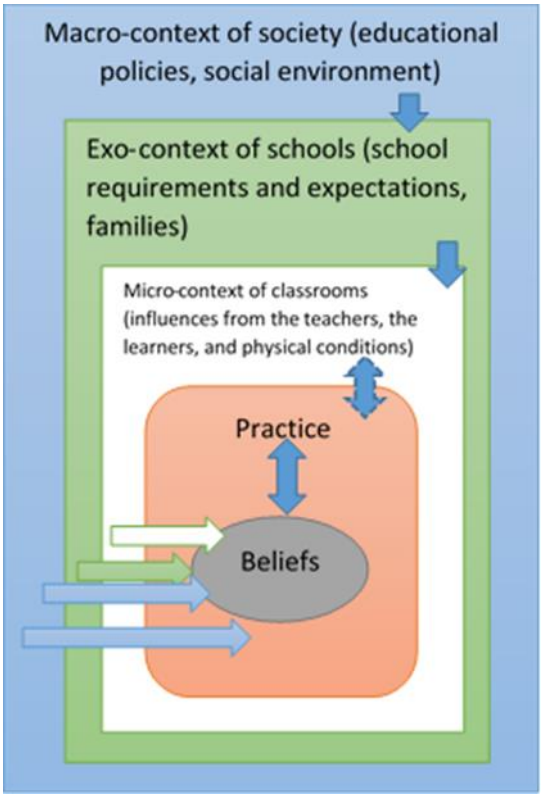

Figure 19. Interactions between Mrs. Wina's beliefs, practice and contextual factors

Mrs. Wina had positive perceptions about autonomy as well as about the new 2013 curriculum. The macro-context of society affected her beliefs and teaching practices. First, she believed that since her students looked forward to a globalised future, they would need to become independent. Second, she saw the potential of tourist objects and authentic materials for enhancing students' English learning both inside and outside class. She advised students to practise speaking with foreigners and she also took students to the Borobudur Temple. Within the exo-context of her school, she perceived the requirement to implement the new curriculum positively and she believed that the new curriculum and the old curriculum differed only in terminology. Her teaching practice also reflected her efforts towards developing learner autonomy as the curriculum required. She believed that shy

students in her class had less ability to develop learner autonomy. However her commitment to developing autonomy sustained her practice of encouraging all her students to be more independent. Her experience showed her that students were creative, could learn independently at home, and also could learn from their friends. This encouraged her to develop students' autonomy further. The ample facilities in her classroom like an LCD and laptop, along with her creativity in integrating authentic texts in her lessons, enabled her to follow the stages of teaching proposed in the curriculum. Like the first teacher who believed in the importance of learner autonomy for students' future lives, this teacher demonstrated positive approaches to implementing learner autonomy development.

Mrs. Maya

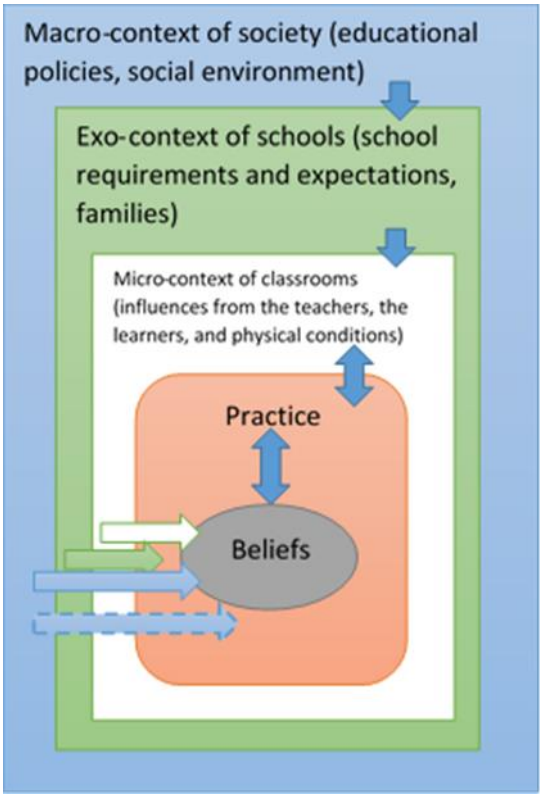

Figure 20. Interactions between Mrs. Maya's beliefs, practice, and contextual factors

Mrs. Maya had very positive perceptions about learner autonomy and the new curriculum. She believed that teachers were among many available learning resources for students and she felt that smart students could guide their friends. These beliefs encouraged her to provide opportunities for independent learning. She used group work and she served as a learning facilitator. The micro-context of classroom supported her teaching as the class had access to ICT resources. Her commitment to developing learner autonomy was reflected in her practice of tasking individual students to find resources in their daily lives

and then connect with the texts in the classroom. Integrating authentic materials seemed to be her way of solving the shortage of textbooks (a constraint from the macro-context).The exo-context of school and family gave her support as students' parents brought tourists to school so that the students could have authentic opportunities for speaking practice. She was also aware of the potential of tourist sites in the macro-context of her location and thus she encouraged her students to visit them. Her students' willingness to speak to tourists made her believe that students had the ability to learn independently. Mrs. Maya showed her commitment to developing learner autonomy despite constraints in her classroom and this made her a strong supporter of learner autonomy especially as the idea of developing learner autonomy did not just come from the curriculum requirement but from herself as an English teacher.

Being very positive about learner autonomy and the new 2013 curriculum was the similarity shared by these three teachers. They also had a clear idea of why they wanted to develop learner autonomy, signalling that they did not merely follow the curriculum mandated by government. They all worked towards developing learner autonomy in their classroom and shared the practice of group work. Differences in their practices related to different levels of support and constraints offered by their teaching contexts.

The first teacher felt completely supported by contextual factors but the other two teachers did not. The micro-context for the second and the third teachers was less supportive in that the second teacher believed that shy students had less ability to develop autonomy while the third teacher faced a shortage of textbooks. The exo-context for the first and the third teachers was supportive but not for the second teacher. This could be seen in the different levels of parental support in monitoring students' learning progress in the first teacher's case and the way parents brought tourists to school in the third teacher's case. These kinds of support were absent in the second teacher's case. This illustrates the complexity of teachers' beliefs: as similar perceptions or beliefs about learner autonomy, in this case, being very positive about learner autonomy, were expressed by different teachers who taught in different contexts with different resources and challenges. These teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy seemed to be the strongest influence on their teaching practices, with a clear difference that in the first teacher's case her belief was supported by the context, but for the last two teachers it was their beliefs which led their practices, letting no contextual factors hinder their efforts in fostering learner autonomy.

7.2 The Beliefs and Practices of the Teachers with Mixed Approaches to Implementing Learner Autonomy Development

There were four teachers in this category and they all perceived the curriculum positively and they also supported learner autonomy in theory. However they also had their doubts about developing learner autonomy in practice. As they taught in different contexts, they faced their own challenges in enacting their teaching practices of developing learner autonomy. The interactions among their beliefs, practices and contextual factors are presented next.

Mrs. Nelly

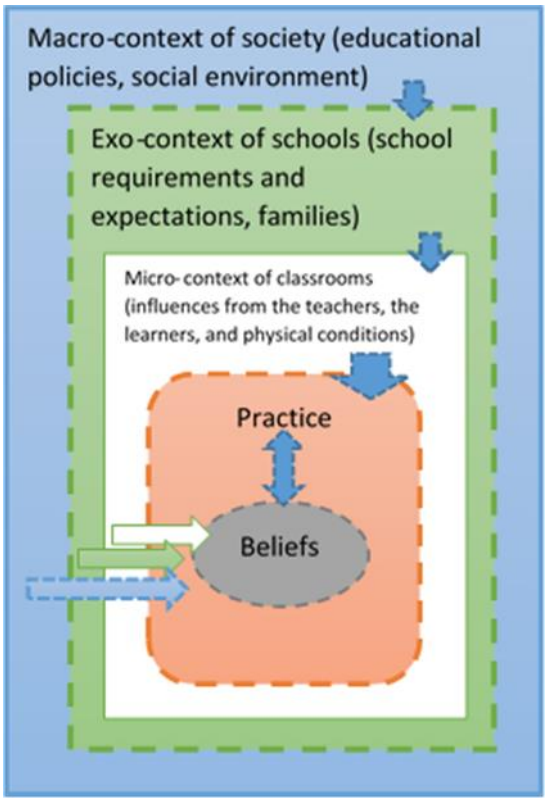

Figure 21. Interactions between Mrs. Nelly's beliefs, practice, and contextual factors

Mrs. Nelly wanted her students to seek information independently as she believed that this would make their learning more meaningful. However, the micro-context of classroom did not really support her in enacting this. She did not find her students enthusiastic, and she felt that they lacked motivation, and were lazy and shy. Some other constraints came from her negative perceptions about her own capability and practices. She was also pessimistic about the implementation of the new curriculum. Although the exo-context of the school required her to teach by following the curriculum, she also held the belief that teacher talk was important. She felt that it would not work to use the new

curriculum to inform her teaching. She believed that if students were expected to complete tasks independently, they would become lazy. She found the parents' attitude to be another challenge. The exo-context of the family did not support the practice of giving independent tasks to be completed at home. This revealed a tension in the macro-context between educational policies and the social environment. Mrs. Nelly felt that the school policies required teachers to both follow the curriculum and to prepare students for examinations, yet these conflicting requirements limited her from accessing the social environment such as the tourist sites which she believed could enhance students' English learning. This affected what Mrs. Nelly did in her classroom. She had been accustomed to take students to the temple and she used to encourage her students to seek opportunities for speaking practice but this was inhibited by the high cost of the entrance to the most popular tourist site and the rumour about tourists' negative reactions towards students. Her conflicting beliefs and the unsupportive contextual factors restricted her efforts to make her students more independent. This made her a moderate supporter of learner autonomy.

Mrs. Netty

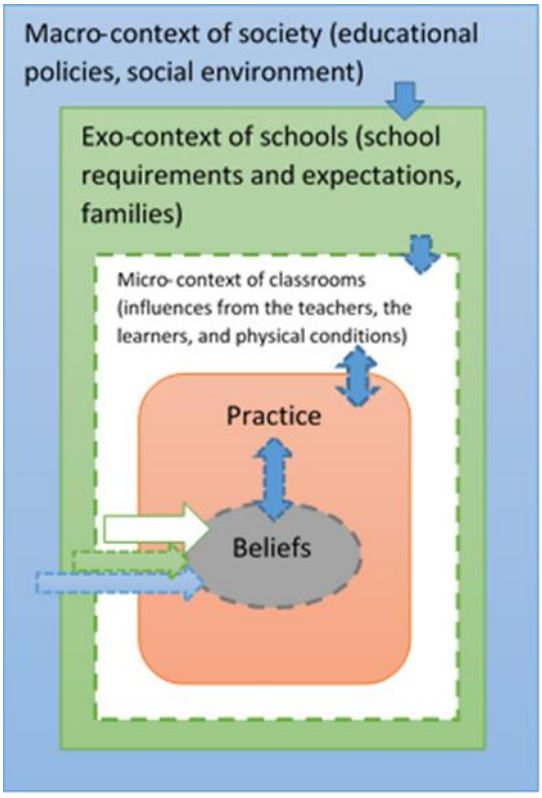

Figure 22. Interactions between Mrs. Netty's beliefs, practices and contextual factors

Mrs. Netty believed in developing learner autonomy and had an understanding of the new curriculum. She felt that when the new curriculum succeeded in making students more independent, she would only need to monitor and observe their learning as a learning facilitator. But at the same time she believed that treating students according to the new curriculum would not work in her context. These conflicting beliefs, together with perceived limitations in the micro-context of the classroom where students were afraid of speaking English, had limited vocabulary and had no access to a dictionary, affected her teaching practice. Although she followed the curriculum in general, she perceived that the syllabus did not always apply in the real context and thus her teaching practice deviated from the teaching documents. For her, group work meant that within a group each student would work individually. The exo-context of school required her to keep following the curriculum, but she felt that the facilities were lacking, making her school less than ideal for the new curriculum implementation. Even so, she used what was available, like textbooks and the school environment to support her teaching. She was aware of the support offered by the macro-context of society such as the accessibility of English speakers at tourist sites and she used these environmental resources in her classes. Her practice involved negotiating with students about the task and the time for task completion, and she promoted peer evaluation. These kinds of practice provided space for learner autonomy to develop. She also allowed some time for students to recite their class motto before the class began as she believed that this practice gave students motivation to learn English. In some ways, her practice supported autonomy development but her doubts about the application of the curriculum and her teaching style of maintaining control as the decision maker reduced her students' opportunities to become more autonomous. This made her seem like an ambivalent supporter of autonomy in practice.

Mr. Ali

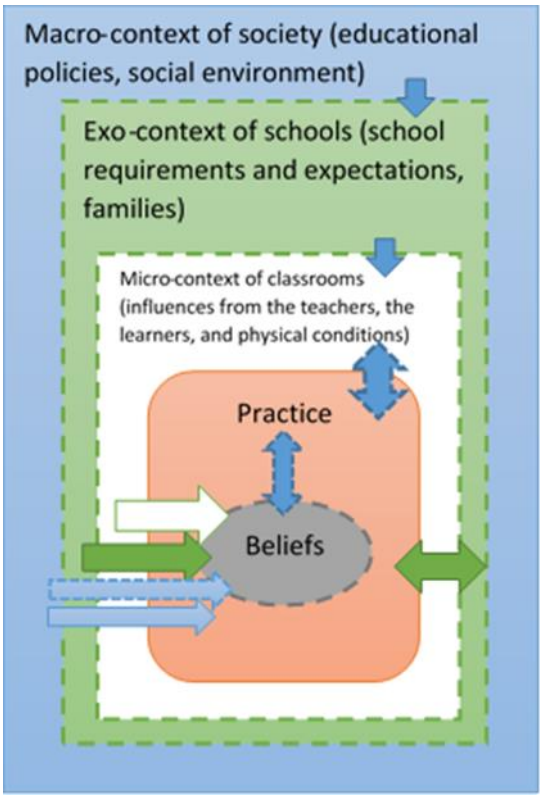

Figure 23. Interactions between Mr. Ali's beliefs, practice, and contextual factors

Mr. Ali was very positive about the new curriculum and developing learner autonomy. He expected students to search for information independently and he believed that he would have less work when students were more independent. As the teacher of autonomous students, he would be able to relax and observe them. He believed that English was a new and difficult subject for his students and the limited facilities available to his class affected his practices of developing learner autonomy. He believed that it was necessary for a teacher to dominate the lessons and he also believed that it was his job to motivate students before the lesson began. He shaped students' behaviour using fines. Moreover, the exo-context of schools, both the school and families, supported him in doing so. He felt that he had to follow the curriculum but he also believed in adapting it to the limitations of the local context. He was also aware that the macro-context of society had the potential to enhance students' English learning and he perceived that cutting the English for Tourism course was a blow for English teaching in Magelang Regency. Despite his dominance in the classroom, he valued his role as a facilitator and he believed students' learning would be deeper and more lasting when they themselves discovered new knowledge. He acknowledged that autonomy was a primary learning concept for students in his school but his pessimism about implementing this with his own students undermined

this practice. In this way, he was an ambivalent supporter of learner autonomy development in practice.

Mrs. Sinta

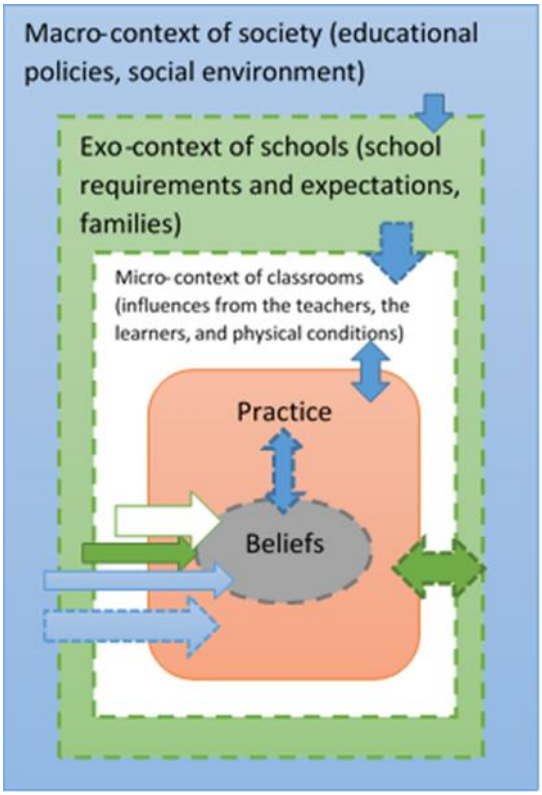

Figure 24. Interactions between Mrs. Sinta's beliefs, practice, and contextual factors

Mrs. Sinta perceived the new curriculum positively and supported the development of learner autonomy. She believed that her work would become easier if her students were more independent. She also thought that the new curriculum would generate much better student achievement. But in her context, she felt that the curriculum was not working. She found that her students had little passion for English, limited vocabulary and low independence and ability. The unavailability of textbooks, and resources like an LCD or a standard dictionary constrained her teaching practices. She perceived that her teaching would be more organized if she could use power points. Even so, she routinely asked her students to ask their friends before asking the teacher, and she always gave individual homework. These were examples of her efforts to develop students' autonomy. As the school and the educational policy required her to follow the curriculum, she tried to do so. She took advantage of the available resources like mobile phones, pictures, and even trees to support her teaching. She also tried to involve parents in monitoring students' learning but found that parents did not wish to be involved. The macro-context of the society was

a support for her especially the availability of tourist sites as she could discuss those sites in the classroom. She also took students to one of the sites, Elo River, where students could learn from nature. She thought there should be more emphasis on these sites in English teaching as tourism was a special characteristic of the regency. She was also willing to learn from other teachers from other schools in order to help her students master English and she had attended the workshop on new curriculum implementation. Overall, her practice showed that she tried to give opportunities for students to develop their autonomy but some contextual factors like her own doubts, the students' perceived characteristics, the limited facilities and the lack of parental support inhibited what she could do in the classroom to develop learner autonomy. In this respect, she was an ambivalent supporter of learner autonomy development in practice.

The descriptions of each teacher's interaction of beliefs, practice and contextual factors showed that these four teachers tried to foster learner autonomy as they believed in its benefits for either students or themselves. However, different contextual factors restricted their efforts to foster their students' autonomy. All teachers referred to challenges from the micro-context like students' apparent lack of ability and limited facilities. They perceived that their students were not ready to develop autonomy as they seemed to lack enthusiasm, motivation, independence, passion, and language proficiency. The unavailability of electronic resources and texts were perceived of as a problem. They tried to use group work and integrate authentic resources to resolve some of these issues. Even when they could handle some of classroom problems, two teachers still faced problems from the exo-context such as a perceived lack of parental support. All teachers were aware that the macro-context provided an opportunity for them to use authentic learning resources from the local environment. However, the use of authentic local resources was still limited as the curriculum did not explicitly suggest this and these teachers only followed what they perceived as explicit in the curriculum. In this case, the macro-context of education policy, including a focus on examinations, and the social environment seemed to contradict each other. Thus although teachers were very positive about developing learner autonomy in theory, their own pessimism and contextual factors limited their practice.

7.3 The Beliefs and Practices of the Teachers with Conflicted Approaches to Implementing Learner Autonomy Development

The last two teachers' support for learner autonomy was even more complex. Like the previous groups, the interaction of their beliefs, practices and contextual factors were different and sometimes conflicting.

Mrs. Diana

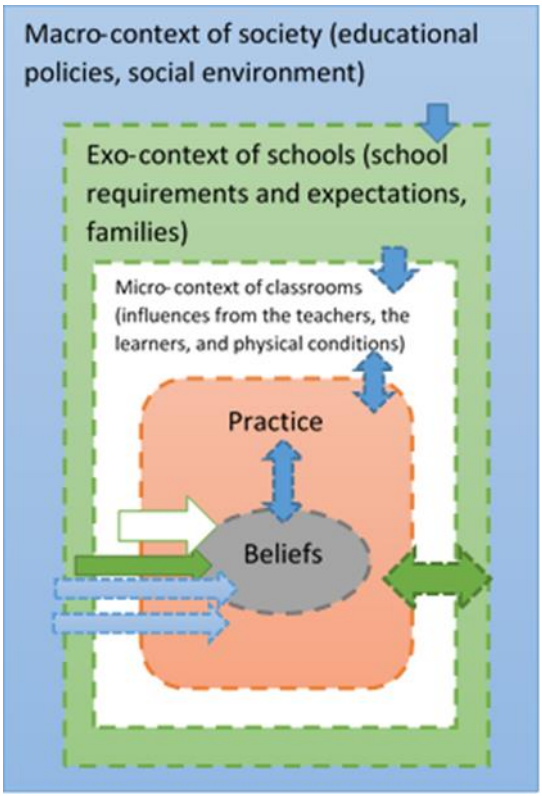

Figure 25. Interactions between Mrs. Diana's beliefs, practice, and contextual factors

Mrs. Diana was positive about the new 2013 curriculum and she tried to follow it. She also aspired to be a learning facilitator and she believed if students were encouraged to search for information independently, they would understand it more. However, she perceived that some students were lazy, dependent and noisy. She felt that group work was not helpful with low-ability students. She also had little chance to use electronic devices in her classroom as the school had a limited number of LCDs. She was also aware of the potential of the tourism sites to enhance students' English learning and she planned to take students for speaking practice there when support from school was available. She discussed texts about the tourist sites in her classroom. She also used English in school activities, such as for students' speeches, as she felt that English could be used to promote the school to the wider community. Although the educational policy required her to implement the curriculum, Mrs. Diana admitted that she was not ready to do this as the lack of facilities

really challenged her. Mrs. Diana tried to implement the curriculum as best as she could although sharing control with her students through group work ended up with her losing control over the classroom activities. Her lack of classroom management skills limited her efforts in developing learner autonomy and this undermined her ability to develop her learners' autonomy in practice.

Ms. Arina

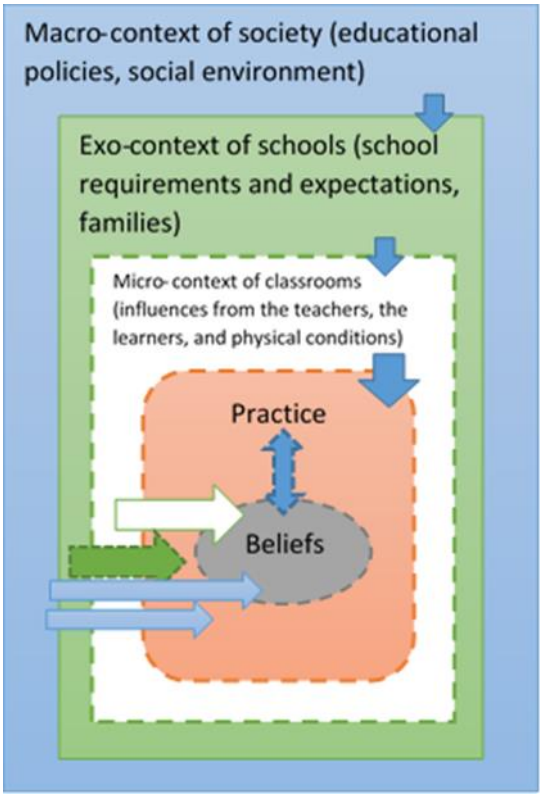

Figure 26. Interactions between Ms. Arina's beliefs, practices, and contextual factors

Ms. Arina perceived the new 2013 curriculum positively and she tried to follow it. She understood that the new curriculum encouraged students to be more active and less reliant on teachers as learning resources. She taught both grade VII and grade IX and she used both the new 2013 curriculum and the old curriculum. Even when she taught using the old curriculum, she regularly included class discussions. This suggested that she believed that the most important part of English learning was speaking English and exchanging ideas. She received support from social contexts in that the head of education board of Ma'arif took tourists who were visiting Borobudur Temple to the school and thus provided opportunities for students to practise communicating with English speakers. In addition, the self-defence institution which was close to the school was also visited by many foreigners and these foreigners sometimes visited the school too. There were many chances

to speak in English but sometimes the students were shy. She believed that students would benefit from gaining enough confidence to greet or ask questions in English. She also employed games, authentic examples and Facebook to support students' learning which she found quite effective. Many of her approaches were potentially optimal for supporting learner autonomy development. However, despite her effort to make students speak English in the classroom, her students did not use English much in practice. When students worked in pairs, this did not enhance their independence as they kept calling out and asking for her help and attention. In her case, even when the exo-context and macro-context were supportive for her, she struggled to manage the micro-context of classroom where she found her students to be shy, dependent, sleepy and unable to stay on task. She lost control when she gave her students collaborative work and this lack of classroom management limited her efforts to make students more independent. This challenged her support for learner autonomy.

The last two teachers were also positive about the new 2013 curriculum. Even so, they struggled to implement it in practice. These two teachers believed in group work or pair-work but were unable to manage collaborative tasks so they would contribute to learning. The micro-context of the classroom posed a particular challenge and these teachers lacked classroom management skills to handle such problems. Controlling the class became the biggest obstacle for these teachers. The students still relied on the teachers and the teachers always helped students when they were asked rather than developing the students' own resources to solve problems. The lack of textbooks and LCDs was another challenge. Despite the limited facilities at school they integrated local learning resources and authentic materials into their classroom teaching.

The portrayal of each case in this chapter suggests that the relationship between teachers' beliefs, practice and contextual factors was complex. These findings also reflect the nestedness of teachers' beliefs and practices within their contexts. For this reason, it is also helpful to consider each case as a system where all the parts are involved in a process of interacting and interconnecting. Further analysis of this process demands a theory which can explain the complex nature of each classroom system by taking into account influences across contextual levels. The next chapter will analyse the findings through the lens of complexity theory**.**

CHAPTER VIII
DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

This study focuses on teachers' perceptions and beliefs during the introduction of a new curriculum in Indonesia which required teachers to develop autonomy in their learners. Teacher belief is considered a complex phenomenon (Feryok, 2010; Zheng, 2013) as it cannot be accessed or observed directly (S. Borg, 2003; Pajares, 1992) yet it is also seen as the major determinant of teachers' actions or classroom practices (M. Borg, 2001; Borko & Putnam, 1996; Woods, 1996). Literature (Burns & Knox, 2011; De Bot et al., 2007) suggests that using simple 'cause-and-effect' or linear models is inadequate to explain the interactions between teacher beliefs and practices or to capture the complexity of classroom interactions.

Consistent with these concerns, Zheng (2015) also argues that previous studies which focused on investigating how teacher's beliefs and practices interacted were not successful in showing the complexity of teachers' beliefs. Therefore rather than using a static model, a different perspective was required to analyse the interaction between teacher's beliefs and practices. The findings from my study also defied explanation using more traditional and static models, so I adopted complexity theory which "break[s] with simple cause-and-effect models, linear predictability and a dissection approach to understanding phenomena" (Zheng, 2015, p. 28). The findings in my study did not fall into a neat and tidy pattern. Interacting elements affecting teachers' beliefs led to diverse patterns of teacher practices. The context of my study was also dynamic and unstable as the macro-context of the national education policy kept changing and this affected the micro-context of classroom where teachers were obliged to revise their practices. The interactions between teachers' beliefs, practices and contextual factors were also non-linear, dynamic, and unpredictable and nested in their contexts. Under these circumstances, I had to use a theory which could explain the intricate interplay of teachers' beliefs, practices and contexts, and complexity theory offered this potential. This chapter therefore discusses the findings of my study through the lens of complexity theory.

This chapter begins by restating the complex nature of this study, providing an overview of the findings, and justifying complexity theory as a theoretical framework for this study. The context of the study is then discussed through the perspective of complexity theory. Following this, research questions are addressed. This chapter concludes by

discussing some emerging tensions in the development of learner autonomy in Indonesian contexts which is followed by the limitation of this study.

8.1 The Complex Nature of the Study

There is little research which examines the time period where learner autonomy is in the process of being introduced. To the best of my knowledge this study is unique in researching the introduction of learner autonomy at junior high school level in a non-Western context.

The phenomenon investigated in the study, teacher beliefs about developing learner autonomy, is complex as beliefs exist cognitively and are not easy to access or assess directly. This study thus required the use of multiple instruments to reveal those beliefs and this led me to choose a sequential mixed methods design to reveal teachers' perceptions about learner autonomy and to investigate how teachers' perceptions were reflected in their teaching practices in their particular teaching contexts where English language was used in authentic ways in the local learning environment.

All the components contributing to learner autonomy can be seen as existing in a state of flux. Learner autonomy is itself a relatively new concept in language education and its implementation into curricula is even more recent. Definitions of learner autonomy are not yet fully resolved, and highlight different aspects of the concept. The purposes for developing learner autonomy are also contested. It is perhaps then not surprising to discover that teachers' perceptions of the nature and purposes of learner autonomy in a real-life context are also complex and unstable. As the teachers' differing contexts are added into this equation, the picture becomes even more complex. The following model represents the nested and evolving nature of this phenomenon.

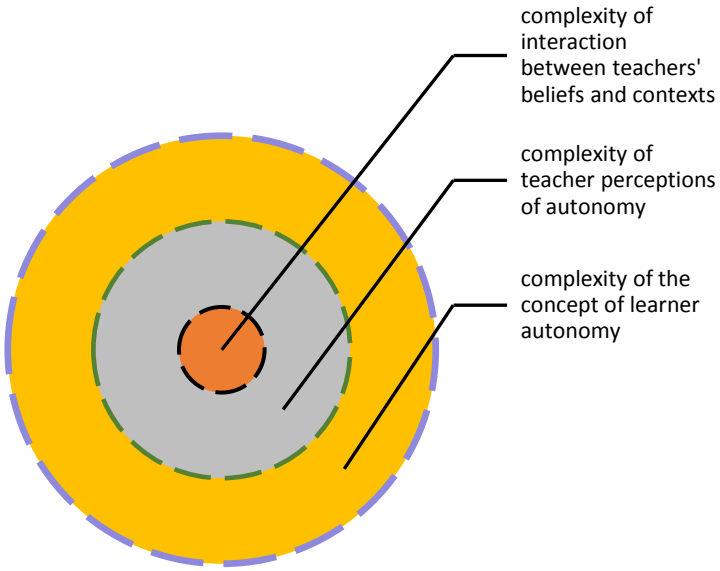

Figure 27. The complexities in the concept of learner autonomy, teacher beliefs and contexts

The following section further discusses the complexities represented in Figure 27.

Although educators appear to agree on the importance of developing learner autonomy, there has not been an equivalent consensus about the meaning of learner autonomy itself or its application within education (Benson & Voller, 1997). Any debate about the meaning of autonomy is often skipped in the rush to implementation. This argument resonates strongly with the findings of my study where few of the teachers had attended professional development to prepare them for curriculum changes, and some of the teachers were uncertain about how to encourage autonomy in their learners. The comments made by these teachers align to most of the beliefs about autonomy described by Benson and Voller (1997). In Benson and Voller's analysis, learner autonomy was seen: (1) as a situation where students learn without a teacher (in my study some teachers hoped that this would alleviate their workload), (2) as the use of learned skills for self-directed learning (in my study teachers felt that sourcing information would provide essential skills), (3) as an inborn capacity which is limited by educational institutions (in my study some thought that only bright students could achieve autonomy), (4) as the exercise of learners' responsibility over their learning (in my study, teachers believed that students would be able to complete homework and regulate their out of class learning), and (5) as the students' right to decide the learning direction (in my study, teachers agreed that autonomous students would select materials, group sizes and teaching activities). Most positively, teachers saw their role as creating a context in which students could exercise responsibility over their learning, and developing skills for self-directed learning. However, some saw

students learning without a teacher more negatively as an opportunity to reduce their work. What emerged was a lack of coherence among the teachers about the purpose for developing learner autonomy and so their expectations of students varied. The rush to implementation described by Benson and Voller may in fact have been playing out in the context of this study.

Many other studies have also demonstrated the gap between an ideal of learner autonomy and confusion about its implementation. Because teachers implementing learner autonomy into their teaching practice interpret this concept in a range of ways, there are inevitably diverse results. Previous studies (Akaranithi & Panlay, 2007; Feryok, 2013; Inozu, 2011; Lai, Yeung, et al., 2015; Lau, 2013; Nakata, 2011; Wichayathian & Reinders, 2015) have revealed a range of teachers' beliefs from those who were very positive and successful in promoting learner autonomy, to those who were lacking readiness, afraid of losing control, doubtful about the feasibility of supporting student autonomy and unsuccessful in developing their own learners' autonomy. Again this may not be surprising given the plethora of definitions of learner autonomy. The literature review considered a range of theoretical definitions of learner autonomy from such western scholars as Holec (1979), Benson (2011), Dam (2003), Dickinson (1995) and Little (1991), but could not identify definitions constructed by non-Western scholars. This raises the issue of whether the concept of autonomy fits within the educational culture and tradition of a non-Western country like Indonesia (Murase, 2011).

The importance of developing learner autonomy has been acknowledged in relation to both the promotion of life-long learning (Egel, 2009) and the effectiveness of language learning (Little, 2009b). The former is closely related to the demands of the changing world (Jarvis, 2007; Weinstein et al., 2011). The latter refers more to the idea that autonomous learners conduct learning which is more efficient and effective (Little, 2009b) as well as more meaningful and permanent (Crabbe, 1993). Learner autonomy is regarded by English teachers internationally as contributing to the success of English language learning (S. Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012a; Wichayathian & Reinders, 2015). The development of autonomy is also seen as an effective strategy for English teaching within under-resourced educational contexts (Fonseka, 2003; Kuchah & Smith, 2011). But the arguments for learner autonomy go beyond creating proficient English language learners, and these wider social and political purposes cannot be entirely overlooked. The development of autonomy also relates to the notion introduced by Crabbe (1993) that people have the right to learn what they choose to learn and, as society may not be able to satisfy everyone's needs, people can try

to fulfil their own needs. Technological advancement, in this case, also supports autonomous learning because people can learn what they want to learn at any time and place (Ueki & Takeuchi, 2013). But Benson (2009) argues that the concept of autonomy is not neutral in that it focuses on serving not only the learners' interests, but also the world economy, particularly when it is positioned in the context of globalisation.

In fact there is consonance between the goals of learner autonomy expressed through the new 2013 curriculum for Junior High Schools in Indonesia and a broader goal of the national educational system in Indonesia to produce independent citizens who also have the skills for long-life learning. It appears that when citizens have lifelong learning skills, that they are better equipped to participate in an increasingly global society (Jarvis, 2007; Weinstein et al., 2011). One key to promoting lifelong learning is learner autonomy (Egel, 2009). In this sense globalisation has become a reason for the introduction of learner autonomy through this new curriculum.

That there is such a range of understandings and interpretation of the concept of autonomy along with its implementation in various contexts suggests that there are complexities within this concept that should not be oversimplified. Investigating teachers' perceptions and observing their practice as they began the implementation of a new policy allowed for unique insights into the complexity of developing learner autonomy. It prompted me to find a theory which could help to explain such complexity and complexity theory offers this potential.

8.2 An Overview of the Findings

This study has revealed that Indonesian teachers were compliant in introducing the concept of autonomy as required by the new curriculum. This acceptance suggests that they did not perceive any cultural mismatch in the adoption of the Western concept of autonomy in Indonesia. Originally, autonomy was a goal for adult language learners in Western educational contexts but in Indonesia autonomy has been introduced at a lower level, Junior High School. Yet, despite potential problems in adapting this concept for younger, Asian students, this study suggests that Indonesia is one Asian country in which the introduction of autonomy in Junior High School has not been viewed as culturally problematic. This finding contradicts the notion that learner autonomy may only be suitable for adult learning. The concept of learner autonomy thus has expanded from its origin and it has gained acceptance at a lower educational level in this non-Western country.

As this concept was introduced by the educational authority, then teachers' acceptance of both the new curriculum and the concept of learner autonomy also reflected

their obedience toward the government. This obedience is the characteristic of Asian educational culture where teachers expect to be respectful toward authority and compliant with government policy (Hallinger, 2010). These teachers' compliance appeared to provide a fertile ground for the development of autonomy in Indonesia.

Teachers' obedience did not always translate into effective practices for developing autonomy. This study has portrayed multiple interacting factors affecting the practice of developing autonomy in different contexts. Teachers had not only a range of underlying beliefs about the importance of autonomy and interpretations of what it meant, but also different supports and constraints in their teaching contexts including diverse experience in managing classrooms which led to differing degrees of teaching effectiveness. Some tensions concerning assessment were identified including: the influence of high stakes national examinations, limited access to technology, a lack of textbooks, uncertainty about using authentic materials, and the role of group work. A complex picture of teachers' implementation practices clearly emerged in this study.

The survey instrument and analysis were adopted from S. Borg and Al-Busaidi's study, and my study showed some similar findings to theirs. However, my findings took the study in a more complex direction. S. Borg and Al-Busaidi did not conduct classroom observations but triangulating classroom observations along with survey and interviews in my study revealed complex interactions between teacher beliefs and practices. Therefore, as I elaborated in the beginning of this chapter, I had to use a more nuanced lens in interpreting the findings. I decided to use Complexity theory which Zheng had found illuminating to analyse her study of Chinese teacher beliefs and practices. Although this lens aligned my study closely to Zheng's study, hers did not include a quantitative phase and neither did she focus on learner autonomy.

8.3 The Use of Complexity Theory as a Framework

The reasons for adopting complexity theory in this study are presented early in this chapter and this section explains the use of complexity theory as a framework in this study further.

Cilliers (2002) argues that a simple theory cannot provide an adequate description of complex things. Using a cause and effect theory where the result can be easily predicted may over-simplify a phenomenon and risk the researcher overlooking the complex interaction and interconnection among the elements (Ahmadian & Tavakoli, 2011; De Bot et al., 2007). Applying a linear model to describe classroom interaction is also unlikely to

portray its complexity. Therefore it is necessary to apply a theory which recognises and accounts for classroom complexities (Burns & Knox, 2011).

There is a need for a more rigorous understanding of a teacher's belief system especially of the interaction of the elements in the belief system (S. Borg, 2006). However, few theories capture the multiple features comprising teachers' beliefs (Zheng, 2015) and a single theoretical framework is inadequate to explain them (Feryok, 2010). In the growing field of teacher cognition studies, any theory must be flexible enough to portray the complexities of the interplay between teachers' beliefs and practices. Complexity theory, as a new theory in applied linguistics, can offer a more nuanced understanding of teacher cognition.

In contrast to a reductionist approach, complexity theory offers "a more encompassing, balanced, yet detailed-oriented perspective" (Larsen-Freeman, 2007, p. 35). When applied to education, this theory recognizes that the system of education consists of multiple interacting elements (Radford, 2006). Complexity theory can identify the interaction across levels from individual minds to a wider socio-political context (Cameron & Larsen-Freeman, 2007). It brings into focus the interconnectedness among elements within a system (Zheng, 2013). (Zheng, 2013). In the study of teachers' beliefs and practices, the application of complexity theory also highlights how coadaptation takes place between teachers' beliefs and context (Zheng, 2015).

Using the perspective of a complex system also alters how elements at play in a classroom are interpreted as these phenomena may not be replicable. There are "no static independent and measurable 'things' to measure, test, evaluate, or codify, no limits to what might be relevant in understanding classroom activity and behaviour" (Cameron & Larsen-Freeman, 2007, p. 238). Taking this perspective may help to aid understanding of problems within classrooms and offer solutions.

If the findings of this study are approached through the lens of complexity theory, then each case presented in the previous chapter can be viewed as a complex system. In each system there are ongoing interactions between and among the system elements. As highlighted in the literature review, complexity theory is designed to explain phenomena which coexist within a complex system where the results of interactions within the system's elements are unpredictable. Some of the features of complex systems are that: they are sensitive to initial conditions; they have many elements; they are dynamic and non-linear; they are open; they are self-organizing; and they are nested (Cilliers, 2002; Larsen-Freeman, 1997).

When seen as complex systems, the presence of non-linearity, dynamics, unpredictability, openness, self-organizing acts, and nestedness are evident in my study and I explain these characteristics further in the following sections. The use of complexity theory was appropriate in this study as the context of my study, curriculum change, was dynamic and unstable. Within the highly unpredictable situation of the implementation of another new national curriculum, a static model was inappropriate to describe phenomena that were not static themselves. Complexity theory helped me to understand how the complex belief systems of English teachers in Indonesia interacted with their practices both in the diverse micro-contexts of local classrooms and in the larger dynamic and fluid macro-context of the Indonesian national education policy.

In other words the context could be considered as a system in itself. Teachers' beliefs and practices operated within this complex system of national education. Referring back to this context not only provides some clues on why tensions emerged in the implementation of the national curriculum, but also helps provide a description of the nestedness of teachers' beliefs and practices at different contextual levels. The following section revisits the context of the study within which teachers' beliefs and practices evolved.

8.4 An Overview of the Context of the Study from the Lens of Complexity Theory

This study was conducted during the implementation of the new 2013 curriculum in Junior High Schools (JHS) in Indonesia. The new curriculum had been implemented in grade VII and VIII in Indonesian JHS at the time this study was conducted and the old (2006) curriculum was still being used by teachers of grade IX. This new curriculum no longer required English to be introduced from Elementary School level. This meant that at the time of the study, JHS students in the participants' classes were encountering English as a compulsory subject for the first time. The new curriculum required teachers to develop learner autonomy and to reduce their dominance in the classroom. The concept of autonomy was quite new in Indonesia as traditionally teachers were expected to maintain control as figures of authority in the classroom.

This introduction of the new curriculum can be regarded as an *initial condition* affecting teacher beliefs and practices. In terms of complexity theory, this study took place in an *open system* of national education in which the Indonesian government and educational stakeholders designed the curriculum to address external influences such as globalisation, technology advancement, and the rapid changes in society. This curriculum had initially been implemented in 2013 and then ceased use in the second semester of the

2014/2015 academic year, and then was re-implemented in 2016. This new curriculum replaced the 2006 school curriculum (*KTSP*). The 2006 curriculum gave schools autonomy to develop their own syllabi to adapt the curriculum to local needs. In contrast, the 2013 curriculum was designed to specify and standardise the syllabi to reduce teachers' workloads. Over the years, the national curriculum in Indonesia has given space for schools to adapt the curriculum to take into account the local context. The 2006 national curriculum allowed schools to teach local content that reflected the uniqueness of each region in Indonesia. Magelang, which was well-known as a tourist centre, used to include English for tourism (EFT) in the curriculum, but this was dropped to enable teachers to focus on English. The time allocated for EFT was added to English since English was examined in National Examination and considered as more important than EFT. Some local content was still taught in Magelang Regency during the implementation of the 2013 curriculum, but EFT did not retain its place in the curriculum. Instead, other local content such as sewing, dancing, making Batik, and developing correspondence skills have been included. A few days before my thesis submission (November 25, 2016), the new Minister of Education has proposed that the national examination should be dropped from 2017. If this proposal is approved, then it may reduce the examination-focus reported by teachers. If English is no longer examined at JHS level, then EFT may also re-gain its place as a local content subject within the curriculum in Magelang Regency. These rapid changes in the policy reflect the system characteristic of being *dynamic*. This curriculum was designed to provide all syllabi for teachers from national level so that teachers did not need to focus on preparing lessons. However, not all schools received the textbooks and not all teachers received training on how to implement this new curriculum. Thus, as illustrated in chapter seven, there was a gap between the macro-context of national policy and the exo-context of school which was also likely to affect what happened in the micro-context of classrooms. As the new curriculum maintained the system of national examinations, the development of autonomy in Indonesian context was constrained right from the beginning. Teachers were required to maintain the double foci of developing English proficiency so that students could pass national examinations, while also developing learner autonomy as suggested by the new curriculum. As the government also prescribed the textbooks, the development of autonomy was also constrained by the expectation that students should learn what was prescribed in the textbooks. This inhibited the freedom of teachers to include teaching materials outside the textbook. These competing expectations suggest that the national

education policy was *not linear* in itself as conflicting policies presented tensions for teachers in implementing another new curriculum.

Overall, the context of this study can be seen as complex in itself as it was influenced by external elements coming from the wider system of global society which may in the future demand another curriculum change to cope with the demands of the changing world. Thus the policy itself is in the state of flux where *many influential elements*, both internal and external, remain in ongoing interactions. It is hard to predict whether this curriculum will be successfully implemented at classroom level and it is not easy either to predict how long teachers, schools, and government will persevere with this new curriculum.

This context of study extends to the wider system within which the system of beliefs operated or became a subsystem. In the next section, the research questions are answered and the characteristics of complexity theory will be used to evaluate issues facing the implementation of a curriculum that mandated the development of learner autonomy.

8.5 Answering Research Questions

This research presented four sub-questions to answer the main research question. The first two questions are:

a. *What are teachers' perceptions of developing learner autonomy in English learning?*
b. *How do teachers' perceptions affect their teaching practices in developing students' language skills?*

Teachers' perceptions of the concept of learner autonomy in the Indonesian context

This section will compare and contrast the quantitative findings with those from other research before examining the complexity of the case studies in more detail.

As we have seen, this study in the Magelang Regency largely supports Benson and Voller's (1997) argument that there is teacher support for learner autonomy. Even so, there are variations in these teachers' beliefs in comparison with those reported in other surveys using the same or similar instruments. My study of 145 participants revealed similar findings to the original study by S. Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012a) of 61 participants and those from another study done by Wicayathiyan and Reinders (2015) of 47 participants in which teachers agreed that learner autonomy is important for learners' success in English learning. What might be surprising is that Indonesian teachers, who could be categorized as Asian teachers, perceived learner autonomy, which can be considered as a western concept, in such a positive way. Asian educational traditions are often perceived as placing

a higher value on a teacher-centred approach (Ellis, 1996). The finding that these Indonesian Junior High School teachers perceived learner autonomy positively is useful as the previous studies looked at tertiary students but my respondents were teaching younger students. However some caution may be required around this finding as, since learner autonomy was mandated by the curriculum, the Indonesian teachers' acceptance of the concept of learner autonomy may also have resulted from their passive adherence to the government policy.

Perhaps because it was conducted with teachers of tertiary level students who according to Felder and Brent (1996) and M. Phipps et al. (2001) lacked interest in group work, participants in the original study conducted by S. Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012a) did not favour collaboration and interaction to promote autonomy. In contrast, the Indonesian teachers viewed cooperation and collaboration through group work as more important than completing individual tasks for developing learner autonomy, and this is again a significant finding of the quantitative part of the study. These findings align with arguments in the wider literature that the development of learner autonomy requires teachers to engage their learners in social interactions (Kohonen, 1992; Little, 1991, 2009a). Benson and Cooker (2013) also describe learner autonomy as a 'social capacity' which develops through 'interdependence' rather than 'independence' (p. 8). Yet it is interesting to find that group work meant different things to different teachers in this study. Some examples of teachers' understanding and objectives for using group work ranged from enabling students to learn from their peers, dividing students' tasks so that they can be completed faster, and allowing students to collaborate with their friends, to encouraging individuals to work independently sitting together with friends. This reflects different interpretations and understandings of the purposes of group work.

The survey also revealed some variations in teachers' perceptions based on gender, age, experiences, schools, and distance from the tourist site. Indonesian female teachers were more positive about providing students chances to learn from their classmates compared to male teachers of English. A recent study conducted by Nasri et al. (2015) also showed that female teachers outperformed male teachers in using specific strategies designed to develop learner autonomy in Iranian high schools. Similarly, Meece (1987) discovered that male teachers' teaching styles tended to be more authoritative and instrumental while female teachers' styles were more supportive and expressive. Because there was only one male teacher in the multi-case phase of the study, it is difficult to make further interpretations about the influence of gender from the qualitative data of this study.

The older teachers in this survey were more positive than the younger teachers about the promotion of learner autonomy. This finding does not correspond with Borko and Putnam's (1996) analysis that it is hard for older teachers who have spent many years in classrooms to change their beliefs and practices. This finding (supported in the multiple case study which is summarised below) also contradicts the findings of the study conducted by Kissau, Algozzine and Yon (2012) which argued that experienced teachers took a more traditional approach in their teaching.

Age and experience can mostly be equated in this study. Younger and novice teachers were less positive towards the concept and the development of autonomy according to the survey data. Previous studies have also shown that novice teachers had different teaching foci from those of more experienced colleagues. The common finding that novice teachers were preoccupied with acquiring classroom management skills (Borko & Putnam, 1996) is consistent with the findings from my study.

Teacher initiation tends to pose common problems as the focus of novice teachers tends to be on achieving a flow in classroom activities (Akyel, 1997). Novice teachers may be more concerned about students' reactions and behaviours than about procedures in teaching (Gatbonton, 2008). Having control of the classroom was seen as desirable by novice teachers including those in my study (Li & Walsh, 2011). Loss of control has also been found to make teachers worried about the implementation of learner autonomy (Akaranithi & Panlay, 2007; Trebbi, 2008). In the multi-case study the younger teachers expressed positive views about learner autonomy but were challenged when it came to putting it into practice which will be discussed below.

Those with the least teaching experience may have been doubtful that learner autonomy was appropriate for learners of all ages. This finding may have some resonance with Gjorven's (1999) finding that Norwegian teachers who were asked to introduce the concept of learner autonomy in secondary schools were sceptical because they felt that some students were too immature and therefore unable to conduct effective learning on their own. Teachers who had concerns about students' age appeared to expect some maturity from the learners as a prerequisite for being given learning responsibility (Little, 1991). There was no direct discussion of this point in the qualitative data.

The teachers with the least experience, however, were very positive about the role of group work in fostering autonomy. However, this finding contradicts the study by Gatbonton (2008) who found that novice teachers had concerns about students' willingness to engage in group work with their peers. Collaborative work emerges as an important

theme in the qualitative data but its management in practice was sometimes problematic for those with the least experience.

The survey revealed that between the least and most experienced teachers in the study, those having 5-10 years of experience reported the least positive perceptions about learner autonomy development promoting learning, the effectiveness of group work, the use of a learner-centred approach, and the influence of students' motivation. A possible explanation for this is provided by Borko and Putnam (1996) who found that teachers with this level of experience had already gained pedagogical knowledge and their efforts to acquire new ways of teaching were affected by what they knew and believed about teaching and learning, as well as their perceptions of their students. Moreover, their thinking had become more stable and their foci were mostly on ensuring that the learning really occurred (Gatbonton, 2008). Because there were four variables involved, this finding could not be confirmed by the multi-case study.

A strong finding was that teachers with the most experience (15-20 years) in this study were most positive about developing learner-centred classes and giving students freedom to select materials to assist in the development of their autonomy, signalling an understanding about the pedagogical purposes of these two practices. As mentioned earlier, this finding is significant as it appears to contradict Pinter's (2007) argument that it is not easy for experienced teachers to change their belief systems and well-established practices. The case study strongly supported this survey finding.

It is also interesting that qualifications and grade level taught did not contribute to the differences of perceptions about learner autonomy in the survey. This is consistent with Nasri et al.'s (2015) study. Nasri et al. found that there was no significant difference in teachers' beliefs based on their academic qualifications. More specifically Nasri et al. found that having a master's degree did not affect teachers' beliefs and teaching practices in promoting learner autonomy in high school contexts as teachers reported that their master's degree had no specific focus on learner autonomy. In my study, only 12 participants recorded master's level qualifications, and in the qualitative data only one participant had a master's level qualification so it is hard to make a more specific comparison with Nasri et al.'s study.

Perhaps less significantly, the students' grade level did not appear to be a contributor to teachers' perceptions. Scott, Furnell, Murphy and Goulder (2015) found that the length of time students had spent at university rather than their students' level of study

was a more important indicator of support for learner autonomy. This finding may warrant further investigation at the junior high school level.

A comparison of schools represented in the survey also yielded some interesting findings. State school teachers had the most agreement that students needed to complete tasks on their own in order to develop their autonomy. This finding received some support in the observation data of the three case study participants in state schools. These teachers trusted their students' capability to perform an independent task. The teachers accounted for this by explaining that saying that their students were "smart". Students entering state schools were selected according to their grade in the elementary school examination and these schools tended to select only those students who had achieved high grades in the entry tests. In other words, students entering state schools were likely to be of a high academic standard already. The teachers appeared to begin with the assumption that these students were able to manage independent tasks.

In the survey data, English teachers at Christian schools showed the least agreement with the idea of giving regular opportunities for students to complete tasks alone, but they had the most agreement with involving the learners in decisions about what to learn. In the one Christian school where observation data were collected, the teaching materials had been developed from newspapers and magazines, and there was at least one example of students sharing authentic materials brought from home. There was a strong emphasis on collaborative work. In contrast, teachers at Islamic schools showed the least agreement with the idea of involving learners in deciding learning materials. Observation at the four Islamic schools in the study suggested a pattern of the teachers selecting the materials to be used, a dependence on government books, and little inclusion of any additional materials. There was no observed or reported example of students selecting materials. As no previous studies have discussed teachers' perceptions of learner autonomy based on the types of schools, comparisons with previous research findings cannot be made.

With regards to the distance to the tourist site, those teaching at the schools located 5-10 kilometres from the temple indicated more agreement in the survey that students' confidence and ability to monitor their learning were two crucial factors for developing autonomy. In the case study, teachers were aware that their schools were not that far from the tourist site but were concerned that their students would need confidence to use the site for learning or speaking practice outside the classrooms. These teachers seemed to think that only when students had the ability to monitor their learning and develop their confidence would they have the drive to learn independently. Only then would they be able

to increase their English mastery by using local authentic resources like the tourist site. This finding suggests that Indonesian teachers regarded students' confidence as important for autonomy development. This finding is in agreement with Scott et al.'s (2015) finding that confidence was perceived by teachers as contributing to students' autonomy development in more mature students.

Along with confidence, motivation was also regarded as a prerequisite for students' autonomy development according to both the survey and interview data. This suggests that English teachers participating in this Indonesian study shared the same two beliefs suggested by Littlewood (1996). Littlewood argues that confidence and motivation should be present together with students' ability and skills in order for students to become autonomous.

When a comparison was made between confidence and motivation, it was confidence which was regarded as a prerequisite for autonomy development by most teachers. This is interesting as in previous studies teachers expressed concerns about their students' motivation without mentioning the contribution of confidence (Hilden & Pressley, 2007; Lau, 2013). The need for motivation for developing learner autonomy has been signalled by Paiva (2011) but even Paiva's study did not reveal the need for teachers to develop their students' level of confidence. My study then contributes to the literature on the elements perceived by teachers to be important for the development of autonomy.

The survey results provide a general overview of teachers' perceptions about learner autonomy in this Indonesian regency. Revealing diverse perceptions about learner autonomy across differences of gender, age, teaching experience, school types and distance from the tourist sites, the findings suggest **the complexity of teacher's belief system**. Teachers hold many different beliefs about learner autonomy and its development, showing the presence of ***many elements*** in the system. The beliefs were also ***nested*** within the teaching contexts as school types affected how teachers perceived learner autonomy. The findings also suggest that teachers' beliefs were likely to be ***dynamic*** in that that younger and older teachers had different levels of agreement about developing autonomy. The younger teachers were less positive about developing autonomy while the older teachers were more positive about it. Thus the findings showed that with age and experience teachers gained more positive perceptions about learner autonomy. In addition, as teaching experience and access to tourist sites affected teachers' perceptions about learner autonomy, the system was ***open*** to the influence of external factors. Teachers also expressed acceptance of the new curriculum and its requirement to develop autonomy and

this is a sign that the belief system is both ***nested*** within the wider system of national education and ***open*** to the influence of this wider system. However, as teachers' qualifications were not found to influence teachers' perceptions about learner autonomy, there was a ***non-linearity*** between teachers' educational levels and how teachers thought.

Despite holding different perceptions of learner autonomy and its development, it is worth remembering that almost all teachers agreed that learner autonomy was needed for successful language learning. However, these perceptions were not necessarily translated into practice, and this once more time showed their ***non-linearity***. This can be seen in the following section which answers the second research question.

The interactions between teachers' beliefs and practices in developing learner autonomy

The analysis of the nine cases presented in the previous chapter offers further answers to the second question:

1. Those having strong beliefs were able to implement learner autonomy despite any challenges presented by their teaching contexts. This resulted in consistency between their beliefs and practices. However, their positive perceptions were underpinned by a range of beliefs as teachers had different views about what autonomy was.
2. Teachers' positive perceptions about learner autonomy were not enough to sustain the implementation of learner autonomy in practice when they had doubts about its feasibility. This resulted in a lack of consistency between their beliefs and practices. Teachers held conflicting beliefs about whether to follow all of the curriculum or not. The way they understood autonomy reflected a misconception that learner autonomy would lead to a reduction in their work.
3. Limited classroom management skills prevented some teachers from effectively implementing learner autonomy. This was most evident with the new teachers. Their attempts to implement autonomy through group work and discussion resulted in off-task student behaviour and teachers' losing control over classroom activities.

These findings suggest that the implementation of learner autonomy is likely to be effective when teachers hold strong beliefs about the benefits of autonomy, have experience in managing classrooms and feel supported in their teaching context. This can further be represented by the following diagram:

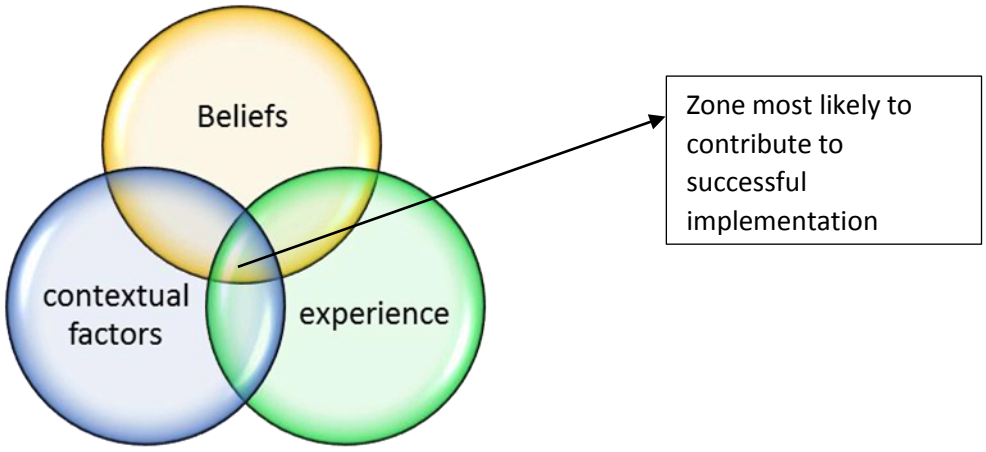

Figure 28. The interactions of teachers' beliefs, contextual factors and experiences

Reducing the study to such a simple diagram however does not capture the complexity of each element in each case study and how they interact with each other in different ways. To discuss this in greater depth, further findings are analysed through the use of characteristics of a complex system.

T. F. Green argued (1971) that the beliefs of language teachers are part of a belief system and no one belief is independent of a range of other beliefs. Beliefs about learner autonomy are no exception and thus they interact with other beliefs existing in the same system. These beliefs cover those about learners and learning, teaching, subject, learning to teach and self, as well as the teaching role (Calderhead, 1996), and S. Borg (2003) adds that these teachers' beliefs may compete with each other. The interactions between these beliefs were evident in this study as some teachers valued learner autonomy but they also believed that different practices such as teacher talk were more effective in their unique classroom context. They also believed that without having good facilities or students with high academic ability, it was hard to develop learner autonomy. Having these divergent beliefs inhibited teachers' practices in implementing learner autonomy.

In addition to holding contrasting beliefs, some English teachers in my study lacked procedural knowledge of managing a classroom which resulted in ineffective practices. This finding is similar to Orafi and Borg's (2009) finding that the curriculum implementation in Turkey was inhibited by both conflicting beliefs and lack of procedural knowledge. Yet, some teachers, who were older and more experienced, were able to maintain their beliefs about the importance of autonomy despite the constraints they encountered in developing autonomy. This persistence reflects core belief or beliefs that were hard to shake (T. F. Green, 1971). This resulted in the congruence between what these

teachers said (espoused beliefs) and what they actually did in the classrooms (beliefs-in-action) (M. Borg, 2001).

From the analysis above, Indonesian teachers displayed multiple beliefs existing concurrently in their belief systems, where the interactions between and among beliefs resulted in both congruence and dissonance with their practices. From the perspective of complexity theory, the teachers' beliefs show the typical characteristic of complex systems of having many ***elements*.**

Teaching deals with belief modification and formation (Woods, 1996). Some of the teachers in my study reported in their interviews that their beliefs became more positive when they could see that the practices they enacted were effective. Teachers learned through practice and as the time passed they understood more about the new curriculum and thus could implement it better and developed more enthusiasm to continue with the implementation. Some failures in the classroom, in contrast, made them hesitant to continue applying the new principles. These findings were also similar to other findings that teachers' beliefs could change (Borko & Putnam, 1996) in response to the dynamic nature of individual and community practice and beliefs (Crabbe, 2003).This finding shows that the teachers' beliefs were ***dynamic*** (S. Borg, 2006), another characteristic of a complex system, as they underwent changes over time (Feryok, 2010).

In my study, strong beliefs about learner autonomy did not always result in good practice. Conversely, lack of facilities did not always undermine the practice of developing learner autonomy when teacher belief in autonomy was strong. This reflects S. Borg's (2006) argument that there is an inconsistency between teachers' beliefs and their teaching practices, suggesting their non-linearity. Systems in complexity theory also interact in ***non-linear*** ways and this feature of a complex system emerged in the study.

Particular patterns emerged from the teachers' approaches to developing learner autonomy in students:

a. In some cases teachers' beliefs were the strongest influence on teaching practice
b. In some cases contextual factors were the strongest influence on teaching practice.
c. In some cases classroom management was the strongest influence on teaching practice.

These patterns can each be further refined and the way the nine case studies are clustered in the previous chapter reflects this organisation:

1) **Teachers' beliefs are the strongest influence on teaching practice**

Strong beliefs+ optimum context+ experience = optimum practice

Strong beliefs+ less optimum context + experience = good practice

It has been widely acknowledged that teachers' beliefs inform their teaching practices (Pajares, 1992). In line with the literature, this study reveals that teachers' strong beliefs, although operating differently in different contexts where different constraints existed, led to the enactment of learner autonomy development and thus there was a degree of consistency between what teachers said and what they did in their classroom. The findings of this study are in line with the ideas and findings suggested by M. Borg (2001), Woods (1996), and Borko and Putnam (1996) that beliefs lead teachers' actions. Teachers seemed to strongly believe in the importance of learner autonomy for students' learning and their future lives, suggesting that when teachers' ideologies are in line with a proposed change in the curriculum then they are likely to support the change and emote positively towards the change (Schmidt & Datnow, 2005).

2) **Contextual factors as the strongest influence on teaching practices**

Ambivalent beliefs+ less optimum context + experience = less optimum practice

Ambivalent beliefs + less optimum context+ less experience = less optimum practice

Teachers' doubts about the implementation of practices for fostering autonomy can prove a major challenge to developing learner autonomy (Little, 2009a) but in the patterns above, contextual constraints were cited as the main barrier that prevented teachers from fostering their learners' autonomy. This finding is in line with Nakata's (2011) finding that contextual factors impinged upon teachers' actions in promoting students' autonomy. These emerging patterns also strengthen the claims made by Hu (2003), S. Borg (2003) and S. Phipps and Borg (2009) that contextual factors play a significant role in influencing how teachers' reflect their beliefs in classroom practices.

The complexity of the relationship emerged as individual teachers cited different contextual constraints in their schools. Some teachers perceived the problems came from their students' limited proficiency. These teachers' concerns about students' ability support the findings of studies conducted by Akaranithi and Panlay (2007) and Orafi and Borg (2009) in which teachers showed their concerns about students' lack of ability to conduct self-directed learning. Furthermore, by

signalling that students' limited motivation was a barrier to developing learner autonomy, teachers in my study seemed to support Reinders' (2010) proposition that motivation is a prerequisite for learners to take control in their learning. Hilden and Pressley (2007) and Lau (2013) also found that teachers doubted the feasibility of adopting self-regulated learning instruction when they thought that their students lacked the ability and motivation to learn independently. Some Indonesian JHS teachers in my study also perceived students as being dependent and lacking autonomy which is consistent with the perceptions of teachers in other studies (Murase, 2011; Reinders & Lazaro, 2011).

Moreover, most teachers in this study seemed to expect that implementing the new curriculum was contingent upon teaching a class with academic or English ability. English was a new subject for most JHS students unless their parents had paid to send them to an English course, or had come from elementary schools that had chosen to keep teaching English. My study found that parental support was lacking in some schools, so teachers could not be sure of teaching students with any English proficiency since parents may not have enrolled their children in private English classes prior to JHS.

Other teachers blamed limited facilities and their own professional shortcoming for limiting their teaching practices. These teachers' concern about limited facilities was also echoed in studies conducted by S. Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012a), Kissau et al. (2012) and Kirgoz (2008). Teachers' doubts about their own competence and knowledge emerged in the initial stage of promoting independent learning in other studies as well (Lai, Yeung, et al., 2015; Young et al., 2007).

Teachers' ambivalent beliefs about promoting autonomy appeared to be tipped by their perceptions of inhibiting contextual factors such as students' lack of motivation, their own lack of self-efficacy, and their school's lack of facilities which further resulted in inconsistent practices for developing learner autonomy. As teachers often cited ***multiple elements*** affecting their teaching practices, this finding aligns with the idea raised by Benson (2000) that many factors limit teachers' efforts to give more freedom to learners. In addition, time constraints were cited as a particular problem just as it was in research conducted by Burkert (2011), Dam and Legenhausen (2011), Lau (2013), S. Phipps and Borg (2009) and Wichayathian and Reinders (2015).

3) **Classroom management as the strongest influence on teaching practice**

Strong belief + less optimum context + lack of classroom management = limited practice

Ambivalent belief + good context + lack of classroom management = limited practice

The patterns above suggest that success in developing learner autonomy was dependent on teachers' skills in managing the classroom. Without such skills, the teachers who were new and lacked experience lost control over classroom activities and the goal to make students more independent became much harder to achieve. It is also important to note that teachers' beliefs in this case had little influence on classroom practices and thus regardless of the strength of their beliefs and the availability of the facilities, the practice of developing learner autonomy needed to be accompanied by the expertise to manage the classroom.

It is likely that teachers' limited classroom management skills reflected these beginning teachers' limited experience (Borko & Putnam, 1996). It was also not easy for teachers to keep multiple groups on task (Hilden & Pressley, 2007). These Indonesian teachers, like beginning teachers in other studies held strong concerns about their own survival in the classroom (Tsui, 2003) and had less experience in anticipating problems (Tsui, 2003). Classroom management had a powerful influence on teachers' practices (S. Borg, 1998).

These patterns emerged in the teachers' practices of fostering learner autonomy and demonstrate that the system was ***self-organised***. As a complex system, teachers' cognition is self-organizing (De Bot, 2008) and the organization results from the interactions among its elements (Larsen-Freeman, 2007): various beliefs and practices. Through this process, the orders or patterns within the system emerge and this emergence of orders or patterns is one of the most significant contributions from the application of complexity theory to language teaching (Burnes, 2005).

Although teachers' practices above varied in effectiveness, English teachers in Magelang Regency made an effort to fulfil their professional responsibility for developing learner autonomy. In situations where teachers were obliged to adhere to school policies, they followed what was mandated by the school as a system. These teachers acknowledged that they were answerable to the Ministry of Education and that they felt obliged to comply with the curriculum which suggested that their schools actually followed what was mandated by the higher educational system. The school systems in this study also varied as the school types differed. So even though the schools were operating under one national

policy, there were differences in school practices. Teachers' beliefs about the high-ability academic backgrounds of their students in highly-regarded state schools led to a certain confidence that students were able to conduct autonomous learning. This was both evident in the survey and case study finding where teachers were very positive and confident about giving students independent tasks. Christian school teachers were more positive about sharing responsibility with students in deciding what to learn but these teachers did not favour the use of regular individual tasks. Students in the Christian school learnt through collaboration. Islamic school teachers were quite strict as they did not favour students' involvement in deciding what to learn, and the observations confirmed this. In this regard, the findings from quantitative phase were consistent with the qualitative findings.

This illustrates how teachers' micro-perspective of their "inner world" as well as their practices are embedded in the "larger ecologies of workplaces, educational systems, national language policies, and global issues" (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015, p. 445). This notion is evident in the Indonesian context as concerns about globalisation informed the introduction of the new curriculum. In this way, the subsystem of teachers' perceptions about learner autonomy were interrelated with and **nested** within the larger systems.

Figure 29 shows the nested relationships

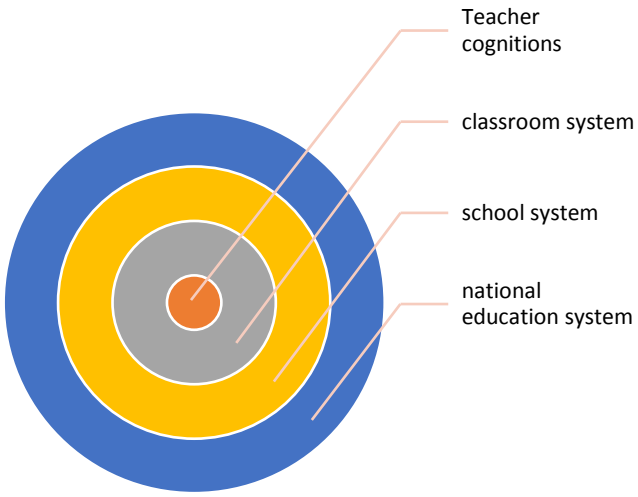

Figure 29. The nestedness of teacher's cognition system

This finding reflects that as a complex system, teacher cognitions are part of other systems (Günther & Folke, 1993). It is useful at this point to see the differing emerging patterns (above) in terms of the wider systems, described in the diagrams of the individual case studies as the macro-system, the exo-system and the micro-system in the previous

chapter. The classroom where a teacher enacts their teaching practices is also a system in which the teacher and their cognitions becomes the subsystem (Ahmadian & Tavakoli, 2011; Burns & Knox, 2011). Teachers' beliefs, classroom practices and contexts are interacting and all of them are complex systems themselves (Zheng, 2013). In addition, the environment where those systems function is also part of another complex system (Larsen-Freeman, 2012). Therefore, as a classroom operates within a school, the school is a bigger system and part of another system like society and the national educational system in the country. All of these contexts are interrelated (Cameron & Larsen-Freeman, 2007; Günther & Folke, 1993).

The discussion so far has shown that my study shared similarities with Zheng's (2015) in that the findings showed complex interactions among teacher beliefs, practices and contexts. This is perhaps not surprising as my study, like Zheng's, examines a process of curriculum change. During a period of change, beliefs and practices are inevitably in a dynamic process of adaptation with effects that are likely to be non-linear because the change occurs within complex nested and open systems. As teachers attempt to adapt their beliefs and practices, the self-organising principles of the complex system also emerge. The dimensions of the complex system in my study are illustrated in the diagram below:

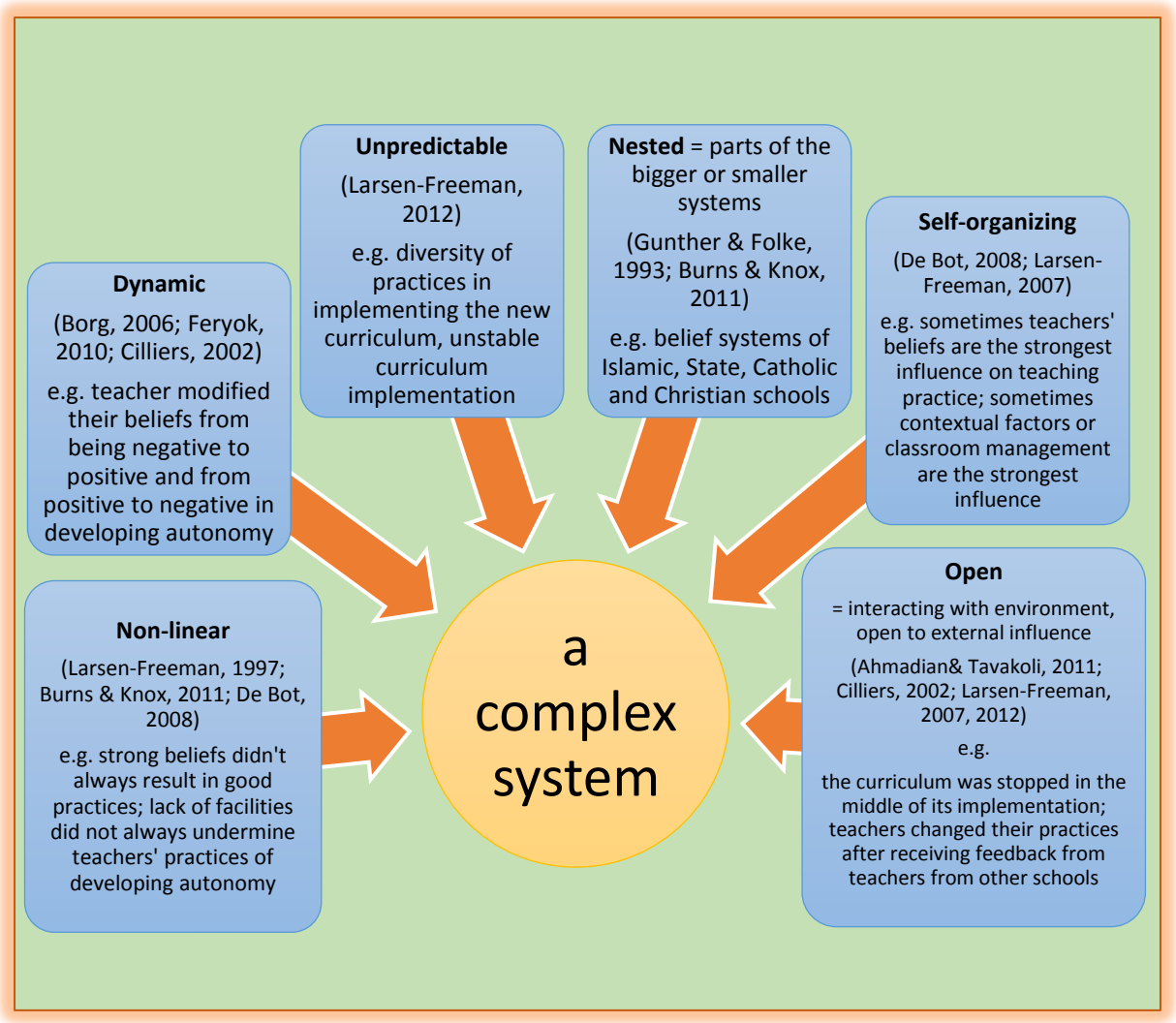

Figure 30: A complex system of teacher beliefs and practices in developing autonomy

Beliefs and practices in the use of local resources as a complex system

The study so far has considered the first two research questions. The final two research questions can also be answered in relation to teacher belief as a complex system. Those questions were:

c. *How do English teachers interpret the curriculum expectation to develop students' autonomy in their learning outside the class?*
d. *What do teachers perceive as affordances and constraints in using the resources of the local tourist area to foster students' autonomous language learning?*

Teachers' beliefs and practices of developing learner autonomy outside classrooms

The new Indonesian curriculum seems to acknowledge that in the 21st century, "learners are not necessarily only situating themselves within the four walls of the classroom" (Chik & Breidbach, 2014, p. 117) and this suggests that teachers need to offer

more learning opportunities outside the classroom. Within the lens of complexity theory, the requirement of the curriculum to extend the learning context to students' houses, surroundings and society can be viewed as the *initial condition* affecting teachers' beliefs and practices.

A learning opportunity can be defined as "access to any activity that is likely to lead to an increase in language knowledge or skill" (Crabbe, 2003, p. 18). Learning opportunities can be found both inside and outside classrooms. However, opportunities for practising and using a target language outside classrooms have grown with the increasing availability of the internet and other electronic resources. This study found that Indonesian teachers were aware of these kinds of outside classroom learning opportunities. In the survey, teachers identified a wide range of learning opportunities and authentic resources, including the availability of native speakers at the tourist sites. The case studies also revealed that teachers were aware of the requirement to develop learner autonomy through learning outside the classroom. Some teachers brought authentic materials into the classroom and some took students outside class to practise with native speakers. This suggests that these teachers were aware that tourists in their regency were potential learning resources for students. However, in practice, taking advantage of local learning resources was not always straightforward. As the two questions are closely related, the answers are presented in the same section.

Benson (2011) suggests that the majority of language teachers would agree that students learn most effectively through the combination of language experiences inside and outside the classroom. Most Indonesian teachers in the survey also believed in the benefits of extramural learning for both teachers and students. They reported that learning outside the classroom positively affected students' learning and thus they were willing to put this into practice. In the interviews, all teachers acknowledged the opportunities available for students to learn outside class and they reported that they used these to a certain extent. Their practices varied from taking students around the school campus to taking students out of school to locations such as tourist sites, especially for English speaking practice. Teachers also encouraged students to learn from their surroundings and to visit the tourist sites and practise speaking English independently. However, most of the learning still related to school tasks.

In the rural schools, there was also a concern that there were few learning opportunities and resources for learning English outside the class. Since there were few

authentic materials for students to access outside school, these rural students were obliged to rely on textbooks (Hu, 2003).

Many teachers were aware of the potential of the internet to facilitate independent learning. This finding is consistent with Reinders and White's (2011) argument that technology facilitates autonomous learning and opens access to learning resources. However, not all the Indonesian teachers were positive, as some were concerned about the negative effects of access to the internet like the excessive use of games and Facebook. They were also worried that students could be exposed to pornography which may also lead to moral degradation. This fear was expressed both in the survey and case studies findings.

The survey revealed a range of beliefs about the types and benefits of accessing authentic local learning resources along with supports and constraints involved in taking the opportunity to use language outside the classroom. Most teachers in the survey believed that there were plentiful opportunities for learning outside the classroom and this finding is in agreement with Crabbe's (2003) argument presented early in this section.

These Indonesian teachers believed that autonomy can be fostered by giving students frequent opportunities to be active in their out-of-class learning (Nunan, 1996). They felt that out of class learning was a strategy to increase students' autonomy and freedom. Even so, teachers also perceived that there was limited parental support for independent learning outside classroom and this made teachers reluctant to set students' independent learning tasks.

Both the survey and the case studies revealed that teachers were aware that greeting foreigners offered potential for enhancing their students' language learning, particularly at the popular local tourist site (Crabbe et al., 2013). However, teachers had concerns about their students' confidence in speaking to native speakers and thus they believed that teachers were necessary to bring about any conversation with English-speakers. This is in line with Cotteral and Crabbe's (2008) argument that teachers need to facilitate learning from external opportunities.

Teachers also reported in the survey that they were unsure how to facilitate students' independent language learning and the use of authentic materials outside the classroom. This finding was congruent with Lai, Yeung et al.'s (2015) finding that tertiary teachers had concerns over their ability to support students' independent learning outside the classroom. This suggests that both secondary and tertiary teachers may need further support through professional development to increase their knowledge about how to support students' independent learning.

Both in the survey and case studies, many teachers had conflicting beliefs. On one hand, they believed that it would be good if students could have speaking practice with tourists, however, on the other hand, they were unable to resolve the financial, time, bureaucratic and transportation issues to take students out. They also believed that their students were shy and lacked confidence to initiate conversations with tourists, suggesting that they believed that the use of opportunities for learning requires a kind of teacher modelling (Crabbe, 2007).

The findings above suggest that Indonesian teachers had belief systems comprising of various beliefs concerning the use of authentic local resources to support students' independent learning. Those beliefs could be in agreement or disagreement with their other beliefs.

This study revealed that that strong beliefs about the benefits of learning outside classroom did not always translate into practice. Contextual constraints prevented some teachers from taking students out. Even so, other teachers continued planning to take students to the temple for speaking practice regardless of unresolved issues. In this regard, teachers' beliefs about the use of local learning resources were non-linear.

There were some teachers who preferred to follow the letter of the curriculum rather than seizing the chance to take students out to the temple. Thus, even when they had strong beliefs about the advantages of those learning opportunities, they did not act on them. So, although the local learning resources had the potential to support students' language learning, the teachers interpreted the curriculum itself as limiting the use of such resources. This also shows the non-linearity of teachers' beliefs and practices.

A strong example of the non-linearity in this kind of belief system occurred where teachers heard a rumour about the tourists' negative reactions when they were approached by students and this vague rumour strongly affected their practices. Even the teachers who had had positive experiences of taking students to Borobudur temple became less positive and doubtful as a result of hearing this rumour.

External factors, such as tourist reactions and the entry cost, also influenced teachers' use of the authentic learning resources in their regency. There was ***unpredictability*** about how tourists might react towards students when they attempted to engage them in conversation. In addition, the cost of entry in the temple was beyond the control of teachers. Another unpredictable external influence was when tourists were likely to visit the school. These external factors make it hard for teachers to predict whether they could really facilitate the students to learn from the authentic resources available in their

environment. This means that teachers' beliefs and practices were open to external influences, reflecting another characteristic of a complex system: that it is ***open***.

A common practice revealed by this study was that all teachers gave homework tasks to be completed independently. Some teachers made themselves available to students as a learning resource outside class hours. When students had access to the internet, some teachers offered guidance through social media, emails and short messages. Some teachers encouraged the practice of using English with foreigners on the way to or at nearby tourist sites. Some teachers accepted that they would not be able to visit the sites, but still discussed the local tourist sites in their classrooms. Although teachers' practices varied, a pattern emerged here.

Overall, all the case study teachers mentioned that they used Borobudur as a theme for their lessons. All supported the use of local learning resources. Thus at the level of cognition, teachers were quite positive about the use of local learning resources to facilitate outside classroom learning. But at the higher policy level, the curriculum presented a barrier in that it did not direct teachers to exploit local resources in their teaching. At the school level, teachers had had experiences of taking students to the temple but the limited time, the distance, limited transportation, and lack of funding limited these practices. This reflected the Reinders' (2010) observation that teachers are frequently unable to solve the challenges they face resulting from economic factors, state-led education policies, school curricula and the prescribed use of textbooks. In this case, the interrelated contextual variables seem to explain why some beliefs could not be reflected in the teachers' teaching practice (Baker, 2014). My study finding, in this regard, reflects that teacher's beliefs and practices on the use of outside classroom learning were ***nested*** in the micro-context of classroom, exo-context of school and society and macro-context of national educational policy.

The curriculum expected learners to become autonomous learners who can use both linguistic and non-linguistic resources in their environment (Breen & Mann, 1997; Illés, 2012). This required teachers to make students aware of the potential for learning outside the classroom and enhancing their skills to do this (Reinders, 2010). Yet, overall, the findings have suggested a complex relationship among teachers' beliefs, teaching practices and contextual factors in relation to facilitating students' language learning outside the classroom context and the use of local learning resources in Magelang Regency. The teachers wanted to use environmental resources to support autonomy development.

However, the availability of such resources did not necessarily facilitate autonomy development.

The following diagram represents the use of local learning resources in Magelang Regency:

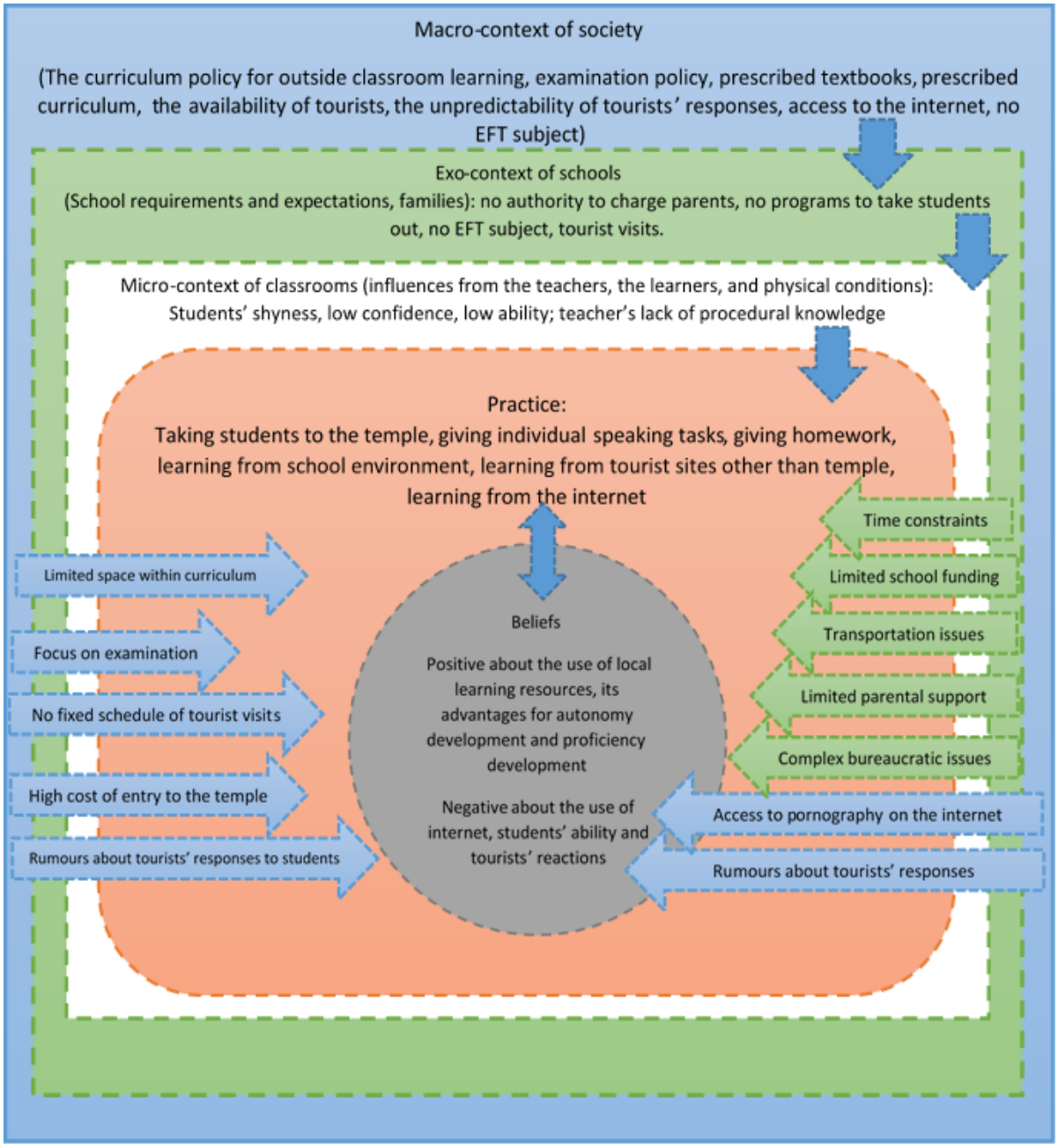

Figure 31. The complexities in using local learning resources for outside classroom learning in Magelang Regency

8.6 Emerging Tensions in the Practices of Developing Learner Autonomy in Indonesia

One factor which may inhibit implementation of the development of learner autonomy in curriculum practice is a lack of shared understanding about the nature of learner autonomy itself. The findings of this study suggest that there were multiple

interpretations of learner autonomy comprising not only building learners' capacity to share some control of classroom learning once the direction had been given by teachers, but also building learners' capacity to conduct independent learning outside the classroom with or without teachers' direction. This suggests that in the Indonesian contexts for my study, both reactive autonomy and proactive autonomy coexisted (Littlewood, 1999), and operated at different times in different contexts. Reactive autonomy worked inside the classroom as students' freedom to choose elements of their learning was curtailed by their teachers' direction to comply with the curriculum. In contrast, proactive autonomy seemed to work better outside the classroom where teachers seemed more confident about providing opportunities for students to make decisions over their personal learning.

The finding of this study also highlights the curriculum requirement for students to learn through the scientific approach (observing, questioning, researching, associating and communicating) which seemed to guide the teachers to view learner autonomy as their students' ability to conduct active and independent learning inside classroom activities which were facilitated by teachers. As the curriculum expected the extension of learning setting beyond the classrooms, learner autonomy also covered students' ability to conduct active and independent learning outside the classroom as a continuation of activities initiated within the classroom. Thus learner autonomy in Indonesian JHS contexts did not completely cover the five definitions presented by Benson and Voller (1997), or the two types of autonomy proposed by Littlewood (1999), as to some extent the development of learner autonomy was still limited by the curriculum framework. In this study, learner autonomy seemed to mean students' ability to learn in more active and independent ways to achieve the learning objectives stated by the curriculum. When this definition is compared to those proposed by Benson and Voller (1997), learner autonomy in Indonesian contexts approximates one of their definitions: *the exercise of learners' responsibility over their learning.* This was because teachers used the five stages of the scientific approach advocated by the curriculum to share with students a greater level of responsibility in their learning. Students were also expected to complete homework and regulate their out of class learning to enhance their classroom learning. These teachers appeared to view learner autonomy as their learners' ability and responsibility both to construct knowledge through five stages of scientific approach in the classroom, and to search for further knowledge outside the classroom to add to, modify, practice or confirm what they have learnt inside the classrooms.

Autonomy is complex (Benson, 2013) and definitions of learner autonomy vary so much that Benson (2009) argues that it may not be possible to develop one shared understanding of this term. As it is also an open concept which is still developing, it is quite logical that English teachers in Indonesia interpreted it differently. My study has shown that autonomy covers various competencies which differ from person to person, and may even vary for an individual across context and time (Benson & Cooker, 2013), and that individuals perceive autonomous practices differently. This poses a challenge for policymakers who may wish to measure the success of curriculum implementation. On one hand, there is unlikely to be uniformity in both teachers' understanding of the concept of autonomy and their practices in developing autonomy. But on the other hand, it is also hard to tell whether the curriculum has been successfully implemented if there is no visible consistency or uniformity. If we really want to measure implementation, everyone should know what is expected as without such consistency of understanding, any evaluation is not feasible.

My study also reflects similarities with findings from the literature (Benson, 2000; Dam & Legenhausen, 2011; Little, 2009a) in the wider field of learner autonomy concerning the constraints faced by teachers aiming to develop learner autonomy: the curriculum, textbooks, exams and teachers' doubt and lack of knowledge. This suggests that similar problems are faced internationally in the development of autonomy and thus more attention should be given to these problems by educators and policymakers. The emerging tensions in Indonesian contexts may have wider implications.

a. Autonomy or examination

This study has shown that most teachers faced problems in managing the evaluations or assessments used in the new curriculum. They admitted that the new evaluations were complicated and they did not fully understand them. This suggests that teachers were unclear about what students were expected to achieve and how to evaluate this as the curriculum recommended multiple assessment foci. This led to confusion about the form and role of the national examination. It was also evident that the pressure of national examinations and semester tests may have inhibited teachers from developing activities to promote autonomy. English scores in the school and national examination were still seen as the main standard for assessment. The literature (Benson, 2000; S. Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012a; Little, 2007a, 2009a) has highlighted that national examinations or testing often constrain the development of learner autonomy because classroom activities are focused on

examination and testing preparation. This study supports others in finding that teachers focused more on preparing students to pass examinations than on creating autonomous learners. The requirement for students to pass high stakes examinations is a clear constraint to the promotion of autonomy as learners and teachers confine lessons to meeting examination requirements. The focus on national examinations also appeared to undermine self-assessment and peer assessment practices. However, at the time of this study, the new curriculum had not led to changes to policy on national examinations in Indonesia. Thus, from the start, this curriculum appeared to be compromised by the persistence of the national examination system. Nonetheless, examinations were believed to be a necessary way to maintain the quality of education across the different regions of Indonesia, and it may prove difficult to replace them with alternative forms of assessment. I need to note here, however, that just at the time I was about to submit the thesis an announcement was made that the future of national examinations was under consideration by the Ministry of Education in Indonesia.

Nevertheless, not all the teachers in this study saw national exams and testing as a constraint. Some teachers perceived that exams or tests required students to take responsibility for their learning. Students had to take the exam individually and each student received different questions, so students were expected to depend on their own resources to master the materials, rely on themselves in the exam and take responsibility for whatever result they obtained. In preparation for examinations, some teachers obliged students to prepare for lessons independently and then encouraged them to discuss their learning with friends in class time. This suggests that autonomous learning was viewed as a means to compensate for the lack of time to learn in class. To some extent, this finding contradicts the perception that testing is "anti-autonomy" (Champagne et al., 2001, p. 49) as testing can allow opportunities for students to develop autonomous practices.

b. Textbooks or authentic materials

Some teachers found it challenging to use authentic materials as they were more familiar with using textbooks. They blamed the unavailability of government textbooks for their limited practice of developing autonomy. In fact, the use of textbooks limited the chance to accommodate students' needs as teachers were expected to cover the content within those textbooks each academic year. In other words, there were few options to incorporate materials outside the set texts and there

was limited time to source and integrate other resources to cover the content. The practice of relying on textbooks also inhibited teachers from taking advantage of the learning resources available in the local environment, such as visiting native speakers and authentic environmental resources. The development of autonomy is supported when students activate the new language beyond classroom contexts according to literature (Nunan, 1996). Outside class learning also appears to support the development of language proficiency (Lai, Zhu, et al., 2015). This study has illustrated how it may be difficult for learners to develop autonomy unless teachers support them to use the target language outside the classroom as the use of English supports autonomy development (Little, 2007b). This suggests that the policy of prescribing textbooks needs reconsideration and that professional development may be required to support teachers to use authentic resources in their local environment particularly as the new curriculum also suggests the extension of learning settings beyond the classroom contexts.

c. The use of ICT: for teachers or for students?

Most teachers acknowledged that the new curriculum required them to use ICT in teaching. They felt that technological devices would allow them to use power point presentations which in turn would improve their teaching. This suggests that teachers still envisaged themselves presenting materials to students instead of using the technological devices to support their students' independent learning experiences. The presentations were expected to support teacher talk. Some teachers in this study perceived that teacher talk was at the heart of effective teaching and this may reflect Little's (1991) argument that teachers think that if they do not talk, they do not teach. This suggests that teachers may have limited understanding about how to use technology to facilitate the development of learner autonomy.

In addition, the situation in Indonesia was not completely conducive to internet use. This study revealed that internet use in Indonesian was an unresolved issue at the time as educators grapple with ways to restrict students' access to unsavoury websites.

d. Teachers: More task or Less task

Some teachers perceived that their workload would be lessened when their students became autonomous. Teachers knew that they were expected to serve as a learning facilitator but some teachers misunderstood their new role in the

classroom. The literature shows that the teacher's roles in developing autonomy range from being a facilitator, helper, and counsellor whose tasks are different from those demanded from their traditional role (Gremmo & Riley, 1995). These new roles also demand new and unfamiliar professional skills. In managing these new and multiple roles, teachers' workloads may actually increase. The misunderstandings found in this study may suggest that teachers may need preparation for this aspect of their role through professional development prior to the implementation of any new curriculum.

e. Developing autonomy and English proficiency: Serving global demands or other purposes?

The different pedagogical and societal intentions underpinning the development of learner autonomy may also affect how autonomy is perceived by teachers and governments. It should first be clear whether learner autonomy is a goal for language learning, serving as an "end" or as an outcome of a language learning program, or is a "means" towards an end of achieving English proficiency. In this way, it is necessary to reach a common understanding of what autonomy means so that there can be a common understanding of how to enact it. The problems inherent in reaching a consensus on the meaning of autonomy have been discussed earlier in this chapter.

Some teachers in this study expressed a strong desire to empower their learners through developing their autonomy. These teachers were concerned about preparing students for their future life while at the same time perceiving the importance for students of gaining language proficiency. They wanted their students to be successful both at school and in a global society.

In addition to teachers' references to globalisation as a reason for developing autonomy and English proficiency, this study also revealed teachers' personal perspectives concerning their students' need to master English. English proficiency was deemed important for acquiring knowledge about religion through books written in English as well as for fighting anti-Islamic authors. This access to English texts may reflect the desire for a wider perspective and deeper awareness about issues associated with Islam. This finding only emerged from one out of four Islamic schools and thus it does not seem to relate to Islamic school culture although there was a higher proportion of lesson time spent teaching religion and religion-related subjects at this school. This example is useful in revealing the potential for

underlying philosophical differences about the purposes of learner autonomy which go beyond a focus on language proficiency.

f. Being autonomous as a teacher or being able to teach autonomy

Considering that society always changes and the focus of learning also changes (Jarvis, 2007), there is a good chance that the Indonesian curriculum will continue changing. As the curriculum in Indonesia keeps changing, English teachers need to be flexible in facing these curriculum changes. Teachers themselves may need to become more autonomous to adapt to innovations. If teachers acquire greater autonomy, they may not feel obliged to implement innovations unquestioningly. In this regard, teacher training institutions may need to consider how to produce autonomous teachers.

A degree of teacher autonomy was shown by some teachers in this study. They reported practising their oral language with foreigners, joining workshops on the curriculum implementation, taking a master's degree and learning from colleagues or teachers to improve their professional knowledge and skills. However, they still worried about their own professional skills and were also concerned about their learners' ability to develop autonomy. This suggests that English teachers did not know how to introduce autonomous practices even when they were autonomous themselves. Instead of finding solutions, they appeared to use their students' perceived limitations as an excuse for not enacting the new practices. This illustrates how teachers play a significant role as agents of autonomy development (Egel, 2009). This finding may encourage the government to support teachers with training on how to develop learner autonomy with students at different English proficiency levels.

g. Applying a national curriculum or a local curriculum

This study revealed teachers' commitment to following the curriculum which was evident in teachers' ability to quote verbatim from the curriculum. This suggests that teachers were willing to implement the national curriculum in theory. Yet, there were various applications of the same curriculum requirements. These represented a range of school resources even though the schools were situated in the same regency. In practice, when it came to the actual implementation teachers felt it necessary to make adaptations to meet their local contexts. Teachers' doubts about the feasibility of implementing the generic curriculum and their struggle to follow the curriculum requirements suggests that a flexible curriculum more

compatible with local contexts may be needed. The government was aware that there was a diversity of resources and language proficiency levels across regions in Indonesia. In fact, although the 2006 school curriculum has been replaced by the current curriculum, the national curriculum in previous years has always given schools the autonomy to teach subjects that suit the local context. A local curriculum that includes local content operates at the same time as the national curriculum. However, some tensions emerged in this study as the national curriculum was prioritized over the local curriculum (such as the discontinuation of English for Tourism (EFT)) as teachers and schools attempted to comply with the national curriculum.

There may also be concern about the consistency of educational practices when the curriculum is interpreted at the local level. Questions have been raised about the skills of teachers in developing their own curricula, whether teachers have sufficient time, and if each school's administrative system and policies may impact on the quality of local curricula (Sahasewiyon, 2004). In this regard, like the implementation of the national curricula, the use of a local curriculum seems to face complex problems. Even so, previous national curricula have shown that local courses and content developed within a local curriculum could operate successfully within a larger national curriculum framework. Retaining a locally-focussed course like EFT may offer chances for students to develop autonomy in English learning which seems to correspond to the requirement of the new curriculum. Therefore, it may also worth considering how the local curriculum or local content subjects may be adapted within the current curriculum to ensure that the potential within each region is realised within the national education framework.

8.7 Limitations

The findings of the study offer insights into the complexity for teachers of promoting the concept of learner autonomy. However these findings do not capture the students' and parents' perceptions. In addition, I did not have the chance to directly access the teachers' engagement with professional development workshops intended to prepare them for the applying the new curriculum and thus I could not find out how teachers were prepared to develop autonomy in their classes. This is both a particular limitation of this study and an area for further research.

8.8 Conclusion

This study has revealed English teachers' perceptions of learner autonomy and how these were developed in their own unique contexts in one regency of Indonesia. It also revealed complex examples of practices of promoting learner autonomy in secondary schools that ranged in effectiveness. The complexities around the practices of developing autonomy were discussed in relation to the nestedness of teachers' practices within different contextual levels. Teachers' beliefs appeared to have a strong influence on teachers' actions but as this study has shown, teachers' procedural knowledge of how to develop learner autonomy, and the contextual factors at the sites where the practices were enacted, played a role in the application of the curricular expectations of developing learner autonomy. This suggests that there is no single formula for developing learner autonomy that can be applied in different teaching contexts, by teachers who have different degrees of teaching experience and capabilities. Viewing curriculum change in terms of complexity theory may be helpful for future curriculum implementers. It may prevent teachers and policymakers from experiencing unnecessary feelings of concern with non-linear results, which might be predicted, and instead help an analysis of the factors that underlie and lead to the complexity, and the patterns that may emerge as the system becomes self-organising.

The use of local learning resources including digital technologies may help teachers in providing opportunities for students to experience independent learning outside the classroom. However endorsement of these practices may be required and teachers may need additional support from professional development. The curriculum may need to provide more space for the integration of local contexts into teaching and learning activities and to offer greater freedom for teachers to use the local learning resources around them. This may also offer an opportunity to consider the effectiveness of nesting a locally designed curriculum within the national curriculum.

8.9 Suggestions for future research

I believe that some aspects discussed in this study can be explored further in future studies. It may provide valuable insights to educators and policy-makers to investigate whether teachers modify their beliefs and practices after a few years of curriculum implementation, how teachers develop their understanding of the concept of autonomy over time, and how English teachers in other regions in Indonesia perceive the concept of autonomy. Since complexity theory is a relatively new mode of analysis, it would also be interesting to discover whether the interactions of teacher beliefs, practices and contextual

factors remain complex during later stages of curriculum implementation, and in other educational contexts. This may be of interest to future researchers.

8.10 Concluding remark

Despite the complexity discussed in this thesis this study presents an optimistic view of the potential for teachers to develop learner autonomy in English language learning among students as young as those in Junior High School, even within the confines established by a national curriculum.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1

QUESTIONNAIRE

Teachers' perceptions on developing learner autonomy
(Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2012)

I am Dwi Agustina. I am a teaching staff member at Pekalongan University but taught at SMP Trisula Ngluwar and SMA Al Husain Magelang from 2006 to 2011. This questionnaire is part of my doctoral study on teachers' approaches to teaching English. I am interested in your perceptions of developing learner autonomy and using authentic English texts found in your local environment.

Moreover, I would like to learn how the perceptions teachers hold influence the actual teaching practices. This research will try to find out what constraints and affordances teachers like you find in developing learner autonomy in learning English and in using authentic English texts in the local environment.

Your participation is voluntary and more than 200 English teachers in Magelang Regency are being invited to contribute. Your responses are important as I am interested to see your personal perceptions on developing learner autonomy. The questionnaires are presented in English and *Bahasa Indonesia* and you can choose to answer either one. There are no right or wrong answers and your responses will be kept confidential. You do not need to write your name unless you are interested in participating in the next phase of my study.

It will take about 15 – 20 minutes to complete the questionnaires. You can use black, blue or red pens or pencils. Thank you.

Section 1: Please give your opinion about the following statement by ticking one answer.

	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	Language learners of all ages can develop learner autonomy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	Independent study in the library is an activity which develops learner autonomy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	Learner autonomy is promoted through regular opportunities for learners to complete tasks alone	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	Autonomy means that learner can make choices about how they learn	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	Individuals who lack autonomy are not likely to be effective language learners	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	Autonomy can develop most effectively through learning outside the classrooms	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	Involving learners in decisions about what to learn promotes learner autonomy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	Learner autonomy means learning without a teacher	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	It is harder to promote learner autonomy with proficient language learners that it is with beginners	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	It is possible to promote learner autonomy with both young language learners and adults	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11	Confident language learners are more likely to develop autonomy than those who lack confidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12.	Learner autonomy allows language learner to learn more effectively	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13	Learner autonomy can be achieved by learners of all cultural backgrounds	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14.	Learner autonomy is promoted when learners have some choice in the kinds of activities they do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15.	Learner autonomy cannot be promoted in teacher-centred classrooms	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16.	Learner autonomy is promoted through activities which give learners opportunities to learn from each other	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17.	Learner autonomy implies a rejection of traditional teacher-led ways of teaching	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18.	Learner autonomy cannot develop without the help of the teacher	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19.	Learner autonomy is promoted by activities that encourage learners to work together	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20	Learner autonomy is only possible with adult learners	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21	Learner autonomy is promoted by independent work in a self-access centre	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree
22.	Learner autonomy is promoted when learners are free to decide how their learning will be assessed	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23.	Learner autonomy is a concept which is not suited to non-Western learners	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24.	Learner autonomy requires the learner to be totally independent of the teachers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25.	Co-operative group work activities support the development of learner autonomy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26.	Promoting autonomy is easier with beginning language learners than with more proficient learners	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
27.	Learner autonomy is promoted when learners can choose their own learning materials	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
28.	Learner-centred classrooms provide ideals conditions for developing learner autonomy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
29.	Learning how to learn is the key to developing learner autonomy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
30.	Learning how to work alone is central to the development of learner autonomy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
31.	Out-of class tasks which require learners to use the internet promote learner autonomy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
32.	The ability to monitor one's learning is central to learner autonomy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
33.	Motivated language learners are more likely to develop learner autonomy than learners who are not motivated	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
34.	The proficiency of a language learner does not affect their ability to develop autonomy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
35.	The teacher has an important role to play in supporting learner autonomy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
36.	Learner autonomy has a positive effect on success as a language learner	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
37.	To become autonomous, learners need to develop the ability to evaluate their own learning	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Section 2: Please answer the following questions (max. 100 words for each answer)

1. **What do you know or think about the new 2013 curriculum changes?**

Answer:

2. **What do you see as learning opportunities outside the classrooms in your local environment?**

Answer:

Section 3: Your Background
Please tell us about your background.

1. **Gender**
   ☐ Male ☐ Female
2. **Age (years)**
   ☐ 20 – 30 ☐ 30-40 ☐ 40 – 50 ☐ 50-60 ☐ 60 +
3. **Qualification**
   ☐ **C**ertificate ☐ Diploma ☐ Bachelor
   ☐ Master ☐ Doctorate ☐ Other
4. **Teaching experience (years)**
   ☐ 0 – 5 ☐ 5 - 10 ☐ 10 – 15 ☐ 15 -20 ☐ 20 +
5. **School**
   ☐ State ☐ Private
   If your school is a private one, please specify:
   ☐ Islamic school
   ☐ Catholic school
   ☐ Christian school
   ☐ Others
6. **The grade(s) you are teaching**
   ☐ VII ☐ VIII ☐ IX
7. **School Distance from Borobudur Temple (km)**
   ☐ 0 – 5 ☐ 5 - 10 ☐ 10 – 15 ☐ 15 -20 ☐ 20 +

Section 4: Please provide your personal details below if you agree to participate in the next phase of study (interview and observation). For questions provided with options, please circle your options.

Name	
School	
Phone Number/ email	

Appendix 2

Dear Dwi

You can adapt the questionnaire subject to the normal academic requirement that you fully acknowledge your original sources.

Good luck with your research.

Best wishes

Simon

Simon Borg
ELT Consultant

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twitter: http://twitter.com/Simon_Borg
LinkedIn: http://www.linkedin.com/in/simonborgconsulting

Appendix 3

Teachers' scores in the survey

ID	Total score	Mean score
R1	134	3.621621622
R2	145	3.918918919
R3	150	4.054054054
R4	157	4.243243243
R5	160	4.324324324
R6	129	3.486486486
R7	124	3.351351351
R8	151	4.081081081
R9	155	4.189189189
R10	155	4.189189189
R11	155	4.189189189
R12	165	4.459459459
R13	134	3.621621622
R14	131	3.540540541
R15	142	3.837837838
R16	138	3.72972973
R17	161	4.351351351
R18	141	3.810810811
R19	145	3.918918919
R20	121	3.27027027
R21	147	3.972972973
R22	143	3.864864865
R23	156	4.216216216
R24	138	3.72972973
R25	144	3.891891892
R26	163	4.405405405
R27	146	3.945945946
R28	154	4.162162162
R29	142	3.837837838
R30	139	3.756756757
R31	131	3.540540541
R32	147	3.972972973
R33	134	3.621621622
R34	139	3.756756757
R35	134	3.621621622
R36	145	3.918918919
R37	143	3.864864865
R38	142	3.837837838
R39	153	4.135135135
R40	138	3.72972973
R41	145	3.918918919

R42	146	3.945945946
R43	132	3.567567568
R44	145	3.918918919
R45	146	3.945945946
R46	146	3.945945946
R47	178	4.810810811
R48	144	3.891891892
R49	146	3.945945946
R50	149	4.027027027
R51	141	3.810810811
R52	146	3.945945946
R53	146	3.945945946
R54	142	3.837837838
R55	122	3.297297297
R56	136	3.675675676
R57	144	3.891891892
R58	147	3.972972973
R59	137	3.702702703
R60	162	4.378378378

Teachers' scores in three different groups

Teachers with the highest scores

ID	Total score	Mean score
R47	178	4.810810811
R12	165	4.459459459
R26	163	4.405405405
R60	162	4.378378378
R17	161	4.351351351
R5	160	4.324324324
R4	157	4.243243243
R23	156	4.216216216
R9	155	4.189189189
R10	155	4.189189189
R11	155	4.189189189
R28	154	4.162162162
R39	153	4.135135135
R8	151	4.081081081
R3	150	4.054054054
R50	149	4.027027027

Teachers with the middle scores

ID	Total score	Mean Score
R21	147	3.972972973
R32	147	3.972972973
R58	147	3.972972973
R27	146	3.945945946
R42	146	3.945945946
R45	146	3.945945946
R46	146	3.945945946
R49	146	3.945945946
R52	146	3.945945946
R53	146	3.945945946
R2	145	3.918918919
R19	145	3.918918919
R36	145	3.918918919
R41	145	3.918918919
R44	145	3.918918919
R25	144	3.891891892
R48	144	3.891891892
R57	144	3.891891892

Teachers with the lowest scores

ID	Total score	Mean score
R22	143	3.864864865
R37	143	3.864864865
R15	142	3.837837838
R29	142	3.837837838
R38	142	3.837837838
R54	142	3.837837838
R18	141	3.810810811
R51	141	3.810810811
R30	139	3.756756757
R34	139	3.756756757
R16	138	3.72972973
R24	138	3.72972973
R40	138	3.72972973
R59	137	3.702702703
R56	136	3.675675676
R1	134	3.621621622
R13	134	3.621621622
R33	134	3.621621622
R35	134	3.621621622
R43	132	3.567567568
R14	131	3.540540541
R31	131	3.540540541
R6	129	3.486486486
R7	124	3.351351351
R55	122	3.297297297
R20	121	3.27027027

Notes:

- Teachers in red were the respondents in the case study
- Teachers in blue were those who had been contacted to participate in the study but they refused.

Final respondents		
ID	**Name**	**Mean score**
R23	Mrs. Maya	4.216216216
R11	Mrs. Dewi	4.189189189
R3	Mrs. Wina	4.054054054
R58	Mrs. Diana	3.972972973
R25	Ms. Arina	3.891891892
R57	Mrs. Netty	3.891891892
R37	Mrs.Sinta	3.864864865
R18	Mr. Ali	3.810810811
R6	Mrs. Nelly	3.486486486

Appendix 4

Interview, observation and member checking schedule

Name	Interview 1	Observation	Interview 2	Member checking	Note
T1 : Mrs. Dewi	24 Nov 2014	24 Nov 2014	24 Nov 2014	21 Jan 2015	Through email and phone
T2 : Mrs. Wina	2 Nov 2014	15 Nov 2014	2 Dec 2014	15 Jan 2015	Through email and phones
T3 :Mrs. Maya	14 Nov 2014	17 Nov 2014	25 Nov 2014	6 Dec 2014	Direct communication
T4 :Mrs. Nelly	13 Nov 2014	26 Nov 2014	26 Nov 2014	16 Jan 2015	Through email
T5 : Mrs. Netty	26 Nov 2014	28 Nov 2014	5 Dec 2014	19 Jan 2015	Through email
T6 : Mr. Ali	21 Nov 2014	28 Nov 2014	5 Dec 2014	15 Jan 2015 17 Jan 2015	Responses were given through email and what's app messages
T7 : Mrs. Sinta	13 Nov	20 Nov 2014	25 Nov	13 Jan 2015	Through email & phones
T8 : Mrs. Diana	10 Nov 2014	18 Nov 2014	18 Nov 2014	14 Jan 2015 19 Jan 2015 20 Jan 2015	Though email, phones and Facebook
T9 : Ms. Arina	17 Nov 2014	18 Nov 2014	18 Nov 2014	11 Jan 2015	Through email

Appendix 5

Information given to teachers about the interview

Faculty of Education
PO Box 17- 310 Karori Wellington, New Zealand
Phone4-463 9500 Fax 4-463 9649; Website www.vuw.ac.nz/education

Information Sheet for the Interview Participants

ELT in a tourism area: The way teachers perceive learner autonomy development for both classroom teaching and learning and students' learning outside the classrooms in the local Indonesian environment

Dear Sir/ Madam

My name is Dwi Agustina. I am a teaching staff member at Pekalongan University but I previously taught at SMP Trisula Ngluwar and SMA Al Husain Magelang from 2006 to 2011. I am interested in teacher perceptions of developing learner autonomy and using authentic English texts found in your local environment. Moreover, I would like to learn how the perceptions teachers hold influence the actual teaching practices. This research will try to find out what constraints and affordances English teachers find in developing learner autonomy in learning English and in using authentic English texts in the local environment.

Thank you for completing the questionnaire and indicating your interest in the second phase of my study. I would like now to invite you to participate in the second stage of the study. Thank you for providing your name and your contact details.

This second phase of the study will involve interview, questionnaire and document analysis. I would like to conduct two interviews with you and I would like to observe your class once at a time that is convenient for you. I would also like to get the copy of your lesson plan for this lesson and the syllabus which I am going to analyse. I will contact your

headmaster/ headmistress for the permission to do this study if you indicate your willingness to participate.

This study is conducted in Magelang Regency Central Java as I am concerning teachers' perceptions on developing learner autonomy for students' learning inside and outside the classrooms in this area which is a tourist area.

The participation for the interview, observation and document analysis is voluntary and you can withdraw at any time up to the preparation of the study for presentation as a thesis or publication in articles. All the names of the participants and the data will be kept confidential.

I am conducting my PhD study with Victoria University of Wellington in New Zealand with the support of an Indonesian Government scholarship. I am happy to answer any further questions about this research and questions can be directed to my supervisors, Dr. Gillian Hubbard and Dr. Margaret Gleeson and about the ethical aspects of the study to Dr. Allison Kirkman.

I am an independent researcher and your participations and the data will be kept confidential. I am happy to answer any further questions about this research and questions can be directed to my supervisors, Dr. Gillian Hubbard and Dr. Margaret Gleeson and about the ethical aspects of the study to Dr. Allison Kirkman.

It will take about 60 minutes for each interview. You can use either English or Bahasa Indonesia.

Thank you.

Dwi Agustina

Contact Details:

Dwi Agustina
PhD student of School of Education
Faculty of Education
Victoria University of Wellington

Dr. Gillian Hubbard
Lecturer of English Curriculum Studies
School of Education
Faculty of Education
Victoria University of Wellington

Dr. Margaret Gleeson
Senior lecturer
School of Education
Faculty of Education
Victoria University of Wellington

Dr. Allison Kirkman
Convenor of Human Ethics Committee
Victoria University of Wellington

This research has been approved by Human Ethics Committee of Victoria University of Wellington [Approval Number: 21116]

Note: Personal email addresses and phone numbers have been removed in the contact details above due to some privacy concern as the thesis is made publicly available online.

Appendix 6: example of coding process

Final coding T8 with transcript

Example of transcripts	Sub-codes	codes
1. *In the announcement, you can use future tense.* You can use the word *will* then you can use the words *Do, Come, Come and Express*. What is the name? *Imperative sentence*. Later, if you make announcement, you can use that. So, use *future* (observation – explaining the tense in announcement) 2. *Verb* one. It cannot be *will going*, for example, but *will go*. *Will express our condolence*. Will express *our sympathy*, ok? So, you can use future tense and then use what? *Imperative sentence (observation)*	Explaining the tense in announcement Explaining the use of will be Explaining the use of an article Explaining the use of there are and there is Explaining the tense Explaining the grammar Writing the tenses on whiteboard	Explaining the grammar
1. *This text is announcement. It is simple text wrote to inform something important*. So, there is an event and we are required to do something or there will be an event and it can be glued. Later please find the elements within an announcement. (observation – explaining the materials) 2. Then teacher talk. For me teacher talk is also important (using teacher talk) 3. answering students' questions (observed)	Explaining the materials Explaining the elements of announcement Using teacher talk Giving explanation Informing the use of please Answering students' question	Explaining the materials
1. Yes, about the increased price of petrol. For example, starting next week, there will be an increase of bus fees *due to* the increased price of the petrol. (observation – giving examples of announcement) 2. *I have an announcement. I have an announcement.* (observation -Showing the example of announcement) 3. Well, later, you do the same when you make an announcement. Okay? For example, because this building is being renovated, there is a lot of noises. Sorry for this inconvenience. Okay? (observation – giving example of announcement)	Giving example Giving examples of announcement Showing the example of announcement Showing other students' work as example	Giving examples
All observed	Guiding the students in getting the word meaning Giving clues /Providing clues for students in guessing the meaning Guiding students in finding the right translation Guiding students in finding the right answer	Training students to translate words

	Using gesture to give the clue to students about the word meaning Wanting students to guess the words	
1. T: kom? S: come. Koma po (observation – correcting student's pronunciation) 2. *T:Okay, Now* Elly made a mistake. What is the right one? What do you think? S: an our T: Then why it's read /thi/ S: because it is followed by vocal letter T: Yes, *the inconvenience* *(observation* - Reviewing students' mistake of pronunciation 3. Then when they make mistakes, they are corrected directly. (int 2)	Correcting students' pronunciation directly Correcting students' pronunciation Repeating the reading of announcement Reviewing students' mistake of pronunciation Giving feedback for students' reading Spelling the word Helping student in reading Questioning students about word pronunciation Reading the correct answers to students	Emphasizing students' correct pronunciation
1. Sometimes I give a task using internet (Int 1- Giving task to use internet) 2. Okay, next, *please work in your group of two*. *Arrange the jumbled sentences into a good announcement*. (obs – assigning pair work) 3. *Oke please arrange with your partner*. With your friends. Please write in pairs. (obs - Asking students to work with the partner) 4. Okay, *now I'd like you now to make group of four* (observation - Assigning group work) 5. *And for individually you must make announcement*. (obs - Giving individual task) 6. (Doing it) alone, think individually, in pairs, in group of four. (int 2 - Using individual and group work)	Giving task to use internet Giving exercises Assigning group work Giving another task Giving individual task/Assigning individual work Assigning pair work Asking students to work with the partner Asking student to form the group Using individual and group work Enabling students to work both individually and in group	Assigning individual and group work
Don't forget when you want to make, *a plan, you will, you can use the word "will".* A plan. Will hold, will go. Later you can also use the word "must". For example, studnets should bring the snack and drinks. (observation- Reminding students about the use of future tense)	Reminding students about grade 7 material Reminding students of the materials Reminding students about the use of article Reminding students about the form of announcement Reminding students about the use of future tense	Reminding students about previous materials

	Asking student to recall the materials on numbers	
1. *And then yesterday we will we have learnt about advertisement and then now we continue with the new letter that is announcement text.* (observation -Informing the topic) 2. Okay, Here is the standard competence. (observation - Showing the standard competence to achieve) 3. Later, we can express the meaning in the functional text in the form of announcement *and then* express the meaning in the functional text by using accurate, fluent and meaningful spoken language. Next, this is the basic competence. (observation - Reading the standard competence for students)	Informing the topic Informing the learning objectives Informing the basic competences to achieve Informing the activity Reading the standard competence for students Showing the standard competence to achieve	Informing learning objectives
1. Please see the following slides (showing the slides) 2. Please observe this type of announcement (observation - Asking students to observe the announcement 3. Yes, in order to finish faster, you can divide the work, 2 making the sentences and two designing the setting so that it is attractive. Okay? (Observation- Asking students to divide the tasks/work) 4. That's why I suggested the work division (Int 2- Asking students to divide the tasks/work)	Greeting Showing the slides Fixing the slides Directing on how to do the task Asking students to do the exercise Asking students to analyse the announcement Asking students to bring real things Explaining the group task /Giving the task instruction Asking students to collect the work Asking students to divide the tasks/work Asking students to continue the work at home Asking students to read standard competence Asking students to give score on their work Asking students to observe the announcement Asking students to join other pair Showing the right text to read Distributing paper Reviewing the lesson Providing markers for students Answering the question herself	Managing class activities

	Introducing the guest Closing lesson with salam	
1. Using interview (int 1 - Using interview) 2. *We will discuss together. What is the first sentence of..* which one? *Which is the first?* S: B T: A, B, C, D or E? S: B T: A, B, C, D or E? S: B T: who choose B? S: (raising hands) T: *Ok, Good.* The first is B. For whom is the announcement? *For students of grade 9. The next?* S: E T: *The next?* S: E T: A, B, C, D, E? S: E (observation - Discussing the answer with students/Discussing the answer together)	Reviewing materials with students Using interview Discussing the answer with students/Discussing the answer together Discussing the use of *will be*	Using class discussion
Using students (Int 1 - Asking students to describe students) Please write in pairs. You don't mind writing, do you? (Observation - Asking students to write the answer)	Asking students to bring their favourite things Asking students to describe students Asking students to write the answer	Giving writing practices
1. T: Why is this "an"? S: vocal letter (observation – questioning students about article use) 2. But how is the form? Will+ V1 right? Like do. But how can this says "*we will be*"? What is the reason? Why? Especially on *will be on*, why is it so? (observation – questioning the reason for using will be)	Questioning students about article use questioning a student about article use Questioning students about past participle Questioning the reason for using *will be*	Focus on students' understanding of grammar

1. Please read this. (observation - Asking students to read the announcement) 2. Okay, Mifta, *please read the announcement. Louder please. Attention student.* (observation -Pointing a student to read) 3. *Once more. Who'll read this announcement please?* (obs - Offering chance to read the announcement) 4. To motivate. When they are alone, sometimes they feel shy. so all can read. (int 2 – (Asking students to read together to reduce students' shyness)	Asking students to read together to reduce students' shyness Offering chance to read the answers Asking students to read together Pointing a student to read Asking students to read the announcement Offering chance to read the announcement	Giving reading practices
1. In the classroom activities, I often use discussion (int 1 - Using discussion) 2. Okay, *any question*? (obs - Offering chance to ask)	Questioning students Asking students to mention the examples Pointing student to answer Encouraging students to answer Reinforcing students to answer correctly Inviting answers from students Asking students to mention another examples Asking students the places where announcements are found Offering chance to ask Questioning students about stories Questioning students about the place to put the best work Using discussion Probing students Train students to make conclusion	Providing chance for students to speak
1. So, what's the synonym? S: die. T: die. Die, yes. (observation – asking students to mention the synonym) 2. *Before this may be you have any difficult words*?(obs – questioning students about difficult word) 3. Yup. Don't forget to write your difficult word. (observation – asking students to list the difficult words)	Questioning students about difficult vocabulary/word Questioning word synonyms Asking students to mention the synonym Asking students to list the difficult words	Checking students' vocabulary mastery

1. Yes, because the culture here is always like that, "Mom, what if I am wrong?" (int 2- Perceiving the fear of making mistake as school culture) 2. Well, perhaps the friends' habits in which they always say "hu…" when a friend is answering (int 2 - Finding peer mocking as a reason for students' fear) 3. So, indirectly there is fear and a feeling of being judged (int 2 - Finding students' feeling of being afraid and judged) 4. Ye. Ths's a particular problem. They may rarely use English (int 2 -Finding students' rare use of English) 5. Being shy (int 2 - Having shy students)	Having shy students Perceiving the fear of making mistake as school culture Knowing students' negative thoughts Finding peer mocking as a reason for students' fear Finding students' feeling of being afraid and judged Acknowledging students' fear of making mistakes Finding students' rare use of English	Having unconfident learners
1. Yes because what I always find here is that students have not (been ready, well, *blank* I would say. (Int 1 - Finding students "blank") 2. I ask them. "What did you do last night?" and many answered "playing." So they play at night. "Why are you playing at night?" "Yes, that'my activity" (int 1 - Finding students playing at night int) 3. Yes. Not doing the tasks, not bringing the dictionary, having the wrong schecdule, coming late. (int 1 -Dealing with students who doing no task, bringing no dictionary and coming late) 4. Then the logics is that when they are alone they are lazy and so on. (int 2 – (Perceiving students' laziness for independent work) 5. Usually when they only answer the questions they get lazy (int 2 - Recognizing students' laziness on answering questions) 6. Not everyone brought it (int 2 - Finding not all students bring dictionary)	Perceiving students' l**aziness for independent wor**k Recognizing students' **laziness in answering the questions)** Finding students **"blank"** Finding students' **short time of learning** Noticing students' problem of managing time Finding students **playing at night** having students **doing no tasks** Having many students **not doing the tasks** Finding **not all students bring dictionary** Noticing students' **less focus on correct sentences** Experiencing **students' low presence** in harvest time Dealing with students who **doing no task, bringing no dictionary and coming late**	Having low motivated learners
1. Yes may be my ability Miss. My ability is still like that (int 1 Feeling the lack of teaching ability) 2. Yes, but I am far from it. *Far from perfect teacher*. Yes, that's me. (int 1- Perceiving herself as *far from perfect teacher*)	Perceiving teacher's **lack of ability** Feeling the lack of teaching ability Perceiving herself as ***far from perfect teacher*** Perceiving her own voices as bad	Having negative perceptions about herself

3. Well I am far from it. No, no. I really feel that. I am lacking of it (the ability). (int 1 - Having strong feeling of the imperfection) 4. Well the obstacle is from the teacher. From me. Well, the lacking of *basic knowledge (*int 1 Realizing her lack of basic knowledge as obstacles) 5. What I dislike is a factor coming from me. Sometimes when students make a little problem, I become emotional. (Int 1 - Disliking her own emotion) 6. I really feel the lack in my teaching. (int 1 1 Noticing the less optimal teaching practices)	Perceiving teacher **herself as limiting the teaching** Realizing **her lack of basic knowledge** as obstacles Feeling that **students got less** materials Having **strong feeling of the imperfection** **Disliking her** own emotion Noticing the **less optimal teaching** practices	
1. But sometimes there is an obstacle, the laziness. I do not make my own media. (int 1 - having laziness in making the teaching media) 2. Sometimes I feel impatient in evaluating (int 1 - Having no patience in evaluating) 3. Evaluation, well this is the part where I feel really lacking of understanding (int 1 - Having limited knowledge of new evaluation) 4. I have not been maximized my effort in motivating students so that they have not got the ability to learn independently (int 1 -. Having less effort in motivating students for independent learning) 5. At leatst for example, I need to think of what to be done tomorrow, what to teach tomorrow and what media will be interesting, but sometimes I don't. (int 1 - having no thoughts for the next teaching sometimes) 6. Then students are not motivated. Students don't have motivation and then the teacher gets emotional. (int 1 - Becoming emotional when students are unmotivated)	Having limited knowledge of new evaluation Having no patience in evaluating Having inability to share control Having difficulty in memorizing names Teaching unsystematically Realizing the less optimal effort in directing students having laziness in making the teaching media Feeling that English is not her favourite subject Being less prepared before teaching Experiencing difficulty in avoiding translation Having less effort in motivating students for independent learning having no thoughts for the next teaching sometimes Becoming emotional when students are unmotivated Teaching similarly as the previous lesson	Dealing with personal teaching problems
1. Well, but it is also complicated (Int 1-Finding the new curriculum complicated) 2. But now, on one hand, I would like to teach like the one in curriculum but grade 9 is rushed with the national exams. Then try out 1, and next try out 2, something like that. (int 1 - Feeling the pressure of national examination) 3. Yes, I still use 2006 curriculum in grade 9 but I remember the curriculum in grade 7 and grade 8	Feeling the pressure of national examination Finding the new curriculum complicated Getting disturbance from noisy students outside Being aware of reduced learning session Remembering 2013 curriculum when applying 2006 curriculum	Dealing with exam and curriculum

4. Getting disturbance (observation)		
1. Well, like searching in the internet is dangerous if it is done without supervision (int 1 – recognizubg the disadvantages of internet) 2. In games too, ads are passing. (Int 1 – knowing the bad ads on games) 3. I am afraid too. Because nowadays, a lot of problems come from it. (int 1 - Feeling afraid when giving task to use internet)	Recognizing the disadvantages of internet Expect students to open the right websites Realizing the availability of bad ads Knowing the bad ads on games Realizing internet as more dangerous than TV Feeling afraid when giving task to use internet Being afraid if students see the ads	Having concerns on internet use
1. Well here we take turns in using the LCD. There are three LCD s (int 1 – Taking turns in using LCD) 2. Well, the obstacle is that the entry ticket in Borobudur is expensive (int 1 - Perceiving the entry to temple as expensive) 3. Then the classroom has no LCD, we have to carry the LCD (Having no LCD in rooms – interview 1 and observation)	Having no LCD in rooms Taking turns in using LCD Finding students having no dictionary Perceiving the entry to temple as expensive Expecting to have complete facilities	Having limited learning resources
1. Well using the media like LCD 2. Then various books 3. Using dictionary (interview 1)	Planning to use LCD Planning to use dictionary Planning to use various books Planning to use books Planning to create non-burdening learning	Planning future teaching
1. What words? Yes, later you can open your dictionary. 2. Yup. *You can open your dictionary*. (observation) Kata apa? Ya nanti bisa buka kamus nggih , obs 3. *Don't open your dictionary.* Look at the text and see whether you have understood or not, then you can open the dictionary (Obs- Forbidding students to directly use dictionary) 4. Every day I suggest them to bring dictionary *(int 2* - Suggesting students to bring dictionary) 5. I want them to *guess*, relating words and then open dictionary (int 2 - Wanting students to use dictionary when guessing fails)	Finding dictionary on each table in classrooms Forbidding students to directly use dictionary Advising students not to use dictionary directly Expecting all students bring dictionary Suggesting students to bring dictionary /Suggesting students to bring dictionary everyday Wanting no word translation Asking students to open dictionary Making students remember the words longer Perceiving students' vocabulary memorization as slow when teachers gives translation Giving no direct translation of word	Using dictionary as learning sources

	Wanting students to use dictionary when guessing fails Asking students to use dictionary	
1. But I keep asking my colleagues (int 1 - Asking friends to add the knowledge) 2. Ideally, I want to be like the one I found in the book I read, the one expected by the government. (int 1 - Expecting to teach like government expectation) 3. I evaluate (teaching practices) myself (int 1 – evaluating teaching practices) 4. Using ppts (observation)	Asking friends to add the knowledge Having interest in teaching Recognizing the need to omit the bad habit Expecting to teach like government expectation Making students get the knowledge covered Setting simple role in class Evaluating teaching practices Perceiving the need to think about the next teaching Putting effort to love English and students Realizing the need to omit the habit of being emotional Using ppts	Making efforts for teaching improvement
1. So far, I just follow the one available (evaluation) 2. But I still stick to the guidelines (int 1) 3. Well we indeed teach by following the curriculum. (it 1) 4. In the previous school, I used KTSP and I try to follow it (int 1) 5. I only implement . Well both in 2006 and 2013 curriculum there is collaboration. (int 2)	Trying to follow the curriculum Following curriculum by applying students' collaboration Sticking to the teaching guideline/Sticking to the guideline Expecting not to direct students Wanting to play the role as demanded by curriculum Wanting to serve as ideal teacher Following the new evaluation	Following curriculum
1. I reinforce the use of common Expressions frequently used in class. For example the word not yet and then finish and then expressions to ask for permission. I reinforce the use of those expressions. (int 1- reinforcing students to use English) 2. I try to enable them to speak English little by little (int 2 – making students use English little by little)	Reinforcing students to use English Making students use English little by little Creating (aiming at) long-term benefit of English learning Focusing on students' knowledge and skills	Focus on communication ability

3. I have made the program (for visiting tourism objects) but it has not gone to realizations (int 1 - Making program to have English practices)	Facilitating students communication with the tourists Taking students to have English practices when teaching EFT Feeling less pressure of curriculum in teaching EFT Focusing on speaking in EFT teaching Making program to have English practices Wanting students to know English accent	
1. Then also realia, I often use realia (it 1) 2. For example, equipments, rooms, describing rooms, describing people, describing things. (int 1) 3. Using pictures (int 1) 4. Then we also have been familiar with those stuff (authentic ones) (int 1) 5. At least when they have no confidence to greet, they can listen to native speakers' words. (int 1) 6. Then added with pictures (int 2)	Using songs through LCD Using pictures Using rooms, people, and things Using realia Using other resources Using inexpensive references Asking students to bring fruit Finding students bringing pen finding students bringing doll Finding students' bringing ball Using the guest for motivating students Expecting students to learn from many resources Perceiving the low cost of authentic materials use Wanting students to visit public places Wanting students to learn from real resources Loving to use authentic materials Training students to listen to native speakers Using mothers as real examples Having experience of taking students to Borobudur Perceiving the ease in using authentic materials Being familiar with authentic materials	Using authentic learning resources

	Recognizing that students turn to technology	
1. any difficulty? (Observation) 2. Have you understood the content of the announcement? 3. Finish? Not yet. 4. Clear?	Checking whether the slide is readable Questioning students about vocabulary Checking the answer with students Checking students' vocabulary Checking students' understanding Checking students' progress Observing and checking students' work Being required to evaluate all aspect of learning Checking students' work Observing and monitoring being able to evaluate students Checking students' attendance Noticing students' awareness to study Using observation and daily activities in evaluation Checking students' text comprehension Evaluating students in every meeting Asking students' difficulty	Checking students' learning progress
1. Not only cognitive (int 1) 2. And I also want the other value or attitudes. What I applay is for example to love the mothers, *obey* , respect the moms and I also explain about mothers. 3. Don't be naughty okay? (observation) 4. Irma? No? next time be careful when riding the bike (obs) 5. Not only English materials (int 2) 6. To give them examples (int 2)	Using materials for teaching attitudes Focusing on not only English teaching Focusing not only on national exam Focusing on non-cognitive aspect Using good examples from Western culture Providing good examples of behaviours in class Teaching students to love their moms Advising student to ride bicycle carefully Advising student not to be naughty Reminding students to write nicely Advising students to read novel Making students know their mothers' personality and physical traits	Focusing on non-cognitive aspects

1. However I make them enjoy 2. So they lean within comfortable athmosphere 3. In short, students feel comfortable. That's it.	Making students enjoy Making students like the activities Expecting students to learn within comfortable atmosphere Expecting students to enjoy learning Making students comfortable in learning	Making students love learning
1. But in this case they do not have to get that we give (int 1) 2. But then students are the ones being blamed, and that's not fair. 3. Yes. Good. (obs) 4. thank you very much (obs) 5. In fact, making mistake is normal because they are learning (int 2) 6. Then when others had no bravery to answer, the student was confident to answer (int 2) 7. Or sometimes money, 1000 rupiahs. (int 2)	Perceiving mistakes as normal part of learning Tolerating the result of students' learning Perceiving the act of blaming students unfair Giving rewards to those having confidence answering the question Giving rewards to those presenting in front of the class Giving students small amount of money Offering gifts for those answering correctly Praising students Expressing gratitude Perceiving the students also learn from mistakes	Showing appreciation to students
1. Yes, if it is not a big mistake, I try not to get angry 2. For my own self, so that I do not get sivk 3. Indeed there is no positive outcomes of getting angry. (int 2)	Trying not to get angry with students Avoiding anger for health reason Perceiving no advantages of getting angry Perceiving the disadvantages of anger for teacher's' own self	Avoiding anger in classrooms
1. T: Who is this? (obs) S: hahaha the goat 2. May be it's only a joke. Not yet. Then when I ask them to come in front they asked "when?" I then answered "next Eid Mubarak" (int 2)	Making jokes in answering students' answer Using funny phrases making a joke of the picture	Showing sense of humour
1. For grade 9 I know the names (int 2) 2. Because I often call them one by one (int 2) 3. Suhartati lives close to Ragil rigat? (obs) 4. *sick. Ok. We hope that he will get better soon*. (obs)	Knowing students' address Caring for students' recovery Knowing students' name well Memorizing students by times Calling students one by one	Knowing students well

The emerging themes from the coding

codes	categories	Themes
Explaining the grammar	Serving as a learning resource	Managing students' classroom learning
Explaining the materials		
Giving examples		
Training students to translate words		
Reminding students about previous materials		
Informing learning objectives		
Managing class activities	Directing students' learning	
Giving writing practices		
Giving reading practices		
Reminding students to learn	Monitoring students' learning progress	
Checking students' learning progress		
Using class discussion	Inviting students' active participations	Creating more active and independent learners
Providing chance for students to speak		
Sharing control with students	Reducing teachers' dominance	
Making students learn from friends		
Giving freedom within students' learning		
Assigning individual and group work	Enhancing students' independent learning	
Perceiving independent learning positively		
Using dictionary as learning sources		
Checking students' vocabulary mastery	Focusing on grammar and vocabulary	Preparing students to gain speaking skills
Focus on students' understanding of grammar		
Emphasizing students' correct pronunciation	Focusing on speaking ability	
Focus on communication ability		
Having unconfident learners	Dealing with shy and unmotivated students	Struggling with various teaching problems
Having low motivated learners		
Dealing with personal teaching problems	Having personal teaching problems	
Having negative perceptions about herself		
Dealing with exam and curriculum		
Having concerns on internet use		
Finding less support from parents	Lacking of teaching and learning support	
Having limited learning resources		
Following curriculum	Building teaching professionalism	Experiencing the dynamic of teaching career
Planning future teaching		
Making efforts for teaching improvement		
Reflecting on the teaching situations		
Having motivation to teach better		
Feeling positive about teaching practices		
Having positive teaching experiences	Having teaching success and failure	
Experiencing less successful teaching		
Using authentic learning resources	Making learning relevant to life	Creating positive learning experiences
Having interest to use tourism object for learning		
Bridging learning and life		
Focusing on non-cognitive aspects		
Making students love learning	Increasing students' fondness of learning	
Expecting students' enthusiasm in learning		
Avoiding anger in classrooms		
Showing sense of humour		
Knowing students well	Building good relationship with students	
Showing care and supports to student learning		
Showing appreciation to students		
Apologizing to students		

Appendix 7 Factor analysis result

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.057	19.073	19.073	7.057	19.073	19.073	3.723	10.062	10.062
2	3.269	8.835	27.908	3.269	8.835	27.908	2.603	7.035	17.098
3	2.108	5.698	33.606	2.108	5.698	33.606	2.494	6.741	23.839
4	1.787	4.831	38.437	1.787	4.831	38.437	2.400	6.487	30.326
5	1.662	4.492	42.929	1.662	4.492	42.929	2.242	6.059	36.385
6	1.517	4.100	47.029	1.517	4.100	47.029	1.972	5.329	41.713
7	1.479	3.997	51.026	1.479	3.997	51.026	1.765	4.769	46.483
8	1.337	3.613	54.638	1.337	3.613	54.638	1.761	4.759	51.242
9	1.259	3.403	58.041	1.259	3.403	58.041	1.665	4.499	55.741
10	1.155	3.121	61.162	1.155	3.121	61.162	1.461	3.949	59.690
11	1.136	3.070	64.232	1.136	3.070	64.232	1.421	3.841	63.531
12	1.030	2.783	67.015	1.030	2.783	67.015	1.289	3.484	67.015
13	.969	2.620	69.635						
14	.898	2.426	72.061						
15	.878	2.373	74.434						
16	.815	2.204	76.637						
17	.764	2.064	78.701						
18	.748	2.022	80.724						
19	.657	1.774	82.498						
20	.635	1.717	84.215						
21	.588	1.588	85.803						
22	.555	1.501	87.304						
23	.541	1.463	88.768						
24	.476	1.287	90.055						
25	.448	1.210	91.265						
26	.416	1.125	92.390						
27	.398	1.075	93.464						
28	.358	.966	94.431						
29	.321	.869	95.300						
30	.303	.819	96.119						
31	.287	.777	96.896						
32	.246	.665	97.560						
33	.226	.612	98.172						

34	.205	.554	98.726						
35	.185	.500	99.226						
36	.162	.437	99.663						
37	.125	.337	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Component Matrix[a]

	Component											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Q33	.692											
Q36	.661											
Q32	.646											
Q12	.622											
Q31	.620											
Q28	.604											
Q29	.592											
Q37	.583											
Q30	.577											
Q4	.572											
Q10	.562											
Q11	.539											
Q7	.539											
Q14	.524											
Q3	.443											
Q2	.414											
Q13	.410			-.410								
Q1	.409					.403						
Q35												
RQ20		.784										
RQ24		.673										
RQ8		.588										
RQ23		.550										
RQ9		.526							-.419			
RQ26		.456	-.439									
Q21		-.409										
Q17												
Q19			.528	.401								
Q25	.440		.467									
Q16			.427									
Q15				.698								
Q18				.510								
Q22			.425		-.474							
Q27	.419				-.432							.408
Q6												
Q5						.571						
RQ34												.466

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 12 components extracted.

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Q30	.743											
Q29	.710											
Q36	.626											
Q33	.567											
Q31	.545	.473										
Q4	.529											
Q37	.502											
Q28	.500											
Q2		.726										
Q3		.675										
Q1		.533										
Q12		.517	.414									
Q7		.458	.438									
Q14			.733									
Q11			.692									
Q13			.619									
Q25				.792								
Q19				.690							.405	
Q32				.593								
Q10				.441								
RQ23					.732							
RQ20					.720	.432						
RQ9					.637		-.454					
RQ8					.462	.427						
RQ24						.673						
Q21						-.672						
Q35						.449						
RQ26							-.766					
Q6							.583					
Q22								.684				
Q16								.574				
Q27		.404						.439				
Q15									.839			
Q17									.574			
Q5										.799		
Q18											.825	
RQ34												.781

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.[a]

a. Rotation converged in 48 iterations.

Appendix 8

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Interview Protocol 1

Project: Teachers' perceptions on learner autonomy development for classroom teaching and learning and outside classrooms' students learning in the local Indonesian environment.
Time of interview :
Date :
Place :
Interviewer :
Interviewee :

Descriptions of the study

This study aims at investigating teachers' perceptions of developing learner autonomy in learning English in Junior High Schools and their perceptions of using English texts available in the local environment to support students' learning and autonomy development. How the teachers' perceptions influence the actual teaching practices and what constraints and affordances EFL teachers find in developing learner autonomy and in using authentic English texts from the local environment will also be investigated.

Interview Stages:
1. Greet the participant and thank them for the time allocated for the interview
2. Give more detail about the purpose of the interview
3. The participant and their headmaster will already have signed a consent form.
4. Remind the participant that the interview will be recorded
5. Offer the language provided for the interview
6. Explain the procedure of the interview
7. Interview

Interview 1 (Before the observation)
Questions:

1. Tell me about the kinds of activities you use in a typical lesson.
   (Prompts: Why do you choose those activities? How effective do you find these activities for students' English learning?
2. In an ideal world, how would you like to teach?

   (*Prompts: What main roles do you like to play? Why? How would you best like your students to learn English? Why? What materials would you like to use? Why? What kind of assessments would you like to have for evaluating students' learning? Why? What kind of activities do you like to employ? Why?)*

3. The 2013 curriculum expects teachers to help the development of students' autonomy in their learning, tell me what this means to you.

   (*Prompts: What role do you think you will have within this requirement? How would you like to enhance this? What do you perceive as supports to develop students' autonomy? What problems do you perceive will be faced in doing this?)*

4. Tell me what it is like to be an English teacher in Magelang Regency.

   (Prompts: What do you like and dislike about being an English teacher in this area? What supports and limits your teaching? What do you think about using English users and authentic texts in the local tourist environment? What affordances and constraints do you perceive in using the local learning resources? How do you take advantage of the availability of this tourist area and the English exposure here?)

Interview conclusion

8. Inform the participant that the interview finish
9. Thank the participant for having the interview.

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Interview Protocol 2

Project: Teachers' perceptions on learner autonomy development for classroom teaching and learning and outside classrooms' students learning in the local Indonesian environment.

Time of interview :
Date :
Place :
Interviewer :
Interviewee :

Descriptions of the study

This study aims at investigating teachers' perceptions of developing learner autonomy in learning English in Junior High Schools and their perceptions of using English texts available in the local environment to support students' learning and autonomy development. How the teachers' perceptions influence the actual teaching practices and what constraints and affordances EFL teachers find in developing learner autonomy and in using authentic English texts from the local environment will also be investigated.

Interview Stages:

a. Greet the participant and thank them for the time allocated for the interview
b. Give more detail about purpose of the interview
c. Offer the language provided for the interview
d. Explain the procedure of the interview

Interview

Interview 2 (After the observation)

1. During the lesson I noticed that you used xxxxxx teaching approach. Can you tell me some more about why you taught in that way?
2. I am interested in the kinds of materials you used in this lesson. Can you tell me why you used xxxxxx materials?
3. I am also interested in the approaches you took in responding to students. Can you tell me a little more about your thinking when you responded to a student about xxxxxx?
4. Can you tell me a little more about your reasons for using xxxxx learning tasks?

(Other questions may emerge based on the observation in the classrooms).

e. Inform that the interview finishes
f. Thank participant for joining the interview.