



Language Learning from Its Policy Perspectives



Nihta Vera Frelly Liando

Nihta Vera Frelly Liando

Language Learning from Its Policy Perspectives

Language Learning from Its Policy Perspectives

A central part of this study concerns language policy. An ideal language policy is a policy that caters for the needs of society. In teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL), a good language policy considers the situation and condition of the classrooms, the needs of the learners, and the promised advantages after the learning process is complete. A well-planned language policy is very important to direct the process of teaching and learning. In policy implementation, difficulties and problems may be encountered. Therefore, the policy needs to be evaluated to determine the next steps and to deal with any weaknesses.

As regards the learning process, there is no direct influence of language policy on a student's way of learning and the outcomes. Teachers are the most dominant person in class. Students just rely on the teacher who teaches them. They just follow what the teacher tells them to do. In Indonesia, the dominance of a teacher is very pronounced. It is a bit different in the country like Australia where the role of teachers is not as dominant as in Indonesia because students are also given the opportunity to initiate talk in classrooms. As far as language learning is concerned, the teacher and students should share classroom power. This will give more chance for students to practice the target language if they are given more chance to speak and express their thoughts.

BINTANG
SEMESTA MEDIA

Jl. Karangasri, Gg. Nakula, Sleman, Yogyakarta 57775
Telepon: (0274) 4358369 WA: 0856 6934 2317
Email: redaksi@bintangpustaka@gmail.com
Website: bintangpustaka.com



Language Learning from Its Policy Perspectives



BINTANG
SEMESTA MEDIA

UNDANG-UNDANG REPUBLIK INDONESIA NOMOR 28 TAHUN 2014
TENTANG
HAK CIPTA
Lingkup Hak Cipta

Pasal 1 Ayat 1 :

1. Hak Cipta adalah hak eksklusif pencipta yang timbul secara otomatis berdasarkan prinsip deklaratif setelah suatu ciptaan diwujudkan dalam bentuk nyata tanpa mengurangi pembatasan sesuai dengan ketentuan peraturan perundang-undangan.

Ketentuan Pidana:

Pasal 113

1. Setiap Orang yang dengan tanpa hak melakukan pelanggaran hak ekonomi sebagaimana dimaksud dalam Pasal 9 ayat (1) huruf i untuk Penggunaan Secara Komersial dipidana dengan pidana penjara paling lama 1 (satu) tahun dan/atau pidana denda paling banyak Rp100.000.000 (seratus juta rupiah).
2. Setiap Orang yang dengan tanpa hak dan/atau tanpa izin Pencipta atau pemegang Hak Cipta melakukan pelanggaran hak ekonomi Pencipta sebagaimana dimaksud dalam Pasal 9 ayat (1) huruf c, huruf d, huruf f, dan/atau huruf h untuk Penggunaan Secara Komersial dipidana dengan pidana penjara paling lama 3 (tiga) tahun dan/atau pidana denda paling banyak Rp500.000.000,00 (lima ratus juta rupiah).
3. Setiap Orang yang dengan tanpa hak dan/atau tanpa izin Pencipta atau pemegang Hak Cipta melakukan pelanggaran hak ekonomi Pencipta sebagaimana dimaksud dalam Pasal 9 ayat (1) huruf a, huruf b, huruf e, dan/atau huruf g untuk Penggunaan Secara Komersial dipidana dengan pidana penjara paling lama 4 (empat) tahun dan/atau pidana denda paling banyak Rp1.000.000.000,00 (satu miliar rupiah).
4. Setiap Orang yang memenuhi unsur sebagaimana dimaksud pada ayat (3) yang dilakukan dalam bentuk pembajakan, dipidana dengan pidana penjara paling lama 10 (sepuluh) tahun dan/atau pidana denda paling banyak Rp4.000.000.000,00 (empat miliar rupiah).

Pasal 114

Setiap Orang yang mengelola tempat perdagangan dalam segala bentuknya yang dengan sengaja dan mengetahui membiarkan penjualan dan/atau pengandaan barang hasil pelanggaran Hak Cipta dan/atau Hak Terkait di tempat perdagangan yang dikelolanya sebagaimana dimaksud dalam Pasal 10, dipidana dengan pidana denda paling banyak Rp100.000.000,00 (seratus juta rupiah).

Nihta Vera Frelly Liando

Language Learning from Its Policy Perspectives

Diterbitkan Oleh



Language Learning from Its Policy Perspectives

Penulis : Nihta Vera Frelly Liando
Tata Letak : Riza Ardyanto
Desain Cover : Ridwan Nur M

Penerbit:

CV Bintang Semesta Media

Anggota IKAPI Nomor 147/DIY/2021

Jl. Karangsari, Gang Nakula, RT 005, RW 031,
Sendangtirto, Berbah, Sleman, Yogyakarta 57773

Telp: 4358369. Hp: 085865342317

Facebook: Penerbit Bintang Madani

Instagram: @bintangpustaka

Website: www.bintangpustaka.com

Email: bintangsemestamedia@gmail.com

redaksibintangpustaka@gmail.com

Cetakan Pertama, Januari 2023

Bintang Semesta Media Yogyakarta

x + 193 hal : 15.5 x 23 cm

ISBN : 978-623-190-013-5

Dicetak Oleh:

Percetakan Bintang 085865342319

Hak cipta dilindungi undang-undang

All right reserved

Isi di luar tanggung jawab percetakan

Dedicated to my beloved Mac, Gabriel, and Orion

Everything can be sacrificed for truth, but truth cannot be sacrificed for anything.

Swami Vivekananda

Preface

To begin with I would like to praise God, Lord Almighty who gave His blessing upon me to finish this book. The book entitled 'Language Learning from its Policy Perspectives' was intended to give a description of how languages are arranged in Indonesia. I am thankful for the cooperation of the teachers whom I interviewed and whose classes I observed in Indonesia, Thailand and Adelaide, SA. I would like to thank people in Thailand who were very kind and helpful to me while I was collecting my data. Those are Ajan Pajom, Prince of Songkhla University, Pattani, Ms Warapon Bangliang, Supervisory Unit ONPEC, Chulee Jepayom, Nakorn Pathom, who helped with the translation of the Thai EFL Policy. Angkana and Pradit from Khon Khaen University, Khon Khaen. I also thank the Indonesian Language Adviser, Linna Ruggiero who helped me with information on Indonesian teaching programs in South Australian schools.

My thanks also go to all my fellow colleagues at Universitas Negeri Manado for their support in the production of this book. At last, I am very indebted to my family who always gives me support and to always understand me.

Manado, October 2020

Nihta Vera Frelly Liando

List of Abbreviations

ASEAN	:	Association of South East Asian Nations
CBSA	:	Cara Belajar Siswa Aktif (Students' Active Learning Style)
CPH	:	Critical Period Hypothesis
CLT	:	Communicative Language Teaching
DETE	:	Department of Employment Training and Education
DEPDIKBUD	:	Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan) (Department of Education and Culture)
DIKDASMEN:		Pendidikan Dasar dan Mengengah (Basic and Secondary Education)
DIRJEN	:	Direktorat Jenderal (Directorate General)
EFL	:	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	:	English as a Second Language
esp.	:	especially
FKIP	:	Fakultas Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan (The Faculty of Teacher Training and Education)
FL	:	Foreign Language
FLT	:	Foreign Language Teaching
GBPP	:	Garis-garis Besar Program Pengajaran (General Guidelines of Teaching Program)

HIGs	:	High Input Generators
IKIP	:	Institut Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan (The Institute of Teacher Training and Education)
IPBI	:	Inspeksi Pengajaran Bahasa Inggris (Inspection of English Teaching)
IRF	:	Initiation Respond Feedback
L1	:	First Language
L2	:	Second Language
LAD	:	Language Acquisition Device
Lgs	:	Languages
LIGs	:	Low Input Generators
LMRC	:	Language and Multicultural Resource Centre
LOTE	:	Languages Other Than English
LP	:	Language Policy
ONPEC	:	Office of the National Primary Education Commission
PS	:	Primary School
SA	:	South Australia
SD	:	Sekolah Dasar (Primary School)
SMP	:	Sekolah Menengah Pertama (Junior High School)
TEFL	:	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TL	:	Target Language
TPR	:	Total Physical Response
Wk	:	Week

Table of Contents

Preface	vi
List of Abbreviations.....	vii
Table of Contents.....	viii
Chapter 1	
Introduction	1
Chapter 2	
Language Policy and Its Implementations.....	7
Chapter 3	
Methodology.....	37
Chapter 4	
Survey of Language Policies.....	51
Chapter 5	
Organisational Matters and Teaching Approach	107
Chapter 6	
Implications of The Study.....	153
Chapter 7	
Conclusions and Recommendations	167
Bibliography	176
Profile.....	193

Chapter 1

Introduction

Language learning has become a perennial issue in the field of education because there are many variables involved. They include the learners, the teachers, the methods and techniques, the policies as well as the language itself. Language learning also relates to many aspects of social and cultural life.

Foreign language learning especially has become a central issue all over the world since people have realised it is important for international relationships. Many efforts have been made to improve the effectiveness of specific programs. Foreign language programs have been the focus of attention in the business of finding out the best way to run and also the best time to begin appropriate programs.

Regarding foreign language programs, few studies have been done in the area of teaching English in Indonesian primary education. Murni (1993) and Cobbe and Musa (1992) deal with primary education but with little attention to English language programs. Murni (1993) has looked especially at the use of whole language method in developing the second language reading skills of primary school pupils. While Cobbe and Musa (1992) reported the upgrading program for primary school teachers to Diploma Dua (D2).

Reports and studies on Indonesian language policy have been done by Alisyahbana (1976), Dardjowidjojo (1998), Heryanto (1954) and Slametmuljana (1965) as well as by experts in language planning around the world such as Rubin (1977) and Baldauf and Luke (1990). However, none of these previous studies have looked specifically at the relationships between language policy and the implementation of teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) in primary schools. Therefore I have decided to do a study which focuses on foreign language learning in primary schools and the implications of language policy for practice.

Foreign language teaching has developed as a prominent issue as awareness of the importance of learning a foreign language has grown in a globalised era. There are many foreign language programs all over the world, including Asian countries where English is the most popular second or foreign language taught in schools.

English as an international language is becoming increasingly important, especially for non-English speaking countries. As an international language, it functions to establish relationships among the countries in the world. Consequently, ASEAN countries, including Indonesia and Thailand, have chosen English to be taught in formal education. It is seen as necessary to provide tertiary students with a knowledge of English in order that they are able to read textbooks which are mostly written in English. Furthermore, it is also useful for them in their future professions because proficiency in spoken and written English is one of the requirements to get a professional job nowadays.

In the Indonesian school system, the English language curriculum has changed three times since 1975. The main reason for these changes is the continuing unsatisfactory results in students' English proficiency. The curriculum that applied from 1975-1984 was based on the traditional method where the focus of teaching and learning

English was mainly on grammar. In 1984 the curriculum changed to a communicative approach which focused on communicative skills. The current curriculum (Depdikbud 1994) in Indonesia focuses on an approach to meaning in specific contexts. In this approach meaning is the central focus of learning, not the grammar or structures.

However, based on my own experience both when I was a student as well as my position as an English teacher, changing the curriculum has not significantly improved the outcomes, which remain more or less the same as was exposed in the Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran -MGMP- Bahasa Inggris (English Teachers Meeting) in Manado in 1995. This suggests that it is not only the curriculum which needs to be addressed, but also the problem of how to make English more comprehensible to secondary students and how to improve their level of proficiency. One option is to consider the implementation of TEFL from an early level of education, that is in primary school, in order to attain better results in students' English proficiency in higher levels of education. This would give students longer opportunities to learn. Therefore, TEFL in primary school should be seen as one innovative way of improving TEFL in general.

An appropriate foreign language policy is essential to develop EFL program because language policy, especially policy for foreign languages, governs how those foreign languages are treated and taught in formal education. A policy would include such aspects as the goals, curriculum, methods, techniques and materials.

Since the aim of writing this book is to influence Indonesian language policy and planning, the research is conducted partly in Indonesia and the implications made mostly refer to the Indonesian education system. However comparative research is also conducted in Thailand and Australia.

The writer considers Thailand the most suitable ASEAN country for this comparative study for two reasons. Firstly, Thailand has been

running TEFL programs in primary schools for several years. Secondly, in terms of the status of English, both Thailand and Indonesia consider English as a *foreign language* whereas other ASEAN countries such as Malaysia, Singapore and the Philippines consider English as a *second language*, a legacy of British colonialization in those latter countries.

Historically, neither Indonesia nor Thailand had strong relationships with European countries where English is spoken. Thailand, for example has been conquered by the Vietnamese, Cambodians, and Burmese, while Indonesia has been colonised by the Dutch and Japanese. Thus, English has been chosen as the foreign language to be taught in formal education for communicative and academic reasons as well as economic reason rather than for historical reasons.

To balance the discussion of TEFL, as far as foreign language learning is concerned, part of the research was conducted in South Australia. The aim is to look at the foreign language policy and how languages other than English (LOTE) are taught in primary schools. Regarding LOTE programs, I deliberately chose Indonesian because it is the official language of my native country.

This book covers teaching English as a foreign language in non-English speaking countries as well as languages other than English in English-speaking countries. Regarding teaching English as a foreign language, the research is conducted in Indonesia and Thailand. In Indonesia the research is limited to the provincial city of North Sulawesi, called Manado, while in Thailand the research is in Pattani, South of Thailand, Bangkok and Khon Kaen, in the northeast of Thailand. Within each city, research is conducted in several classrooms in one or more primary schools. In Australia, the research focuses on the teaching of Indonesian in South Australian primary schools, the classroom data being taken from one of the public schools located in the southern area of Adelaide.

The issue of linguistic imperialism is an important aspect of language policy, especially for foreign languages (Tollefson 1991, Fairclough 1992, Lim 1995). Mühlhäusler (1994) defines linguistic imperialism as “the expansion of a small number of privileged languages at the cost of a large number of others” (p.121) He then continues that “the language teaching profession is a potential instrument of linguistic imperialism” (p.121). Despite its relevance this issue is not addressed here.



Chapter 2

Language Policy and Its Implementations

In this chapter, I will review the literature on language policy and its effects on the implementation of teaching English as a foreign language in primary school. The first section reviews language planning and its importance in determining how languages should be treated. The second section reviews studies of children learning foreign languages. In this section, I will begin by clarifying the status of English as a foreign language, and then move on to discuss how children learn a language, what they learn and which age is best to learn. This will lead to the discussion in the following section about learning a foreign language in the primary education classroom context. Finally, I will consider the optimal language policy, and its implementation.

Despite the fact that foreign language programs in primary school have been operating for some time in many countries, especially in developed countries such as the United States, Canada, and Australia, many developing countries are still struggling with the implementation of such programs and still debating whether or not it is necessary to begin teaching a foreign language in primary school (Carroll 1975, Brown 1994, Kandiah and Kwan-Terry 1994, Lewis and Massad 1975). With respect to language in developing nations,

Bo Yin (1990:335) argues that “language is an essential element in social communication and nation building”. Therefore nations need to provide positive environments for language development.

Both Indonesia and Thailand regard English as a foreign language. Since the terms ‘second’ and ‘foreign’ are often misunderstood, it is important to give an explanation of them. Littlewood (1984) defines the difference between second and foreign languages as follow:

Second language indicates the language that has communicative function inside the community where the learners live; while *foreign language* indicates the language that has no established function inside the learners’ community but will be used mainly for communicating with outsiders (p.54).

In Indonesia and Thailand, English is not the language spoken in the community. Rather, it is used mainly for communicating with foreigners, especially those from English speaking countries. Moreover, most of the textbooks in science and technology used in Indonesian universities are written in English. Ferguson (1966) recognised over thirty years ago that English was one of the major “languages of wider communication” that plays an increasingly vital role in higher education, especially in science and technology (cited in Lewis and Massad 1975:18). This is supported more recently by Kaplan in Baldauf (1990:7) who states that English is the world language of science and technology.

However, this role of English, to a certain extent, has problematic implications for the culture of a nation. This applies especially to the young generation, who are most easily affected by a western lifestyle that may be inappropriate for the culture and the way of life in non-European nations. Nevertheless, the use of English is rapidly increasing both in Thailand and Indonesia, as well as in other developing countries. People are becoming increasingly aware of the need to be able to speak English for specific purposes. As a result, English is chosen to be taught in formal education. In Indonesia and

Thailand, it is the first foreign language taught in formal education.

Moreover, in this era of globalized economic and information systems, developing countries like Indonesia and Thailand see it as important to give more attention to languages other than the national language especially because of the incredible increasing use of the Internet. This is fundamental to building relationships with other countries so that they can exchange economic and cultural information. Throughout the developing world, English has become the essential language for global communication such as the Internet.

A. Ideas on Language Planning

Language planning is a relatively new discipline which has developed rapidly during the last 20 years (Kaplan and Baldauf 1997). It is “a body of ideas, laws and regulations (language policy), change rules, beliefs, and practices intended to achieve a planned change (or to stop change from happening) in the language use in one or more communities” (Kaplan and Baldauf 1997:3). Language planning itself covers a range of orientations such as language purification, language reform, language spread, language revival, language standardisation, lexical modernisation, stylistic simplification, language maintenance, terminological unification, interlingual communication and auxiliary code standardisation (Kaplan and Baldauf 1997). Language planning is important both to preserve existing languages and to guide the development of additional languages needed in a nation.

As stated previously, language planning covers a range of orientations. The activities which include the selection of languages, where and how languages are to be taught, and how they are to be standardised are part of the process of language-in-education. Language-in-education is part of human resource development planning (Kaplan and Baldauf 1997), specifically in language teaching and learning processes. In language-in-education planning, there are

six primary objectives¹: 1) identifying a target population, 2) teacher supply, 3) the syllabus, 4) methods and materials, 5) definition of available resources to support a language education program, 6) assessment - the measurement of students' success at stipulated programme intervals - and evaluation - the measurement of the relative success of the entire programme.

As the discipline of language planning is developing rapidly, key terms are used by various writers. Thus, a *language policy* functions to regulate the position, use, or preservation of a nation's language or languages (including indigenous languages); a *foreign language policy* relates to the specific regulations or measures regarding the position and use of foreign languages in the country; a *foreign language teaching policy* is specifically concerned with the teaching and learning of foreign languages (van Els 1994:36).

Most language policy is a top-down product, meaning that it comes from the government. Although contributions are made by a number of experts before a language policy is launched, sometimes the policy does not really meet the needs of the society. Why? Because sufficient survey and observation has not been done to enable the making of policy (see Figure 7.1).

In multilingual nations such as Indonesia, it is the central government which designs and conducts language planning in relation to national language, native languages, and foreign languages. That is why having a national language is essential to make it possible for people from different ethnics to communicate each other. On the other hand, foreign languages are also necessary for international relationships. Therefore, language planning needs to be formulated and articulated because a national language policy gives guidelines as to what can and cannot be done with respect to the existing languages in the country. While a language policy should give foreign languages

1 Details in Kaplan and Baldauf (1997), pp. 113-117

opportunity to grow, maintaining the national language and native languages remains important.

Kaplan, in Baldauf (1990), suggests that “within the language policy, it is assumed that certain languages will be used for certain purposes” (p.9). The close relationship between the use of a language and political power, socioeconomic development, national and local identity and cultural values has led to the increasing realisation of the importance of language policies in the planning of a nation (Kennedy 1983:ix). Therefore, a language policy is essential to give direction to language development in general and to the implementation of language learning programs in particular, including foreign language programs.

Since this thesis is about language policy and the implications in foreign language teaching in primary schools, it is important to note that language policy is best to be a bottom-up process. This will be discussed in more detail in chapter 4. The bottom-up process means that the formulation of policy must consider the real needs of society. Although the reasons people for acquiring languages other than their mother tongue vary, such as for access to higher levels of education, government service, political participation, and employment, language policy should be able to accommodate this. Thus, in implementing such program in primary schools, the considerations should first cover the target population, teacher supply, syllabus, methods and material. After the policy has been implemented, it is very important to conduct evaluation in order to get feedback to improve the policy decisions (Kaplan and Baldauf 1997:37,92,135).

Besides language policy, learning other languages than the mother tongue in early education is also the central of this topic. It will be discussed in the next section. The discussion will include arguments from different point of views.

B. Learning Language Other Than The Mother Tongue

The issue of how children learn a language or languages other than their mother tongue has been debated by many writers over the last decades (Finocchiaro 1964, Freudenstein 1979, Stern 1963, Littlewood 1984, Clyne 1986, Singleton 1989). Although there has been much research done, there are differences of opinion and still a great deal remains to be understood.

To look at this issue in more detail, whether there is any particular stage a language is better learnt, I will discuss in the following sub sections the learning of language other than mother tongue which will refer to as age-related issues followed by discussing more specific the issue of learning a foreign language at an early age. Psycholinguistic, socio-linguistic and pedagogic arguments are also addressed in this section.

1. Age-related Issues

When is it best to begin to learn a foreign language? The answer to this question is not straightforward since there are so many factors involved. Two contradictory opinions exist. The history of language learning shows that there has been a change of emphasis as to when language learning is first introduced. In the 1950s and 1960s the introduction to foreign language learning was at an early age, then it transferred to adults or adolescents with little concern for primary level in the seventies, and after that, from the late 1980s till now, it is back to the early age language learning (Brumfit et al 1995). Some say that it is best to start to learn a language other than the mother tongue at an early age (Penfield and Roberts 1959, Finocchiaro 1964, Lenneberg 1967, Harley 1986, Singleton 1989, Halliwell 1992); others say that adolescents and adults have better achievement at learning languages (Olson and Samuel 1973, Neufeld and Schneiderman 1980, Genesee 1981, McLaughlin 1981, Krashen, Scarcella and

Long 1982, Tough 1995) and therefore it is more effective to start learning a language at a later age.

Some studies (*ibid.* 20-21) in this area as mentioned previously have identified the strengths of learning foreign languages in adulthood such as McLaughlin (1981:29) who suggests that “adults are more skilled at planning, monitoring, and integrating speech into the real-time flow of information; they also have a more elaborate conceptual repertoire and more extensive previous learning than children”. This statement is supported by key writers in the psychology of second language learning, such as Bialystok and Hakuta (1994:80), who suggest that older learners and adults make more rapid progress than younger learners.

To support this contention, McLaughlin (1981) also cites Fathman and Precup’s claim that more speech planning occurs in adult learners of English compared to children (adult learners of English monitor their speech more by comparison with children). Krashen, Long, and Scarcela (1982) argue that “adult learners perform better on measures of morphology and syntax than children”. All of these studies suggest that adult learners show better performance in learning foreign languages when they are exposed to grammar and lots of exercises while children do not. My experience in learning English is similar to this case. I first learnt English at a later age and at that time learning English means learning all the structures and doing many exercises. And it works for me, in some extent, because I can understand when people talk to me in English and I am now able to write academic papers in English.

Another advantage adult learners have is a set of formed cognitive skills and strategies that should make the foreign language learning task easier (Crystal 1997). Those skills, such as the ability to memorise, imitate, and use dictionaries, as well

as the ability to read and to write, give much support to adults in learning foreign language.

Those who support learning foreign languages at an early age such as Stern 1963, Finocchiaro (1964), Littlewood 1984 and Clyne 1986 believe that children appear to have greater advantages in language learning than adults. Stern (1963:26) argues that they have a capacity for the acquisition of new speech mechanisms which the adult no longer possesses to the same extent. Hence, children are more successful in learning foreign language than adolescents or adults.

Another reason why it is important to start a foreign language program early is that the earlier the start, the more can be absorbed (Clyne 1986:13). This means that the period of language learning program will be longer. The longer the sequence of study the more likely learners are to develop reasonable facility in language skills (Finocchiaro 1964:4). Some research has shown that teaching foreign language earlier gives better results than later. For example, testing in America in 1987 showed that students learning a foreign language before grade 4 did significantly better in language skills and culture than those who started at grade 7 or later (Brown 1994:165).

Regarding teaching English in primary school, Halliwell (1992) states that “very young children are able to understand what is being said to them even before they understand the individual words”. At this age, children have “both conscious direct learning and subconscious indirect learning, or ‘acquisition’ which help them internalise a new language” (Halliwell 1992). These findings suggest that teaching a foreign language in the early stages enables students to achieve greater proficiency.

Singleton (1989) expresses a number of reasons for teaching English as a foreign language at primary level. He does not rely

solely on the claim that this is the best time to learn language but rather addresses the broad and long term impact on the nation. His reasons are as follows:

- a. the need to expose children from an early age to an understanding of foreign culture so that they grow up tolerant and sympathetic to others. This reason, I believe, is shared by both Indonesia and Thailand, who wish to build relationships with other countries in the world with whom English is the only tool of communication, in its capacity as an international language;
- b. the need to link communication to the understanding of new concepts. Both Indonesia and Thailand are struggling very hard to develop their respective nations. English is needed to learn new scientific and technological concepts and other knowledge;
- c. the need for maximum time available for the learning of important languages - the earlier you start the more time you get;
- d. the advantages of starting with early second or foreign language instruction so that later the language can be used as a medium of teaching; this is suitable for the recent long term plan announced by the Indonesian government to use English as a medium of instruction in formal education for certain subjects.

To summarise, learning language at an early age according to Brumfit (1995), is better in the sense that brain is more adaptable before puberty than after, that children have fewer negative attitudes to foreign languages and cultures than adults (will be discussed in more detail in the next subsection of psycholinguistic arguments), that children's language learning is more closely integrated with real communication and that children devote vast quantity of time to learning compared with adults.

Although the debates between these two contradictory opinions are still on-going, in this discussion, I am not going to argue that younger learners are better at learning languages than adults. On the other hand, although there is much research which shows the advantages of the older learner in terms of achieving higher levels of proficiency in most aspects of a second language than younger learners (*ibid* pp.20-21) I will discuss the advantages of learning a language (in this case, a foreign language) at an early age since the central of this thesis is about language policy of foreign language teaching in early education. It is also based on the assumption that the longer students learn, the more exposure they will get, the better the performance they will achieve (Carroll 1975, Genesee 1978).

The discussion in the following subsection will employ the argument in psycholinguistics which can guide us to understand more about learning second or foreign language in regards to our inner capacity as human beings as well as the function of our brain where the learning itself takes place.

2. Psycholinguistic Arguments

In regards to psycholinguistic discussion, it is worthwhile to discuss the brain and its development. The brain is where learning takes place and the mind is where mental categories are related to linguistic categories; these are essential aspects of language learning beside the personal and cultural aspects (Bialystok and Hakuta 1994). Many experts agree that children's brains are designed to learn a language in a way that adult learners can no longer replicate, as noted in Bialystok and Hakuta (1994:52).

The critical period hypothesis (CPH) by Penfield and Roberts (1959) suggested that there is a critical period in language learning that terminates around 9 to 12 years of age, or at puberty. Penfield and Roberts express this as follows: "The time to begin what

might be called a general schooling in secondary languages, in accordance with the demands of brain physiology, is between the ages of 4 and 10" (1959:255). They argue that this CPH corresponds with a period of neutral plasticity where different areas of the brain are able to assume a variety of functions, including language. Lenneberg (1967) developed this CPH further. He believed that the critical period of language learning extends from 2 years of age until puberty. It means that the cognitive processes reach a state of "language-readiness" around the age of two and that this state declines in the "early teens". Thus, the CPH proposed by Penfield and Roberts emphasises general neurological plasticity while Lenneberg's emphasises hemispheric specialisation of functions. These studies suggest that learning languages especially foreign language is best performed at an early age when the brain is still flexible.

Many linguists such as Chomsky and Littlewood have argued that children are born with the so-called Language Acquisition Device (LAD). Therefore they can acquire foreign languages in the same manner as native speakers until puberty when the LAD becomes less effective (Littlewood 1984:67). Having seen that there is a range of factors associated with the developing brain, there are also societal or external factors to consider, which have an indirect rather than a direct effect on second language learning (Ellis 1994:24).

A few studies show that second language learning takes first language acquisition as its starting point (Bialystok and Hakuta 1994). Thus, learners use their linguistic experience in acquiring the first language to learn a second language. It is therefore easier to learn a second language which is not very much different to the first one. According to Bialystok and Hakuta, one can learn a second language that is similar to one's native language more

quickly than one that is very different (1994:85-86). Being able to speak like native speakers is one of the reasons why children are called gifted learners, as supported by Finocchiaro (1964), who states that childhood is the ideal period to acquire a language. This is based on reasons such as that their speech organs are still flexible, and there is a lack of inhibition which is typical for older learners and a willingness to communicate with their interlocutors without feeling under pressure. Stern (1963:11) offers similar arguments to the ones suggested by Finocchiaro i.e. that young children possess not only special powers of imitation, but also greater flexibility, spontaneity and fewer inhibitions than adolescents or adults. He goes further than Finocchiaro to emphasise that particular attention should be given to social and emotional factors in children's attitude towards contact with language, culture and people (p.25). A more extreme argument comes from Bialystok and Hakuta (1994) who state that no matter at what age before puberty or how quickly children learn a language, they can end up as fluent as native speakers. As well, at an early age, mental experiences which are obtained through the senses such as via pictures, sounds, movements, and textures, play an important role in sensorimotor schemes (Jean Piaget 1937 cited in Bialystok and Hakuta 1994). Therefore we need to focus on all psychological factors that can influence children's learning of a foreign language if we want to have better achievement.

When young children learn a second or foreign language, it is apparent that there are individual differences as well as other problems (Fillmore 1979). However, as stated by Seliger (1988:19) "it has been observed that children, for the most part, are at least capable of acquiring another language completely when given adequate exposure and motivation". Motivation is a central factor in order to successfully learn any foreign language (Crystal 1997). With a strong motivation, learners of foreign

language can gain better achievement. Brown defines motivation as “commonly thought of as an inner drive, impulse, emotion, or desire that moves on to a particular action” (1987:114). Gardner (1985:129) also argues “motivation is a major determinant of second language acquisition. He then continues the source of the motivating impetus is relatively unimportant provided that motivation is aroused”. There are three levels of motivation as defined by Brown (1987:115-7):

- a. *Instrumental motivation* refers to motivation to acquire a language as a means for attaining instrumental goals such as furthering a career, reading technical material, translation, etc.
- b. *Integrative motivation* is employed when learners wish to integrate themselves within the culture of the second (target) language group, to identify themselves with and become a part of that society.
- c. *Assimilative motivation* is the desire to become an indistinguishable member of a speech community, and it usually requires prolonged contact with the second (target) language culture (added by Graham 1981 cited in Brown 1987).

Motivation may vary from each learners depending on what they want to achieve. For young learners, learning foreign language in school can be motivated instrumentally or integratively. When they grow up, if demanded by the situation, assimilative motivation may apply.

Attitude towards foreign language is also important in the successful language learning. As Halliwell (1992) said that attitudes such as confidence and risk-taking have a central role in language learning not only to motivate the children to accept the content but more than that. It is clear that attitude is likely to influence foreign language achievement.

Regarding this psycholinguistic argument, a number of terms describing the level of competence in the target language that the second language learner develops have been put forward by psycholinguists. The levels of competence learners may develop are classified into 'transitional competence' that expresses the idea that the second language knowledge system being developed by the learner is a dynamic one in a state of flux, constantly changing as new knowledge of the second language is added (Corder 1967), 'approximative systems' that captures the characteristic incompleteness of the learner's second language (Nemser 1971) and 'interlanguage' which refers to a unique grammar that does not belong to either the source language or the target language and that contains rules found only in systems resulting from second language learning (Selinker 1972). This is important to note as far as language learners development is concerned.

From the discussion of the psycholinguistic point of view, it is clear that learning language other than one's mother tongue is better conducted at an early age in order to acquire better achievement in language proficiency as well as given longer opportunity to learn the language. This idea is of relevancy to the topic of this study which is foreign language programs in primary education.

Having discussed the psycholinguistic arguments as internal factors that influence foreign language at an early age, the next subsection will deal with the external factors which are embedded in the sociolinguistics arguments subsection under the heading sociolinguistic argument.

3. Sociolinguistic Arguments

Cultural factors that influence language teaching need to be considered with regard to learning languages at an early age, as they vary from country to country. However, as far as foreign

language learning in primary education is concerned, there are some characteristics shared by young learner as defined by Brumfit (1995) that young learners tend to be enthusiastic and with fewer inhibitions compared to older learners and because they are just beginning the schooling, the learning can be linked to their initial development of ideas and concepts by performing more physical activities to stimulate their thinking. At this stage, teachers have a major opportunity to mould their expectations of life in school (see Brumfit 1995). From a sociolinguistic point of view, young learners are very open in learning something new and ready to respond to their environment which also influence this process of learning.

Many studies show that learning in early childhood results in better performance in the language, especially in pronunciation. This is because children are not inhibited and keep on trying no matter how many mistakes they make. For example, Singleton (1989:109) pointed out that “as far as pronunciation was concerned, the younger children aged 6-10 years old were given significantly higher ratings than the older group aged 11-15, ...”. This is supported by another somewhat controversial result reported by an educational writer Noel Epstein (1977) in Bialystok and Hakuta claiming that children can learn English in a dazzling record six weeks (1994:51). This drove Bialystok and Hakuta to state that “children do, indeed, appear to be gifted language learners” (1994:51). However, even if this result seems somewhat unlikely, it is true that many results of research in this area show how amazing children are in learning a language compared to adults. A real example from my own experience is my only son. He was eight years old when he came to join me in Australia where I study. He knew no English. After several weeks staying with me, he could speak English a little and gradually his English is improving as he goes to primary school and has regular and close

interaction with his classmates. In fact, a conducive environment influences and supports learners to learn new language, as noted by Ellis (1994:12) in relation to naturalistic second language acquisition. Language is learnt through communication that takes place in naturally occurring social situations. Having no other choice except to speak the language of his friends, my son is able to build a relationship with his friends. Learning English also helps him in coping with many new situations he has come across since he arrived in Adelaide.

The external factors of learners does effect the language learning process especially if the environment provides a positive contribution. It means that the process of learning can be continued out of class setting because the language being learned is used in the society. However, in the case of English in Indonesia and Thailand and Indonesian in Australia where the target languages are not spoken in the community, such a contribution cannot be expected. This will be discussed in the next section.

4. Pedagogic Arguments

Studies done in early language learning by experts such as Krashen (1981) Clyne (1986), and Ellis (1994) recognise two different contexts of learning language other than the mother tongue, i.e. situational and instructional learning. Ellis (1994:12) using slightly different terminology differentiates two distinct ways in which language is learnt: *naturalistic* and *instructed* language acquisition. *Naturalistic acquisition* refers to language that is learnt through communication that takes place in naturally occurring social situations, while *instructed* refers to learning via study with guidance from reference books or classroom instruction. In addition, other factors influence the acquisition of a second language. These factors can be categorised into external and internal factors which affect both naturalistic and

instructed language acquisition. The external factors relate to the environment in which learning takes place, such as social and cultural aspects, while internal factors are inside the learners, such as attitude and motivation, which can only be observed from learners' outcomes (Ellis 1994). This issue has been addressed earlier in this chapter. It is important to be aware of these factors in order to achieve successful language learning. For example, Stern emphasises that particular attention should be given to social and emotional factors in children's attitudes towards contact with certain languages (1963:13).

Since this study is about classroom practices, let us focus more on the instructed language acquisition of the classroom rather than the naturalistic language acquisition. There are many opinions as to what is best in classroom interaction. The current emphasis is on learning 'naturally' in a communicative classroom setting where the learners are given sufficient opportunities to participate in discourse directed at the exchange of information (Krashen, Swain, Prabhu in Ellis 1994). Krashen claims that the communicative classroom may not be entirely successful but the immersion classroom has succeeded in developing very high levels of second language proficiency (cited in Ellis 1994).

A range of methods have been promoted for language learning such as traditional grammar translation method, audiolingual method, suggestopedia, immersion, total physical response (TPR). All these methods aim to help language learning process. For at least two decades, communicative language teaching (CLT) has been promoted for foreign and second language teaching (Wilkins 1976, Widdowson 1978, Littlewood 1981). However, none of these methods seems to have successfully fulfilled the expectations since people always keep trying to invent new methods to help language learning program (Krashen 1981) This implies that no

single existing method only can be employed for a successful language program but a combination of several methods is required according to the goals of teaching. Other factors such as class size, time allocation, which will be addressed in chapter 5, also need to be taken into account. In primary school foreign language teaching, various of activities should be employed to attract children's attention. For example, Baldauf and Rainbow explain, "songs can be of particular value to the language teacher since they are ready-made sources of interest with enormous influence, particularly to the young. Songs help to immerse the student in the language, reinforce vocabulary, idioms and grammar, as well as introducing aspects of culture" (1992:85). Therefore, it is reasonable and acceptable that an excellent way to teach children a new language is through playing games, using pictures and songs, as they are readily absorbed as well as being sources of motivation. However, it is important to note as well that besides appropriate methods and techniques, effective teachers can help learners to progress rapidly at any level of schooling. This is explained further in the next section.

From the previous discussion, it is clear that the value of teaching a foreign language in the early stages of education has raised controversy among the experts in applied linguistics. However, as mentioned earlier, there are strong psycholinguistics and sociolinguistic arguments for teaching foreign languages to young children prior to puberty which is important to be taken into account if we deal with foreign language learning program at an early age. This consideration will help classroom practice to work well.

Having discussed the arguments in connection with the early age of foreign language learning, it is important to look at the implications of language policy for classroom practice now.

C. Implications of Language Policy For Classroom Practice

Whether foreign language learning begins early or late, its success depends on designing an appropriate teaching program. Setting up a foreign language program is not a simple task. There are many factors which need to be taken into account in order to run such a program. A well-arranged plan, including clearly defined goals, curriculum, syllabus and materials, has to be determined. Such a plan, according to Rubin and Jernudd (1971), involves “future oriented, problem solving language change strategies that have been developed to meet particular language needs”. It means that to get better results in the future, a plan needs to be prepared according to the national and societal needs, including the needs of learners.

In regards to defining policy for foreign language learning, there have been major breakthroughs from time to time resulting in significant improvements in the teaching of English, particularly in primary education as explained later in this paragraph. Many early age language teaching experiments have been conducted over the last three decades². In Thailand, for instance, the recent education reform in 1996 has changed the TEFL in primary school from year five to begin in year one. In Indonesia, the progress can be seen as the ‘green light’ from the government to allow teaching English in primary school although not as compulsory subject. However, it should be noted that the practice of teaching English in primary schools is not something we can just take for granted, but it should be well-planned and organised before it is implemented in the classroom. In the case of teaching English as a foreign language, even more complex issues are involved, namely the school environments, the wider community and the nation in general.

2 Experiment in different countries such as USA, France, Federal Republic of Germany, England, Argentina as in Stern, H.H. (1963)

Having clear goal is essential but not sufficient, as in practice there are many factors which appear to obstruct the on-going process. This means that even though the goals of learning have been prescribed in the policy they must be supplemented with instructions of how to attain such goals or the material of teaching which is used to achieve the goals. Goals of policy influence the classroom practices, for example if communication is the goal, the practices in classroom will employ activities which encourage the communication skills as do the materials and the teaching methods. Therefore, all influential factors should be well considered when designing a foreign language policy as this will impact on the practices.

There is a strong need for a language policy that addresses the teaching of foreign language(s) in formal education contexts and it still plays an important role in planning decisions. It includes the determination of which language(s) should be taught to meet the needs of the society, defining teacher supply, determining what segment of the student population will be exposed to language education, determining what methodology will be employed, defining the assessment process and determining the support of this activity fiscally and physically (Kaplan and Baldauf 1997). Again, an education agency whose role is that of a 'bridge' between language policy and schools, has implications to language policy and therefore to classroom practices.

On a larger scale, language planning decisions relate to the position of languages within a society or a nation in general (Kaplan and Baldauf 1997, Tollefson 1991) whether it is national, local or foreign languages. As far as language learning is concerned, at the microlevel, language planning decisions also inform the classroom practice. In foreign language programs, policy is needed to arrange the organisational matters as well as the teaching approach. It includes the guidance in the selection of content, methods in teaching process and evaluation.

Regarding the implementation of teaching English as a foreign language in primary school, besides the goals of teaching, there are several factors which need to be considered namely curriculum, personnel (teacher), learners, methods and materials, assessment and evaluation. Thus, language policy has implications in classroom practice. Policy impact on these factors will be examined in the next section.

Curriculum

After governmental agencies in the education sector have selected and determined certain language(s) to be taught in formal education, which is defined in the language policy, the next step is to

“determine when in the curriculum the onset of instruction will occur and what the duration of instruction will be and also to determine what sort of proficiency is deemed to meet the needs of the society by the end of whatever instruction can be provided” (Kaplan and Baldauf 1997).

This step is very important in order to gain a clear understanding of what to do. Deciding what goal to be attained at the end of the teaching and learning process is a necessity, although it sometimes happens that the prescribed goals cannot be realised. Therefore language policy has direct implications to curriculum because to evaluate a curriculum, one always has to refer to the policy.

In regard to TEFL in primary school, if the policy states that this programme is based on certain reasons and the implementation is to achieve the determined goals, then the curriculum should take into account these points.

White (1988) states, “curriculum studies have very definitely taken their place among the concerns of language teaching” although it sometimes happens that curriculum is designed without taking into account its actual practice. This may lead to an inability to apply it in classroom practice where the day to day teaching and learning

process takes place. This actual process involves both teacher and learners. This will be discussed next.

Personnel

No matter how good and well prepared the curriculum and materials and no matter how effective the methodology and teaching techniques, without the personnel, it is of little consequence. Teachers, especially in a foreign language learning classroom, play an important role. Macaro (1997) focuses on two aspects of teachers; first, the teacher as a foreigner (speaker of the target language) unable to speak the native language (L1) of the learners, second the teacher as a mediator or facilitator. Although there is no evidence to suggest that native speakers or teachers speaking the target language (TL) make better teachers, Atkinson (1993) states, there is some evidence to suggest that the lesser use of L2 may actually have advantages for students, particularly in the early stages of learning. Teachers are taking on the role of mediator and facilitator when they use oral and written materials in order to develop receptive skills by exposing learners to the target language (Macaro 1997:60). Therefore, as far as foreign language teaching is concerned, teachers' proficiency in the target language is important. This is based on the fact that more than a half of classroom talk is conducted by teachers. Teachers using target language will increase students' proficiency in the foreign language being learnt. The issue of classroom interaction will be discussed more deeply in chapter 5.

When teaching language other than the mother tongue, teachers encounter various problems. The problems can be internal or external. The internal problems include teacher's lack of confidence in speaking target language and unstable state of emotion; external problems include teachers having problem with colleagues and family matters. However, to classify whether such problem is internal or external relatively depends on the individual. For some extent, it could be

internal for someone but external for another and vice versa. Therefore, to be able to instigate a good teaching and learning process, teachers have to be able to manage themselves if they come across any internal factors as these may affect their teaching performance. The external factors can be solved in a larger scope, for example in discussions with the principal if the problems are administrative or with the colleagues in the same field in the same or different school. Therefore teachers' forums or associations are one place to share experiences as well as problems encountered and their possible solutions.

For most teachers in the context of TEFL in Indonesian and Thai primary schools, their first language is not English. For that reason, their workload is greater than for teachers who are native speakers of English. Bolitho (1988) observes that teachers whose first language is not English can themselves be classed as advanced learners and thus should remain as lifelong students of the language taught.

It goes without saying that teachers are a very important factor in the process of teaching and learning because "effective teachers can help learners to progress rapidly at any level of schooling" (Brumfit 1995). If teachers are well prepared with pre-service training and are provided with new information in in-service training, it will result in something positive and successful. Policy plays an important role in supporting the improvement of teachers' quality. The implications of language policy for teachers will be discussed in details in chapter six.

Learners

Classroom is the complex place when language learning takes place. Not only do learners in a class come from various background they also have different purposes for learning language, for instance. Thus, in order to conduct a good teaching and learning process it is necessary for teachers to recognize the ability of each student in the same class. There are several types of students in learning foreign

languages. Richard-Amato (1988) distinguishes several levels of proficiency from the *low-beginning* to the *high advanced student*. The recognition of these levels of learners' proficiency might assist teachers in dealing with students. This may also be useful in determining the approach, methods and technique to apply in classroom practice which can cater the range of different types of learners.

The implications of language policy for learners is very obvious. Whether or not learners should learn languages is regulated in the policy. Schools can not just offer such programmes without any reference to policy because it involves other aspects such as curriculum, methods and materials. Every aspects in classroom practice should always refer to the policy.

Besides teacher and learners, the learning process also involves methods and materials. Without applying suitable methods and appropriate materials, it is difficult to promote learning and to achieve a satisfactory results. The next section will observe these two aspects.

Methods and Materials

Methods and materials have an important role in teaching and learning process. Having been able to recognise the conditions for learning, it is appropriate to indicate and determine the most appropriate methods and techniques. It is obvious that for young learners "intonation, gesture, facial expressions, actions and circumstances all help to tell them what the unknown words and phrases probably mean" (Halliwell 1992).

The child's world is the world of play. Being able to realise this characteristic is important because it can be used as a bridge to attract their attention in learning language. Games are so useful and so motivating, not just because they are fun but because the fun element creates a desire to communicate and because games involve unpredictability (Halliwell 1992, Baldauf and Rainbow 1992). It would

be helpful to take into account the reality that children's interests are closely related to imagination and fantasy.

Each of the range of methods used in language teaching mentioned previously has its advantages and weaknesses. Therefore to attain maximum benefit of each method is to use them in combination by considering our needs and purposes. Especially in language learning, using one single method only will not help but combining methods as long as it is in need would be helpful for teacher as well as learners. Again, the policy usually determine or suggest through its technical instruction which methodology can be employed in the FL programs. However, it is better to give more freedom and opportunities for teachers to be creative as long as this does not violate the curriculum.

Materials are another essential ingredient for consideration. Higgs (1982) notes that the area in which the teacher and the curriculum come into closest contact is in the selection and use of textbooks and related materials. It is undeniable that the textbook, especially in foreign language classes, is central to the process of teaching and learning. It is a major resource for both teacher and students. However, to some extent the content of textbooks is often found inappropriate for use in class. If we look back at the early days before textbooks become a ready-use book, we could see why it happens. It is because of the making of textbooks can sometimes seem chaotic since it involves two parties, the author and the publisher, both with different goals. In terms of teaching foreign languages, the author's first goal is to advance the profession and improve the state of the art by providing teaching material that facilitates the study of foreign languages, while the publisher's primary goal must be to market a profitable product (Higgs 1982). Therefore, compromises must be made to reach the production stage. This is the reason why textbooks are found insufficient and adjustment is needed to meet the learners's needs.

There is a range of textbook available for learning. However, we need to select those which meet the policy criteria. The selection of the appropriate textbook is not an easy task. We realise that there is no single textbook which accommodates all needs. Therefore, the teacher plays an important role in choosing the textbooks which are in accordance with the curriculum and the needs of the learners. Even when the textbook is carefully chosen, teachers must adapt the textbooks to suit the needs and ability of the students. We have to always bear in mind that there is no textbook which can accommodate all needs. Therefore adaptation is strongly recommended to maximise the use of textbook.

We all know that most textbooks are designed for average students. However, in the classroom there are various types of students which can be categorised from the range of fast learners to slow learners. Therefore adaptation should suit these various types of student, particularly in foreign language classroom. Shorrocks (1995:270) expresses that “all individuals are unique in terms of their physical characteristics, personality and facility in performing certain activities”. To serve different types of students, the materials can be eliminated, reordered, supplemented, and substituted (Higgs 1982). The benefits of using adapted materials can be summarised as follows:

- teacher control over content
 - teacher control over cultural bias in materials
 - teacher control over skills development
 - teacher can readily integrate language and content
- (cited from Richard-Amato 1992)

Thus, adapting materials is one thing that teachers can do to ensure that what is said and done are within reach of the child’s ear and mind (Wood 1988).

To help teachers in adapting material, the following tips cited from Richard-Amato (1992) might be useful:

- consider the students' proficiency level
- build on students' prior knowledge
- highlight specific text
- control new vocabulary
- simplify grammar
- structure paragraphs carefully

From another point of view, if we would like to be honest, a textbook on one hand is convenient for the teacher to teach, especially if it is supplemented with the activities to do and all the instruction. However, on the other hand, it does not do justice to students because, as mentioned above, not every student has the same ability and competence in learning a foreign language. Of course, to treat the students individually in a 30 students class is not easy at all, although to achieve a maximum result students are best treated individually. The solution is to minimise the number of students in a class or to maximise adaptation of the material to at least cater for these varieties of learners. Thus, to determine the method and materials of foreign language teaching as essential parts in classroom practice, one should always refer to the language policy especially to the teaching programs. Language policy is often not praxis-oriented and needs to be translated in more detail into the teaching program.

In classroom practice, to help us know whether we have been doing good or bad or whether we have been able to reach the goals, we need to do an assessment and evaluation. It is not only to see how good the students are learning but also how good the teachers do the teaching. The assessment and evaluation will be discussed in the next subsection.

Assessment and Evaluation

Assessment and evaluation are important parts in the whole idea of language planning. As defined by Kaplan and Baldauf (1997:116), *assessment* is the measurement of students' success at stipulated

programme intervals - and *evaluation* is the measurement of the relative success of the entire programme. When we perform a task, we like to measure how successful we are and whether we have attained our goals. Teachers within their teaching programme have to be included in this assessment. It needs to be performed to enable teachers to measure their students' levels of proficiency in a variety of situations. Assessment is also important for teachers themselves to see whether they are successful in their teaching activities.

Evaluation, as stated above, is to measure the success of the entire programme. It is important to perform evaluation at regular intervals in order to check and re-check the appropriateness of the programme, whether it is necessary to make a change or to improve the existing programme. It is clear that within the evaluation we need to do assessment to measure how successful the programme is as well as to recognise what problems are encountered. To be able to recognise the problems is helpful in determining the solutions. On a larger scale, this is useful for drawing out feedback for the programmes and in making improvements to future policy. For instance, in Australia at the moment, a new language plan is being developed which is trying to provide a solution to problems which appeared in the previous plan³. Another example is Thailand, where teaching English in primary school from year 5 was implemented many years ago. After assessing and evaluating this program, the government decided to enhance teaching English in primary school by applying it from year 1 (Education Reform 1996). In short, assessment and evaluation are very important in order to decide next steps and to make improvements for more successful teaching and learning of foreign languages in the future.

3 Based on the interview with the Indonesian Language Adviser in Newton Resource Centre, Adelaide South Australia.

D. Summary

This chapter has examined a selection of literature on language planning and language policy, in learning a language other than the mother tongue and also in the implications of language policy for classroom practice.

Language planning, of which language policy is part, plays an important role in a nation especially in a multicultural country such as Indonesia and Australia. It functions to determine the status of languages. Looking at its importance, language planning should be well arranged in order to accommodate the needs of the society. In terms of foreign languages, the policy has to clarify the purposes for implementing it as well as the benefits to the country without disregarding the national or learners' native languages.

Considering learning languages other than the mother tongue, this chapter has reviewed the issues involved in implementing language policy in primary education by providing arguments from psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic and pedagogic points of view. To balance the discussion, the age-related issues are also included.

The last section discusses the implications of language policy for classroom practice. How language policy is formulated has implications for the curriculum, teachers and learners, methods and material as well as assessment and evaluation. This is so because these aspects always refer back to the language policy. If the policy states, for example, there is no EFL program in primary education, there will be no curriculum set up, no teachers and learners matters to be considered, no methods and materials to be prepared, nor assessment and evaluation need to be performed. The next chapter will be the discussion on language policy in Indonesia, Thailand and Australia as the topic of this study.

Chapter 3

Methodology

A. Review of Methodology

This chapter concerns the methodology used in conducting the research reported in this book. Best and Kahn (1993:26-27) describes four types of educational research: historical, quantitative descriptive, qualitative descriptive and experimental:

1. *Historical research* describes *what was*. The process involves investigating, recording, analyzing and interpreting the events of the past for the purpose of discovering generalizations that are helpful in understanding the past and the present, and, to a limited extent, in anticipating the future.
2. *Quantitative descriptive research* uses quantitative methods to describe attempts to discover relationships between existing non-manipulated variables. Some form of statistical analysis is used to describe the results of the study.
3. *Qualitative descriptive research* uses non-quantitative methods to describe *what is*. Qualitative descriptive research uses systematic procedures to discover non-quantifiable relationships between existing variables.
4. *Experimental research* describes *what will be* when certain variables are carefully controlled or manipulated. The focus

is on variable relationships. As defined here, deliberate manipulation is always a part of the experimental method”.

This study can be categorised as part historical and part qualitative descriptive research. It is historical because it involves the examination of language policy, its implications of classroom practice and its implementation. It is qualitative descriptive because it involves the description and analysis of present classroom practices. It looks at the implications of policy in classroom practices which can be considered as cause-effect relationships.

The research in this study is qualitative research. I have chosen this qualitative approach because it is appropriate to this study. As I will discuss later in this chapter, the data collected for this study are in the form of language policy documents, interviews and classroom observations. There will be no experiment conducted which required experimental and control groups.

Grotjahn (1987) argues that the qualitative-quantitative distinction is oversimplified and he provides an insightful analysis of research traditions in applied linguistics. His provision emphasises that research studies should be analysed based on the method of data collection (whether the data have been collected experimentally or non-experimentally), the type of data yielded by the investigation (qualitative or quantitative), and the type of analysis conducted on the data (whether statistical or interpretive). This study, based on Grotjahn's, falls into the category of non-experimental method of data collection because no experiments were conducted, the data are in the form of documents, interviews and classroom transcription, and they are analysed interpretively.

There are several methods of collecting data in non-experimental research (Nunan 1992). Interviews are appropriate to obtain information related to language policy and how it is meant to be implemented from the authorities. They are also useful to get information from teachers

about classroom practices. Classroom observation is important to look at the relationships between the policy expectations and what happens in reality.

Policy documents about foreign languages are categorised as secondary data by McNeill in Nunan (1992): “secondary data is data available from some other sources and comes in various forms ... for example: statistics, personal document, public document, etc”. Best (1970) categorises “primary data (sources) as eyewitness accounts which are reported by an actual observer or participant in an event, such as documents, remains or relics and oral testimony”. He then goes on to say that some types of material may be secondary sources for some purposes and primary sources for others.

Interviews are described as “the elicitation of data by one person from another through person-to-person encounters” (Johnston 1985) are the chosen method to get information about the implementation of policies. They have been “widely used as a research tool in applied linguistics” (Johnston 1985).

In terms of the degree of formality, interviews can be categorised as unstructured, semi-structured and structured. The semi-structured interview is used in this study, as Dowsett cited in Nunan (1992:149) states that

“the semi-structured interview is quite extraordinary - the interactions are incredibly rich and data indicate that you can produce extraordinary evidence about life that you don't get in structured interviews or questionnaires methodology - no matter how open ended and qualitative you think questionnaires are attempting to be. It's not the only qualitative research technique that will produce rich information about social relationships but it does give you access to social relationships in a quite profound way.”

To _{obtain} information about the practice of teaching English in primary schools, the semi-structured interview was chosen for its flexibility, and giving more access to the information needed.

According to Cohen and Manion in *Research Methods in Education*, the semi-structured interview is a “less formal interview in which the interviewer is free to modify the sequence of questions, change the wording, explain them or add to them” (1985). The interviewees are both teachers and administrative personnel in the Department of Education. The interview is conducted in

“a two-person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research-relevant information, and focused on content specified by research objectives of systematic description, prediction, or explanation” (Cohen and Manion 1985).

It is used in conjunction with other methods as explained later in this chapter.

In addition to the interview, in order to assess whether language policy affects the practice of foreign language teaching, classroom observation is applied. To observe the classroom, there are four well-known methods, namely: formal experiment, stimulated recall, observation schemes, and interaction analysis. Those methods can be defined as follows:

Experiment is a procedure for testing an hypothesis by setting up a situation in which the strength of the relationship between variables can be tested. *Stimulated recall* is a technique in which the researcher records and transcribes parts of a lesson and then gets the teacher (and, where possible, the students) to comment on what was happening at the time the teaching and learning took place. *Observation schemes* are numerous schemes which have been developed for documenting classroom interaction. *Interaction analysis* involves the discursive analysis of classroom talk (adapted from Nunan 1992:91-98)

Observation schemes and interaction analysis are the principal research methods used in this study. These methods have been chosen because they are particularly useful techniques in obtaining information of what is going on in the classroom.

Having decided on the observation methods, it is important now to clarify the instruments used in order to get information in the classroom. There is a list of various instruments used in observing the classroom as discussed by Cohen and Manion (1985). They also include the strengths and weaknesses of these techniques in their discussion. The strength and weaknesses of the instruments used in this study as well as other instruments for classroom observation can be seen in detail in Cohen and Manion (1985). In my study, tape recording and note-taking were used. Several interviews were tape-recorded, whilst in others only notes were taken because of the request of the interviewees. Several classroom interactions were tape-recorded when it is permitted by classroom teacher. If permission is not given, note-taking is the choice. Again, these approaches are chosen basically for the convenience of classroom being observed since they are considered less disturbing the learning process as well as less distracting the concentration although it is admitted that not every classroom movement can be recorded properly.

As far as classroom observation is concerned, this study can be categorised as a case study since it discusses the implications of language policy for the practice of TEFL in primary schools. Why? Although many experts define 'case study' in various ways sometimes, Nunan (1994) defines quite clearly that "the researcher in case study typically observes the characteristics of an individual unit - a child, a clique, a class, a school, or a community". Cohen and Manion (1985:120) in regard to case study explain further that the purpose of such observations are "to probe deeply and to analyse the intensity of the multifarious phenomena that constitute the life cycle of the unit with a view to establishing generalisations about the wider population to which the unit belongs". This study, to some extent, is also considered a case study because it analyses the characteristic of classrooms where the process of EFL teaching happens. It also discuss the influence of the society in which the schools are part of

it. On a bigger scale, it looks at the place of EFL classroom practices in wider society.

Stenhouse (1983) develops four types of case study which he describes as follows: *neo-ethnographic*, the in-depth investigation of a single case by a participant observer; *evaluative*, an investigation carried out in order to evaluate policy or practice; *multi-site*, a study carried out by several researchers on more than one site; *action*, an investigation carried out by a classroom practitioner in his or her professional context. Referring to these types of case studies, this study can be categorised as evaluative type since it is to examine the language policy and its practice in classroom.

Having located the methodology employed in this study, the procedures of my data collection will be discussed in the next section.

B. Data Collection Procedures

The research has been conducted in three countries: Indonesia, Thailand and Australia. To obtain the data in this study, I have collected documents, observed classrooms and conducted interviews. The following section will discuss the data collection procedures and the techniques used to collect the data.

1. Documents

Language policy documents are my primary resource. Regarding this study I have managed to collect the language policy documents on these three countries. The Thai language policies were obtained from different sources. These sources are English teachers in primary schools, staff in the Supervisory Unit ONPEC Ministry of Education and from the homepage of Ministry of Education in the Internet. The documents are as follows:

- a. Nayobai karn sorn pasa ungrid pen pasa tang pra thet pee phut tha sakkaraj 2517 (Policy in teaching English in primary school in Thailand 1974).

b. Education Reform at The Ministry of Education 1996.

The policies of EFL in Indonesia were collected from the coordinator of English teachers in primary schools in the region of Manado and Bitung who also a principal in one of the primary schools in Manado, Indonesia together with the program of English teaching in primary schools. The documents are:

- a. Undang-undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 2 tentang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional 1989 (Constitution Number 2 about National Education System).
- b. Garis-garis besar program pengajaran (GBPP) mata pelajaran Bahasa Inggris di Sekolah Dasar 1994 (General Policy in teaching English in primary school).
- c. Program pengajaran muatan lokal Bahasa Inggris 1994 (EFL teaching program).

The national language policy of Australia, also known as the 'white book' was obtained from government publication outlets. To complete the documentation of language policy, I also collected the curriculum profiles for languages other than English (LOTE) from the Language and Multicultural Resource Centre (LMRC). The documents are:

- a. Australia's Language: the Australian Language and Literacy Policy 1991.
- b. Languages other than English - a Curriculum Profile for Australian Schools 1994.
- c. A Statement on Language Other than English for Australian Schools.
- d. Summary of Languages Plan 1998-2007 in South Australia.

2. Classroom Observations

To examine the implications of language policy to classroom practice, I conducted observations in several classrooms in Thailand, Indonesia and Australia. I have never been to Thailand

before so I have made some contacts with people there whom I met in Adelaide before I flew to Thailand. First I went to Pattani Province in the Southern Region of Thailand. There I have a friend working in Prince of Songkhla University who arranged for me school visit in Pattani. She also took me to the schools and introduced me to the Principals and teachers. She also acted as my translator as I explained the purpose of my visit because most of them can only speak Thai, even the English teachers are afraid of speaking English with me. First, I visited the “Satit” (secondary demonstration school) in the Prince of Songkhla University. Although Satit is a secondary school, I observed several English classes to get an overview of EFL classrooms in Thailand. I then visited three primary schools, public as well as private, located in Pattani (South of Thailand). Charoensri Suksa primary school, run by the Catholic church, established in 1991, is the first primary school I visited. In this school, I was allowed by the English teacher to observe and tape record her year 6 students. The second primary school I visited is Tessaban 5. In this school I had a chance to sit in six classrooms (three parallel class: two classes of year 5, two of year 4, and another two of year 3). These classes were taught by the same teacher. The third school I visited was in Rusamillae, located some distance from the town of Pattani. Four classes were observed in this school, year 1, 2, 5, and 6.

Then I went up to Nakorn Pathom Province in the Central Region of Thailand. Again, here I have another friend whom I met in Adelaide and has finished her study. She was the one who arranged my visit to schools in this region. There I visited five primary schools, two of them private Catholic schools. In Wat Tapod Primary School Sampran, I observed one year 6 class. Another year 6 class I visited was in Wat Donway Primary School. St. Joseph Primary School (a boys’ school) is one of the Catholic

schools I observed. In this school I had the opportunity to observe year 3 students. I observed four classes in Marie Upatham Primary School (a girls' school). It should be noted that it was a review week prior to the examinations when I visited these schools and therefore, the main activities in the classroom were reviewing the materials and doing exercises.

From Bangkok, I travelled to Khon Kaen in the Northeast of Thailand. I had a chance to visit another "Satit" (this is a primary demonstration school) in the University of Khon Kaen, and observed one class, year 3, and also talked to the English teacher. In Khon Kaen there is one bilingual school which was opened in May 1997. I visited this school. There were only two classes, reception and year 1, with 15 students for each class. Besides the Satit, I was taken by one of my colleagues from Khon Kaen University to visit Chumchonbanchonnabot primary school in her hometown, one hour by bus from Khon Kaen. In this school, I observed one classroom of year 1 students.

The next stage of classroom observation was in Indonesia, in Manado, North Sulawesi Province. Here, I only observed one class, year 4 in one public primary school. One of my colleagues also tape-recorded three classes in another primary school. These were a year four, a year five and a year six class. This happened because only few schools in Manado that teach English to their students. And most of them are also not willing to be observed.

The rest of my classroom observation was undertaken in South Australia. I visited and observed two classrooms in a primary school located about 30 kilometres to the south of Adelaide. In this school, Indonesian is chosen as the language other than English taught to the whole school, starting from Kindergarten and reception until year seven. Permission from the teacher was given for me to have the lesson tape-recorded. She was also happy

to talk with me about her experience in teaching Indonesian to Australian children.

As regards classroom observations, I made some notes for each of the classroom I visited however when tape recording is allowed the notes are general. Recordings were transcribed in order to support the primary data. It should be noted here that the interview, note-takings, and classroom observations function as secondary data in this research. Secondary data here does not refer to how the data were gathered but more to how they are used.

3. Interviews

Besides collecting documents and observing classes, I also interviewed teachers and administrators. I talked to several English teachers in primary schools I visited as well as key persons in Thai educational field to talk about the issue of TEFL and the implication of language policy in classroom practices. When I visited the Satit in Prince of Songkhla University, I talked to two of the teachers who are the key teachers in the Foreign Language Section in this school as well as lecturers in the Faculty of Education. From them I obtained information about the history of teaching English in Thai schools.

I also visited the Ministry of Education in Bangkok. There I interviewed the personnel member in the Supervisory Unit, Office of the National Primary Education Commission (ONPEC). In the interview, I was told about the plan of ONPEC regarding TEFL in primary schools throughout the country. This interview was tape-recorded.

I decided not to interview personnel from The Ministry of Education in Indonesia because I have knowledge about the Indonesian situation. I also have current information from my parents who are working in this area. Besides, the bureaucracy to meet such important people in the Ministry is very complicated.

In South Australia, I was appreciative of the chance to talk to the Indonesian Language Adviser in the Language and Multicultural Resource Centre, Newton and obtain information about teaching of Indonesian, as one of the LOTEs recognised in South Australia. I was allowed to tape-record our talk. I also had a talk with Indonesian teacher in the primary school when I visited the school.

In the interviews, only a few of the teachers were happy for the 'talk' (I would rather use the term 'talk' which does not sound as formal as interview) to be recorded. Some others felt uncomfortable to be recorded. Therefore, I did not tape record those who did not want to be recorded and just made some notes. The interviews were done in an informal atmosphere to encourage the interviewees to talk freely. As explained previously, the interview was semi-structured in order to gain as much information as possible on the topic. Tape-recorded interviews were transcribed and if necessary translated into English.

Having explained the procedures of data collection and the techniques employed, I will now discuss the procedures of how the data were analysed.

C. Data Analysis Procedures

Language policy documents are my primary data. As stated in the previous section, I have been able to collect copies of policy documents about foreign languages from Thailand, Indonesia and also from Australia. Besides the policy documents there are also supplementary documents which give details of the teaching guidelines. The documents from Thailand and Indonesia have been translated into English.

The Thai language policy document was translated into English by an informant. Although I speak Indonesian, I translated the language

policy document into English as well, in order to make it accessible for others who do not speak this language.

Chaudron (1988) describes four research traditions⁴ in applied linguistics, this study falls under one of the categories called discourse analysis. *Discourse analysis*, as defined by Chaudron (1988), analyses classroom discourse in linguistic term through the study of classroom transcripts. Classroom transcription is one kind of data collected in this study. It will be analysed in conjunction with other data.

Classroom observations and interviews are transcribed to enable the analysis. The transcription has been done as accurate as possible, however I understand that there are certain weaknesses. Leo van Lier expresses strongly that transcription, especially transcription of lessons “can never be entirely accurate” (1988:242).

The analysis of data is based on the guided research questions stated in chapter one. Firstly, based on the policy documents obtained, I investigated the similarities in the educational systems of both Indonesia and Thailand, particularly regarding teaching and learning English as a foreign language. I also referred to the educational system in Australia in general and foreign language teaching in particular. Secondly, I examined the implications of language policy for the practice of teaching and learning English as a foreign language at the primary level in Indonesia and Thailand and LOTE in primary schools in Australia, with respect to management, curriculum, methods, materials, school community (such as principal, teachers, students, parents) and assessment, considering the documents as well as the result of interviews. By considering the goals stated in language policy and the practice in classrooms, I investigated what has been achieved and what has not.

All the data gathered are then analysed interpretively. As stated

4 Four research traditions in applied linguistics according to Chaudron (1988): *psychometric, interaction analysis, discourse analysis* and *ethnography*.

by Nunan (1992) interpretive analysis is based on discursive rather than statistical analysis. Research questions stated in chapter guided the analysis of this study. The discussion of the language policy study began with Thailand, followed by Indonesia and finally Australia since Thailand is where I started my research fieldwork. Moreover, it was meant to be a model, especially for Indonesia, in terms of teaching English as a foreign language.

The classroom data were analysed from an organisational matters point of view and teaching approach point of view. As regards organisational matters, the analysis was based on the issues identified in the classroom observation data. Based on the data, these are the similar issues applying to Indonesia, Thailand and Australia. In the section on teaching approach, the analysis was based on the six main aspects found in classroom interaction (Tsui 1995) referring to the classroom data from the contexts of the three different countries. The discussion on language policy and organisational matters and teaching approach is discussed in detail in chapter 4 and 5 accordingly.

D. Summary

In this chapter I have explained the methodology I undertaken in conducting this research. I began with a review of the methodology used in qualitative research as this study is classified into. Then, I discussed the data collection procedures for this study beginning from discussing the policy documents, classroom observation and the interviews. Lastly, data analysis procedures were described.

Chapter 4

Survey of Language Policies

A. Introduction

In this chapter, the foreign language policies of three different countries, Thailand, Indonesia and Australia are presented. The chapter is organised into three sections based on the countries where the research took place. In each section, the discussion of the policies is followed by a discussion of issues associated with their implementation. I discuss Thailand in the first section as it was the place where my fieldwork research first started. This is followed by the discussion of Indonesia and then Australia in the final section. The more specific aspects of foreign language policy implementation will be discussed in the next chapter. To summarize the discussion in this chapter, a table of comparison among three countries about policy in language is provided in the next page.

B. Thailand

1. Language Policy

Language policy generally defines how certain languages are treated in both national and educational contexts. In the case of Thailand, the national language and the official language is Thai. It is used widely at every level of the society, both for general

communication and for academic purposes. As a language of communication, the use of Thai developed variously in each region. In my experience while I was in Thailand, I noted that people from different regions, for example Southern Thai people and people from the Central region, speak Thai differently. Each region has its own dialect but they have the same standard Thai, especially in written form. However, standard Thai is used for formal occasions as well as for academic purposes. In the educational contexts, Thai is used as the medium of instruction.

In Thailand, English is the first foreign language introduced in formal education. The history of English teaching in schools in Thailand started with the Royal Family, particularly in the King Rama IV era in the 18th century. At that time, it was considered important to learn English in order to be able to interact with foreigners, especially those from English-speaking countries. The Royal Family hired a native-speaking English teacher from overseas. At first, it was only members of the royal court who were given the opportunity to learn English, but since then English has been gradually introduced in formal education throughout the country. Since having foreign English teachers is expensive, Thailand is motivated to train Thai teachers to teach English.

In its development English is viewed as getting more important in Thailand, it is taught at all levels of formal education. To direct and to strengthen the status of English as a foreign language, the government considers it important to have a policy which rules how it should be treated. In this study, as explained in the introductory chapter, the concentration is on policy for primary level education.

Historically, the policy of teaching English in primary school has changed twice. English was first introduced nationally at the primary level as an elective subject in 1950s (based on my

interview with senior lecturers in several Thai universities saying that they have learnt English in primary school), then in 1978 it became a compulsory subject taught from year 5. Recently, in 1996, the government launched a policy stating that English must be taught from year 1, as stated in the section of Education Reform at the Ministry of Education entitled Curriculum Reform: “Reforming the learning of foreign languages by providing access to English Language learning to first-grade primary pupils”. The decision of the Thai government is in line with a statement by Bergentoft: “A foreign language teaching policy is specifically concerned with the teaching and learning of foreign languages. In an FLT policy, educational considerations play an important part” (1994:36).

In the Thai context, English is clearly considered a foreign language. The reason for choosing English as school subject was to establish relationships with foreign countries, as English functions as a worldwide spoken language. As a foreign language in Thailand, English is not used as a medium of communication in society. Rather, English is just learnt in school. However, in business, certain sectors in university or in tourism, English is used for communication. In regards to national development and approaching a globalized world, the need for English is increasing. In the policy guidelines, the general goals in learning English in primary and secondary education are classified as follows:

- a. To gain knowledge, understanding, and experience in various careers, according to students’ ability and interest, and suitable adjustments in the area (local community).
- b. To provide discipline in working, concentration, diligence, patience, economical, autonomy and an ability to interacting and socialising.
- c. To be creative

- d. To be able to get a job appropriate to their age.
(Translated from “Nayobai Karn Sorn ...” 1974)

In Thailand, English has been taught in primary schools for many years, especially in year 5 and 6 as stated: “Students in prathom (year) 5 and 6 are required to learn English” (translated from Thai Policy Document written in 1974). Besides the general goals, there are several aims for English teaching in primary schools which are more specific. They are as follows:

- a. To gain understanding of grammatical rules of English.
- b. To become competent in the four language skills.
- c. To develop a positive attitude towards English and to enjoy reading to find information.
- d. To be assisted in using English for communication.

These specific aims guide the curriculum for teaching and learning English. Looking at these aims, it seems that primary school pupils are expected to have an understanding of English grammar as well as the four language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Having attained these goals, it will then lead to having a positive attitude towards English and to getting information. The objectives for each language skill are also defined in these guidelines.

Based on the 1996 Education Reform, the outcome goals set up by the government after learning English for 2 years (year 1 and 2) are as follows:

- a. Be able to respond in a simple way in English.
- b. Be able to follow simple instruction.
- c. Be able to pronounce the English alphabet and simple sentences.
- d. Have a good attitude towards English.

These goals particularly apply to lower primary schools pupils when English was first introduced in year 1.

If we look at these two policy documents, there is only a slight difference between them. According to the 1974 Policy Document, “English in prathom (year) 5 and 6 is a compulsory subject which focuses on both knowledge and the skills to communicate properly”. While the recently launched policy focused more on listening skills, followed by speaking skills⁵. Thus, pronunciation is considered important for early learning as it requires good listening and speaking. Basically, this is according to the idea put forward by key writers in early language learning such as Finocchiaro 1964, Freudenstein 1979, Stern 1963, Littlewood 1984 who state that listening and speaking skills are appropriate for young children to acquire.

Despite the clearly stated goals and the explanation of each skill to be implemented, there is no guarantee that these goals will be achieved in practice. We will see in the next section, the issues raised in regard to the implementation of the policy.

2. Issues in the Implementation of the Policy

Having implemented the policy for certain period, there are some issues which need to be considered in more detail. One of the stated goals in the policy is that after learning English in primary school, the students are expected to have the ability to socialise or to get along with other people, in other words, to use English as a tool of communication. However, after graduating from high school, meaning that having learnt English for 8 years in school if they started at year 5 primary school, most students still found it difficult to speak the language. What should be questioned is what factors caused this. It might be the methodology used which does not support the goals to be achieved or teachers factor is also another possibility. These factors will be addressed in detail in

5 Based on my interview with one officer in Supervisory Unit ONPEC, Ministry of Education in Bangkok.

the next chapter. Furthermore, learning English is expected to be able to assist in broadening career options and in giving support to students' pursuit of a career. Unfortunately, the entrance test to university is not consistent with the policy, this is admitted by one senior lecturer in Thai university. Whilst it should focus on communication skills, in fact, students have to pass an English test which requires a strong knowledge of grammar rather than an understanding of extended discourse.

As stated above, the policy of teaching English in primary school has been implemented since 1978, however students' proficiency in the English language in Thailand is still unsatisfactory. My investigation shows many learners and administrators were dissatisfied with the level of competence reached (Fieldwork diary: 1997). The major problem which caused this dissatisfaction is the discrepancy between the goals in the curriculum and the teaching practice and also the needs of the students. Those who want to proceed to tertiary education may need more developed reading skills than other skills in order to be able to read textbooks which are mostly written in English, or to get information from abroad. On the other hand, those who prefer to work in companies that have close ties with foreign companies, or engage in work which has more contact with foreigners may need communication skills more than other skills. Another factor is that the methods and techniques used in teaching English are not compatible with the goals. For example, if communication is the target, the material taught to the students does not provide communicative situations, instead it mainly focuses on grammar. Moreover, it does not create a conducive climate which motivates students to speak. The example has been mentioned previously about the entrance test to university which focuses mostly on grammar. Since 1996, English is introduced in year one primary school. The basic consideration for early introduction is pronunciation. In the

EFL context, English pronunciation is a problem encountered by Thai students whose mother tongue is Thai. I found that they showed many influences of their mother tongue when speaking English. It is mainly because Thai is a tonal language. Many studies show that tonal language speakers encounter difficulties when learning or speaking non-tonal languages like English. Marvin Brown (1976) explored the dominance of this aspect of Thai over English. He stated: "but whatever the cause might be, the facts are clear: Thai is stronger than English in the battle of sounds" (1976:70). The problem of pronunciation has been addressed in part by the government's new policy: "reforming the learning of foreign languages by providing access to English Language learning to first-grade primary pupils" (Education Reform 1996). From the study of young children learning a new language, it is generally accepted that pronunciation is best acquired before the age of nine as clearly defined by Bergentoft (1994:33) who states that if the teaching of foreign languages begins early enough the acquisition of good pronunciation is facilitated. There are two studies done by Fathman in 1975 and Fathman and Precup in 1983 cited in Singleton (1989). As far as foreign language learning is concerned, both studies, though they were conducted in the United States are of relevance to this study. The result of these studies show that children scored better than adults in English pronunciation.

Interestingly, many children from the southern part of Thailand mother tongue is Malay-Thai, known as Dawi do not face the problem in pronouncing English words as much as students whose mother tongue is Thai. Based on my observation when I visited primary schools in Pattani (south of Thailand), in Nakornphatom (central of Thailand) and in Khon Khaen (northeast of Thailand), the pronunciation problem is less in southern Thailand. This applies especially to certain sounds such

as strong /r/. This happens because Dawi, the language most spoken in south Thailand and English are not tonal languages while Thai is. Bialystok and Hakuta (1994:85-86) state that one can learn a second language that is similar to one's native language more quickly than one that is different. On the other hand, children who speak Dawi as their first language have to study harder in school compared to children who speak Thai, because in school they have to study two languages other than their own, Thai and English.

Having discussed the EFL language policy and the issues in its implementation in Thailand, next section will discuss about Indonesia, the history of language development, EFL language policy and the issues in its implementation.

C. Indonesia

Indonesia is a multicultural country consisting of more than 583 local languages and dialects (Kaplan and Baldauf 1997). It is situated in the South East of Asian region. However, Indonesia is considered the most successful among the Asian countries as far as the national language development is concerned (Dardjowidjojo 1998). To strengthen the status of Indonesian, October has been designated as 'Language Month' where various activities are done to call attention to the role of Indonesian as a national as well as official language in society (Anderson 1987).

Every child must learn Indonesian when she or he goes to school, starting from year one in primary school. It is a compulsory subject in Indonesian schools and it has also become the sole vehicle of instruction from the elementary schools up to the universities (Dardjowidjojo 1998). Indonesian functions as the language that unifies the archipelago, continues Dardjowidjojo (1998), though it gained its position as the national as well as official language of this multicultural society only relatively recently. English is the primary

foreign language taught in schools. Indonesia had relatively little contact with English-speaking countries in the past, but nonetheless decided to have English in secondary schools after independence in 1945. Therefore, the choice of English as the first foreign language for Indonesian schools can be seen as related to the establishment of Indonesian as official language. The following is a brief discussion of the history of Indonesian.

1. History of Language Development in Indonesia

It is worthwhile to discuss the historical argument in favour of Indonesian before it came into being as the chosen national and official language in Indonesia. In this case, it is different from Thai which is unquestionably the only majority language in Thailand. In Indonesia, there are several major languages that have millions of speakers. Before Indonesian was chosen to be the national language of Indonesia, there was a long and hard struggle. This event cannot be separated from the history of the new nation Indonesia, which was proclaimed by Soekarno and Hatta on August 17, 1945.

Indonesia was colonised by the Dutch for about three and a half centuries. Another question may arise within this context: Why was Dutch not chosen as the national language, since the Dutch had settled in Indonesia for so long? Historically, during later stages of Dutch colonialism the language used in the schools built by the colonial regime was of course Dutch. However, the use of Dutch was limited to certain groups of people, such as the learned people and those from the Royal family. It was not used as much as Javanese, for example, whose speakers number about 45 per cent of the total population of Indonesia (Kennedy 1942:23-66). On the other hand, the language that was used as a *lingua franca* for trade purposes in Indonesia was Malay. It spread throughout the country especially in the harbour cities, and

became the most commonly used language by the people. The *lingua franca* status of Malay allowed people from various regions to communicate with each other. Considering the significant role of Malay, in the 19th century, Governor General Rochussen during his period of settlement decided that Malay would be the language used in schools to teach the indigenous civil servant candidates (Slametmuljana 1982). As quoted by Alisyahbana (1978:24) Rochussen said: “*Het Maleische is de lingua franca van den geheelen indischen archipel, de taal van welke alle personen van verschillende natien bij ondeling verkeer zich bedienen: de Maleier en de Javaan, de Arabier en de Chinees, de Boeginees en de Makassar, de Balinees en de Dayakker*” which means that Malay is the *lingua franca* used by various ethnic group of people to interact each other such as among the Malay people and the Javanese, the Arabinese and the Chinese, the Buginese and the Makassarnese, the Balinese and the Dayak.

On October 28, 1928, the delegates of the Indonesian Youth Congress made a pledge which is known as *Sumpah Pemuda* (Youth Pledge). The third section “We, the sons and daughters of Indonesia, vow to uphold the nation’s language of unity, Indonesian” referred to the ‘*bahasa persatoean*’ (‘one language’ or ‘language of unity’) showing that at that time the concept of a national language was already formalised (Moeliono 1986). At this congress, “Malay was officially adopted and renamed Indonesian” (Dardjowidjojo 1998). It was a remarkable decision made by these young nationalists because most of them actually “spoke Dutch better than Malay, but the nationalist sentiment at that time was so high that the Dutch language was completely left out of the picture” (Dardjowidjojo 1998). This was confirmed when the independence of Indonesia was proclaimed by Soekarno-Hatta on August 17, 1945. Indonesian then obtained its legal status as the national and official language of the Republic of Indonesia.

When Japan occupied Indonesia, the use of Malay spread rapidly because the Japanese government prohibited the use of Dutch, the language of their enemy. According to Abas (1986:42) "Shortly after seizing the colonial governmental apparatus, one of their (Japanese Imperial Armed Forces) acts was to abolish the use of Dutch ...". Instead, Malay was preferable to the people during Japanese occupation. Why Malay and not Japanese? Actually, the Japanese wanted to replace Dutch by Japanese but it was not that easy because of the length of time required to achieve this goal. This led the Japanese to allow the use of Indonesian as "the Japanese could not afford to wait so long and they were forced to make use of IN(donesian)" (Abas 1986:42). This made the use of Dutch decline and the use of Indonesian increase. After this, Indonesian gradually gained its strong status and position within Indonesia.

Why did Malay become the national language? Why not Javanese, for example, which has almost half of the Indonesian population as speakers? Or, why not Sundanese, which is used by about twenty million people? Again, the Youth Congress on October 28, 1928 was an important moment in the history of Indonesian, when the young associations from different ethnic backgrounds did not even try to put their respective languages up for candidacy. Rather, they put the national spirit above the subnational interest (Dardjowidjojo 1998). Another important reason is the strategy of neutrality. Choosing one from a number of vernacular languages will somewhat create friction between the ethnic groups who speak them, as one will be considered more important than the others. What is more important, during the Dutch colonialization, Malay was used in the interaction between the Dutch and the Javanese Sultans as the sign of a neutral code. Therefore, Indonesian (which was Malay-rooted) was chosen as the language of Indonesia and later on became the national as well as official language.

In terms of the language system, it is found that the system of Malay is much simpler in respect to naturalness than Javanese or Sundanese, since it has a history as being used as a pidgin language during the colonial era. As cited from Garvin and Mathiot by Abas (1987:3) "ML (Malay) is a language of relative simplicity and flexibility, both of which are favourable characteristics in the making of a language as an acceptable national or international language". It is therefore simple to learn. More importantly, it does not have degrees or levels that put people in different classes as in Javanese or Sundanese. The Indonesian language then has developed over time, absorbing many new words from foreign languages such as English, French, and also from local languages like Javanese, Sundanese and so forth.

Now, I would like to direct your attention to English, in order to look at the reasons why it has been chosen as the first foreign language to be taught in formal education. It goes without saying that actually Dutch had more chance to be the foreign language chosen, as the Dutch remained in Indonesia for such a long time. However, being settled in Indonesia for long did not guarantee that choice since the Dutch did not want the native people to learn Dutch in order to keep them in their place and prevent them from fully participating in decision making process. Occupying Indonesia for a long time was not a strong enough reason for it to be chosen as a foreign language taught in schools. Besides, the effect when Japan held power in Indonesia from 1942-1945 was so large. The Japanese prohibited the use of Dutch as did the Dutch up to 1860, and forced the citizens to use Malay in schools to replace Dutch. A further reason for not choosing Dutch was negative nationalist sentiment during the colonial era allowing Dutch to be dispelled more easily. Therefore, after independence, neither of these colonial languages was chosen when Indonesia considered a foreign language for educational purposes. Instead,

Indonesia chose English, which is widely spoken throughout the world, and serves as an international language. No historical background affected this choice, unlike other Asian nations such as Malaysia, Singapore or the Philippines. Both Indonesia and Thailand have never been occupied by English-speaking countries in the past.

2. History of Teaching and Learning English in Indonesia

English has been taught since 1953 in Indonesian schools starting, from Year 1 Junior High School at about 12 years of age until Senior High School as a compulsory subject. The need for a foreign language is seen as very important as “*Inspeksi Pengajaran Bahasa Inggris*” stipulates:

“Kebutuhan negara kita akan sebuah bahasa asing yang dapat dipakai sebagai bahasa penghubung di berbagai lapangan dengan dunia luar seluas-luasnya mengakibatkan bahasa Inggris mendapat peranan tertentu dalam sistem pendidikan kita” (1956:124)

(The need for a foreign language in our country to function as mediator to foreign countries in all fields made English get its specific role in our educational system - Translation N.L.)

The following is a brief history of the development of English teaching in Indonesia.

In the era of development, it is apt for Indonesia to choose English, as most scientific, technological, and economic matters are discussed in English. In order to compete in the globalized era and to attain as much information as possible, it is very important for English to be learnt. To improve the implementation of teaching and learning English, *Kementerian Pendidikan, Pengajaran dan Kebudayaan* (Ministry of Education, Teaching and Culture) formed an institution in 1953. It was a *de facto* institution which was legally announced by a Decision Letter from the Minister of Education, Teaching and Culture dated 30 October 1953 (No.

43004/Kab). The institution was named Inspeksi Pengajaran Bahasa Inggris (IPBI) from 1 November 1953. The job of IPBI was to guide and to supervise the teaching and learning of English in High Schools and Teacher Training Courses. Therefore English was first introduced into Secondary Education in Indonesia, particularly in Junior High School (Murni 1993, Dardjowidjojo 1998).

In the 1994 curriculum there was a new development when the Department of Ministry and Education permitted English to be taught earlier (in primary school) than before. Prior to this curriculum, Presidential Decree No. 28, 1990, allowed English to be taught from the fourth grade primary school (Dardjowidjojo 1998:45). Although English is still an alternative or elective subject as a part of the local-content subject, a Decree demonstrates the support of the government towards the development of teaching English in Indonesian education. However, this is considered a later development compared to other South-East Asian countries such as Malaysia, Singapore, the Philippines, and Thailand.

3. Language Policy

The rationale for introducing English to the primary school curriculum, according to Garis-garis Besar Program Pengajaran Bahasa Inggris Sekolah Dasar (The Outline of Teaching English in Primary School) in EFL Policy, is

“penting untuk tujuan penyerapan ilmu pengetahuan, teknologi dan seni budaya dan pembinaan hubungan dengan bangsa-bangsa lain” important in order to absorb the world of science, technology and culture and to serve as a medium of international communication to establish relationships among nations.

This was revised from the 1956 document about teaching EFL in formal education. The reason for the introduction of English to primary schools is to get worldwide information and

to participate at an international level. However, as the document continues, “mata pelajaran bahasa Inggris merupakan mata pelajaran alternatif mengingat ketersediaan tenaga pengajar, sarana-prasarana yang masih perlu dibina” (English subject still serves as an alternative subject due to lack of teacher availability, facilities and resources, which still need to be developed).

The general goals of teaching English in primary schools, according to the guidelines, are to “(1) memberikan pengetahuan dasar Bahasa Inggris baik lisan maupun tulisan, (2) mengembangkan aspek keterampilan membaca, menyimak, menulis dan berbicara untuk kehidupan sehari-hari peserta didik, (3) meningkatkan kesadaran melestarikan dan mengagungkan kebesaran Tuhan Yang Maha Esa” - (1) to give basic knowledge of spoken and written English, (2) to develop four language skills in the context of children’s daily life, (3) to increase children’s understanding of the nature of God, which basically means that language is a God-given gift to human beings (English transl.). These goals should be understood and interpreted by the personnel in the educational field, including teachers who deal with children everyday in school. A clear understanding and an exact interpretation of the goals are important in order to be mindful of the functions of this subject, and to keep the activity of teaching English on the right track.

Besides general goals, there are also specific goals that define in more detail what to achieve. Every activity we do has its own specific goals including the teaching and learning process. The goals to attain are important to set up in the beginning, so we know which direction we are heading for. In Indonesia there are several specific goals, particularly for the local-content curriculum of English taught in primary school, as defined in Chapter One, Introduction, Guidelines of English Teaching Program in Primary

School (1994), as follows:

- a. Menumbuhkan rasa senang dan keberanian untuk mempelajari Bahasa Inggris melalui lagu-lagu sederhana.
- b. Menanamkan kemampuan dasar berbahasa Inggris melalui pengenalan kosa kata yang sederhana.
- c. Melatih kemampuan berkomunikasi dengan menggunakan kalimat sederhana dalam percakapan sehari-hari.
- d. Menumbuhkan kegemaran membaca buku-buku Bahasa Inggris yang sederhana.

Pada akhir sekolah dasar siswa memiliki ketrampilan membaca, menyimak, berbicara, dan menulis dalam pola sederhana berdasarkan tingkat perkembangan dan minat mereka dengan penguasaan kosakata lebih kurang 500 kata.

- a. To develop feelings of happiness and courage by learning English through simple songs.
- b. To implant the basic skills of English by introducing simple vocabulary.
- c. To develop the skill of communication by using simple sentences of daily conversation.
- d. To enhance pupils' fondness for reading books written in simple English.

At the end of primary school, the pupils are expected to have gained the four language skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking in a simple form based on their level of learning development and interest, and to master at least 500 words.

The methods and techniques are then determined in accordance with the specific goals.

What does English teaching cover in primary school? In the policy document it is stated that it covers the development of vocabulary, listening-speaking (literally 'dialogue') and reading

in an integrated way, with the emphasis mainly on proficiency in mastering vocabulary which relates to pupils' own lives. The microskills of language, such as structure, pronunciation and spelling, are taught to support the development of the four language skills (known as macroskills) and not for the sake of mastering those macroskills only.

The main reason for teaching English in schools in Indonesia and Thailand is more or less the same. It is the same because for both countries English is seen as the language for wider communication and also for accessing up-to-date information in science and technology. There is a slight difference between them because Thai primary school pupils are expected to have knowledge of grammar as well as language skills to support their future career, while in Indonesia, the expectation for primary school pupils learning English is to increase their familiarity towards this language and to implant the basic skills of English in a simple way.

In the next section, I will discuss the issues in the implementation of language policy particularly in English as a foreign language in Indonesian primary education.

POLITIK BAHASA NASIONAL

1. Sumpah Pemuda, 28 Oktober 1928 (*sudah jelas*)
2. Undang-Undang Dasar Republik Indonesia 1945, Bab XV Pasal 36: "Bahasa Negara ialah bahasa Indonesia." Penjelasan: "Di daerah-daerah yang mempunyai bahasa sendiri, yang dipelihara oleh rakyatnya dengan baik-baik (misalnya bahasa Jawa, Sunda, Madura, dsb.) bahasa-bahasa itu akan dihormati dan dipelihara juga oleh Negara."
3. Kongres Bahasa Indonesia 1954 di Medan mengakui bahwa bahasa Indonesia tumbuh dan berkembang dari

bahasa Melayu, dan bahwa di dalam pertumbuhan dan perkembangannya itu bahasa Indonesia telah diperkaya oleh bahasa-bahasa lain, terutama bahasa-bahasa daerah yang terdapat di Indonesia merupakan langkah maju yang berdasarkan kenyataan.

4. Seminar Politik Bahasa Nasional, Jakarta, 25-28 Februari 1975: Setelah mempertimbangkan (1) Pidato Bapak Menteri Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, (2) Pidato Pengarahan Seminar oleh Kepala Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa, Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan; dan setelah membahas kertas-kertas kerja:
 - a. "Fungsi dan Kedudukan Bahasa Indonesia" - Amran Halim,
 - b. "Ciri-ciri Bahasa Indonesia Baku" - Anton M. Moeliono,
 - c. "Tata Cara Pembakuan dan Pengembangan Bahasa Indonesia" - Harimurti Kridalaksana,
 - d. "Pengajaran Bahasa Indonesia" - I Gusti Ngurah Oka,
 - e. "Fungsi dan Kedudukan Bahasa Daerah" - S. Wojowasito,
 - f. "Pengembangan Bahasa Daerah" - Ayip Rosidi,
 - g. "Pengajaran Bahasa Daerah" - Tarwotjo,
 - h. "Inventarisasi Bahasa Daerah" - S. Effendi,
 - i. "Fungsi dan Kedudukan Bahasa Asing" - Giri Kartono,
 - j. "Pengajaran Bahasa Asing" - Retmono; mengambil kesimpulan dan pendapat, serta mengajukan usul sebagai berikut:

1. Kesimpulan

a. Pengertian Dasar

1) Kebijakan Nasional

Politik bahasa nasional ialah kebijaksanaan nasional yang berisi perencanaan, pengarahan, dan ketentuan-ketentuan yang dapat dipakai sebagai dasar bagi

pengolahan keseluruhan masalah kebahasaan. Masalah kebahasaan di Indonesia merupakan jaringan masalah yang dijalin oleh (1) masalah bahasa nasional, (2) masalah bahasa daerah, dan (3) masalah pemakaian dan pemanfaatan bahasa-bahasa asing tertentu di Indonesia. Pengolahan keseluruhan masalah bahasa ini memerlukan adanya satu kebijaksanaan nasional yang dirumuskan sedemikian rupa sehingga pengolahan masalah bahasa itu benar-benar berencana, terarah dan menyeluruh.

2) Bahasa Nasional

Bahasa nasional ialah bahasa Indonesia yang diikrarkan dalam Sumpah Pemuda tanggal 28 Oktober 1928, dan yang dalam Undang-Undang Dasar 1945, Bab XV, Pasal 36 dinyatakan sebagai bahasa negara, dan yang dirumuskan lebih lanjut dalam Kongres Bahasa Indonesia di Medan pada tahun 1954.

3) Bahasa Daerah

Bahasa daerah ialah bahasa yang di samping bahasa nasional dipakai sebagai bahasa perhubungan intradaerah di wilayah Republik Indonesia. Bahasa-bahasa daerah merupakan bagian dari kebudayaan Indonesia yang hidup, sesuai dengan penjelasan Undang-Undang Dasar 1945, yang berhubungan dengan Bab XV, Pasal 36.

4) Bahasa Asing

Bahasa asing untuk Indonesia ialah semua bahasa kecuali bahasa Indonesia, bahasa-bahasa daerah, termasuk bahasa Melayu. Dalam rangka pembinaan dan pengembangan bahasa Indonesia perlu dibedakan antara bahasa asing modern dengan bahasa asing klasik.

b. Kedudukan dan fungsi

1) Bahasa Indonesia

a) Kedudukan

Salah satu kedudukan bahasa Indonesia adalah kedudukannya sebagai bahasa nasional. Kedudukan ini dimiliki oleh bahasa Indonesia sejak dicetuskannya Sumpah Pemuda pada tanggal 28 Oktober 1928, dan dimungkinkan oleh kenyataan bahwa bahasa Melayu yang mendasari bahasa Indonesia itu telah dipakai sebagai *lingua franca* selama berabad-abad sebelumnya di seluruh kawasan tanah air, dan bahwa di dalam masyarakat tidak terjadi 'persaingan bahasa', yaitu persaingan di antara bahasa daerah yang satu dan bahasa daerah yang lain untuk mencapai kedudukan sebagai bahasa nasional.

Selain berkedudukan sebagai bahasa nasional, bahasa Indonesia juga berkedudukan sebagai bahasa negara, sesuai dengan ketentuan yang tertera di dalam Undang-Undang Dasar 1945, Bab XV, Pasal 36.

b) Fungsi

Di dalam kedudukannya sebagai bahasa nasional, bahasa Indonesia berfungsi sebagai (1) lambang kebanggaan nasional, (2) lambang identitas nasional, (3) alat pemersatu berbagai-bagai masyarakat yang berbeda-beda latar belakang sosial budaya dan bahasanya, dan (4) alat perhubungan antarbudaya dan antardaerah.

Di dalam kedudukannya sebagai bahasa negara, bahasa Indonesia berfungsi sebagai (1) bahasa resmi kenegaraan, (2) bahasa pengantar resmi di lembaga-lembaga pendidikan, (3) bahasa

resmi di dalam perhubungan pada tingkat nasional untuk kepentingan perencanaan dan pelaksanaan pembangunan serta pemerintahan, dan (4) bahasa resmi di dalam pembangunan kebudayaan dan pemanfaatan ilmu pengetahuan serta teknologi modern.

2) Bahasa Daerah

a) Kedudukan

Di dalam hubungannya dengan kedudukan bahasa Indonesia, bahasa-bahasa seperti Sunda, Jawa, Bali, Madura, Bugis, Makasar, dan Batak, yang terdapat di wilayah Republik Indonesia, berkedudukan sebagai bahasa daerah. Kedudukan ini berdasarkan kenyataan bahwa bahasa daerah itu adalah salah satu unsur kebudayaan nasional dan dilindungi oleh negara, sesuai dengan bunyi Penjelasan Pasal 36, Bab XV Undang-Undang Dasar 1945.

b) Fungsi

Di dalam kedudukannya sebagai bahasa daerah, bahasa-bahasa seperti Sunda, Jawa, Bali, Madura, Bugis, Makasar dan Batak berfungsi sebagai (1) lambang kebanggaan daerah, (2) lambang identitas daerah, dan (3) alat perhubungan di dalam keluarga dan masyarakat daerah.

Di dalam hubungannya dengan fungsi bahasa Indonesia, bahasa daerah berfungsi sebagai (1) pendukung bahasa nasional, (2) bahasa pengantar di sekolah dasar di daerah tertentu pada tingkat permulaan untuk memperlancar pengajaran bahasa Indonesia dan mata pelajaran lain, dan (3)

alat pengembangan serta pendukung kebudayaan daerah.

3) Bahasa Asing

a) Kedudukan

Di dalam hubungannya dengan bahasa Indonesia, bahasa-bahasa asing seperti Inggris, Prancis, Jerman, Belanda, dan bahasa lainnya kecuali bahasa Indonesia dan bahasa daerah serta bahasa Melayu, berkedudukan sebagai bahasa asing. Kedudukan ini didasarkan atas kenyataan bahwa bahasa asing tertentu itu diajarkan di lembaga-lembaga pendidikan pada tingkat tertentu dan di dalam kedudukan demikian, bahasa-bahasa asing itu tidak bersaing dengan bahasa Indonesia baik sebagai bahasa nasional maupun sebagai bahasa negara, serta dengan bahasa-bahasa daerah baik sebagai lambang nilai sosial budaya maupun sebagai alat perhubungan masyarakat daerah.

b) Fungsi

Di dalam kedudukannya sebagai bahasa asing, bahasa-bahasa seperti Inggris, Prancis dan Jerman berfungsi sebagai (1) alat perhubungan antarbangsa, (2) alat pembantu pengembangan bahasa Indonesia menjadi bahasa modern, dan (3) alat pemanfaatan ilmu pengetahuan dan teknologi modern untuk pembangunan nasional.

c. Pembinaan dan Pengembangan

1) Pengertian

Yang dimaksud dengan pembinaan dan pengembangan dalam hubungannya dengan masalah kebahasaan di Indonesia adalah usaha-usaha dan

kegiatan-kegiatan yang ditujukan untuk memelihara dan mengembangkan bahasa Indonesia, bahasa daerah dan pengajaran bahasa asing supaya dapat memenuhi fungsi dan kedudukannya.

Usaha-usaha pembinaan dan pengembangan tersebut tidak hanya menyangkut masalah-masalah bahasa belaka, tetapi juga masalah kesusastraan kerana kesusastraan merupakan faktor penunjang perkembangan bahasa dan kebudayaan yang bersangkutan.

2) Bahasa Indonesia

Mengingat kedudukan dan fungsi bahasa Indonesia maka pembinaan dan pengembangan bahasa Indonesia diperlukan secara mutlak di dalam negara Republik Indonesia. Untuk itu harus dilakukan usaha-usaha pembakuan sebagai berikut:

- a) Usaha pembakuan bahasa bertujuan agar tercapai pemakaian bahasa yang cermat, tepat dan efisien dalam komunikasi; dalam hubungan ini perlu ditetapkan kaidah-kaidah yang berupa aturan dan pegangan yang tepat di bidang ejaan, kosa kata, tata bahasa dan peristilahan.
- b) Dalam usaha pembakuan bahasa Indonesia perlu didahulukan bahasa tulis karena corak yang lebih tetap dan batas bidang-bidangnya lebih jelas; selain dari itu, diperlukan pula pembakuan lafal bahasa Indonesia sebagai pegangan bagi para guru, penyiar televisi dan radio serta masyarakat umum.
- c) Pembakuan bahasa Indonesia perlu dilaksanakan dengan mengusahakan:
 1. kodifikasi menurut situasi pemakai dan pemakaiannya yang akan menghasilkan

pelbagai ragam dan gaya bahasa, seperti yang dipakai dalam administrasi pemerintahan, perundang-undangan, lingkungan pengajaran, sarana komunikasi massa, dan ilmu pengetahuan;

2. kodifikasi menurut struktur bahasa sebagai sistem komunikasi yang akan menghasilkan tata bahasa dan kosa kata serta peristilahan yang baku;
3. tersedianya sarana pembakuan seperti kamus ejaan, kamus umum, buku tata bahasa, pedoman umum ejaan, pedoman pembentukan istilah dan pedoman gaya tulis-menulis;
4. kerja sama dengan para ahli bahasa, guru, wartawan, penyiar radio dan televisi, sastrawan, cendekiawan, lembaga-lembaga pendidikan, badan pemerintah dan swasta serta masyarakat umum.

3) Bahasa Daerah

Sejalan dengan Penjelasan Pasal 36, Bab XV, Undang-Undang Dasar 1945, maka bahasa-bahasa daerah yang dipakai di wilayah Negara Republik Indonesia perlu dipelihara dan dikembangkan. Keadaan bahasa daerah di Indonesia di dalam hubungannya dengan jumlah keseluruhannya di satu pihak, dan jumlah penutur, daerah pekaian serta variasi pemakaian masing-masing bahasa daerah di pihak lain memerlukan perencanaan yang bertahap dan teliti serta melibatkan banyak orang dan badan-badan baik pemerintah maupun swasta. Usaha-usaha pembinaan dan pengembangan bahasa daerah meliputi usaha-usaha pembinaan dan

pengembangan bahasa daerah meliputi kegiatan-kegiatan (1) inventarisasi dan (2) peningkatan mutu pemakaian.

a) Inventarisasi

Kegiatan inventarisasi bahasa daerah dalam segala aspeknya, termasuk pengajarannya, perlu untuk penelitian, perencanaan, pembinaan dan pengembangan bahasa daerah. Kegiatan ini harus dilaksanakan berdasarkan skala prioritas.

Kegiatan inventarisasi akan berjalan dengan baik dan lancar jika:

1. dilaksanakan melalui kerja sama antara Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa dengan lembaga-lembaga, badan-badan atau perseorangan baik di pusat maupun di daerah, dan
2. tersedia tenaga-tenaga yang cukup, cakap dan terlatih dalam bidang penelitian bahasa.

b) Peningkatan Mutu Pemakaian

Dalam rangka mempercepat pembangunan yang merata di seluruh pelosok tanah air, bahasa daerah merupakan alat komunikasi (lisan) yang praktis di daerah pedesaan. Sehubungan dengan itu, perlu disusun suatu program penataran di bidang bahasa daerah bagi:

1. para pejabat yang bertugas memberikan penerangan ke pedesaan, dan
2. para wartawan yang akan berkecimpung dalam perrs daerah.

Dalam rangka usaha memelihara warisan kebudayaan daerah dan usaha membina serta mengembangkan kebudayaan nasional, bentuk-

bentuk kebudayaan yang ditulis dalam bahasa daerah perlu ditulis kembali baik dalam bentuk bahasa daerah versi baru atau dalam bentuk saduran atau terjemahan ke dalam bahasa Indonesia untuk diperkenalkan kepada masyarakat yang lebih luas.

Dalam rangka usaha mendorong dan merangsang penulisan dan penerbitan berbahasa daerah, demi mengakrabkan warisan kebudayaan yang ditulis dalam bahasa daerah, pemerintah perlu:

1. melalui Proyek Inpres Pendidikan dan Proyek Pelita Perpustakaan, memasukkan buku-buku bahasa daerah ke dalam program pembelian buku pengisi perpustakaan,
2. menyediakan hadiah atau anugerah kepada pengarang-pengarang yang menulis dalam bahasa daerah, di samping para pengarang yang menulis dalam bahasa Indonesia.

d. Pengembangan Pengajaran

1) Pengertian

Yang dimaksud dengan pengembangan pengajaran ialah usaha-usaha dan kegiatan yang ditujukan kepada pengembangan pengajaran bahasa agar dapat dicapai tujuan pengajaran bahasa itu sendiri, yaitu agar penutur bahasa itu memiliki ketrampilan berbahasa, pengetahuan yang baik tentang bahasa itu, dan sikap positif terhadap bahasa itu, termasuk hasil sastranya.

2) Bahasa Indonesia

Pengembangan pengajaran bahasa Indonesia bertujuan meningkatkan mutu pengajaran bahasa Indonesia sedemikian rupa sehingga penuturnya memiliki:

- a) ketrampilan berbahasa Indonesia,
- b) pengetahuan yang baik mengenai bahasa Indonesia, dan
- c) sikap positif terhadap bahasa Indonesia termasuk sastranya.

Pengajaran bahasa Indonesia adalah sarana yang diperlukan untuk:

- a) mempertahankan keutuhan kepribadian Indonesia,
- b) menyebarkan pemakaian bahasa Indonesia secara luas,
- c) mengarahkan perkembangan, dan
- d) membakukan ragam-ragam bahasanya.

Untuk mencapai tujuan pengajaran tersebut perlu dirancangan program yang berikut:

- a) Penelitian masalah pengajaran bahasa dan jalan pemecahannya,
 - b) Perumusan kurikulum yang memperinci tiap aspek tujuan menjadi kelompok satuan yang dapat diukur menurut tingkat dan jenis sekolah.
 - c) Persiapan program khusus pengajaran bahasa Indonesia yang secara langsung dapat menghasilkan ahli bahasa, serta program khusus bagi pengajaran bahasa Indonesia di luar sekolah dan untuk orang asing.
 - d) Penentuan didaktik dan metodik bahasa yang paling cocok.
 - e) Pengembangan kepustakaan.
- 3) Bahasa Daerah

Pengembangan pengajaran bahasa daerah bertujuan meningkatkan mutu pengajaran bahasa daerah sedemikian rupa sehingga penuturnya memiliki:

- a) ketrampilan berbahasa daerah,
- b) pengetahuan yang baik tentang bahasa daerah, dan
- c) sikap positif terhadap bahasa daerah dan sastranya.

Pengajaran bahasa daerah adalah sarana yang ikut:

- a) menunjang pembinaan unsur kebudayaan nasional,
- b) mengarahkan perkembangan bahasa daerah, dan
- c) membakukan ragam-ragam bahasanya.

Untuk mencapai tujuan pengajaran tersebut perlu dirancangan program yang berikut:

- a) Penelitian masalah pengajaran bahasa daerah dan jalan pemecahannya.
- b) Perumusan kurikulum yang mencapai tiap aspek tujuan menjadi kelompok satuan yang dapat diukur menurut tingkat dan jenis sekolah.
- c) Persiapan program khusus pengajaran bahasa daerah yang secara langsung dapat menghasilkan ahli bahasa daerah.
- d) Penentuan didaktik dan metodik bahasa yang paling cocok.
- e) Pengembangan kepustakaan

4) Bahasa Asing

Pengembangan pengajaran bahasa asing bertujuan meningkatkan mutu pengajaran bahasa asing sedemikian rupa sehingga bahasa asing terutama bahasa Inggris, benar-benar dapat dipergunakan sebagai:

- a) alat penggalian dan pengembangan ilmu pengetahuan, kebudayaan dan teknologi modern,

- b) alat perhubungan antarbangsa, alat untuk keperluan yang praktis, seperti penggunaannya di bidang kepariwisataan, perdagangan, diplomatik dan militer, dan
- c) salah satu sumber kebahasaan untuk memperkaya bahasa Indonesia.

Untuk mencapai tujuan pengajaran bahasa asing itu perlu dirancang program sebagai berikut:

- a) Penelitian masalah pengajaran bahasa asing dan jalan pemecahannya.
 - b) Perumusan kurikulum yang memerinci tiap aspek tujuan menjadi kelompok satuan yang dapat diukur menurut tingkat dan jenis sekolah.
 - c) Persiapan program khusus pengajaran bahasa asing yang secara langsung dapat menghasilkan ahli bahasa asing.
 - d) Penentuan didaktik dan metodik yang paling cocok.
 - e) Pengembangan kepustakaan.
- e. Bahasa Pengantar
- 1) Batasan

Secara luas bahasa pengantar adalah bahasa yang dipakai secara resmi untuk mengadakan komunikasi dengan sejumlah orang yang terhimpun dan terikat dalam suatu situasi lingkungan yang resmi, seperti rapat umum, rapat kerja dan simposium. Dalam pengertian sempit, bahasa pengantar adalah bahasa resmi yang dipergunakan oleh guru dalam menyampaikan pelajaran kepada murid di lembaga-lembaga pendidikan. Dalam hubungan ini, penggunaan ketiga macam bahasa yang dirumuskan di atas (bahasa Indonesia, bahasa daerah dan

bahasa asing), sebagai bahasa pengantar akan dibatasi kepada pengertian sempit itu.

2) Bahasa Indonesia

Sebagai bahasa nasional dan bahasa negara, bahasa Indonesia dipakai sebagai bahasa pengantar pada semua jenis dan tingkat lembaga pendidikan di seluruh wilayah Republik Indonesia, kecuali di daerah-daerah tertentu.

3) Bahasa Daerah

Sementara menunggu hasil penelitian jangka panjang mengenai kerugian dan keuntungan yang dapat diambil dari pemakaian bahasa Indonesia atau bahasa daerah sebagai satu-satunya bahasa pengantar, bahasa daerah dapat dipakai sebagai bahasa pengantar mulai dari kelas satu sampai dengan kelas tiga sekolah dasar di daerah-daerah tertentu, dengan catatan bahwa bahasa Indonesia sebagai mata pelajaran diajarkan mulai kelas satu sekolah dasar.

4) Bahasa Asing

Bahasa asing dapat dipergunakan sebagai bahasa pengantar dalam menyajikan mata pelajaran bahasa asing yang bersangkutan. Bahasa asing dipergunakan sebagai bahasa pengantar di perguruan tinggi pada jurusan bahasa asing tersebut. Bahasa asing, terutama bahasa Inggris, dapat dipergunakan sebagai bahasa pengantar di perguruan tinggi oleh tenaga pengajar atau ahli asing yang tidak menguasai pemakaian bahasa Indonesia.

2. Pendapat

Seminar Politik Bahasa Nasional dalam sidang-sidangnya pada tanggal 25-28 Februari 1975, setelah mendengar pendapat dan tanggapan para peserta, yang mencerminkan berbagai bidang keahlian dan profesi, serta yang datang dari berbagai-bagai

daerah, dalam rangka pembahasan kertas-kertas kerja, akhirnya menyimpulkan pendapat dan tanggapan tersebut sebagai berikut:

- a. Politik Bahasa Nasional merupakan penjabaran Penjelasan Pasal 36, Bab XV, Undang-Undang Dasar 1945.
- b. Bahasa Indonesia dewasa ini dilihat baik dari segi bentuknya, penggunaannya, pengajarannya maupun dari segi penelitiannya masih jauh dari memuaskan.
- c. Bahasa daerah dan karya-karya dalam bahasa daerah selama ini kurang mendapat perhatian.
- d. Tenaga-tenaga untuk menangani masalah bahasa masih kurang sekali.
- e. Sarana-sarana kebahasaan juga masih kurang.
- f. Motivasi untuk mempelajari bahasa, terutama bahasa Indonesia dan bahasa daerah, sangat kurang.
- g. Pengajaran bahasa daerah mulai dari kelas satu sekolah dasar sampai dengan sekolah lanjutan bermanfaat bagi pembinaan ketrampilan berbahasa bagi anak didik. Sebagian peserta seminar meragukan adanya manfaat tersebut.
- h. Hasil pengajaran bahasa asing mungkin akan lebih baik (menurut sebagian peserta) kalau yang diajarkan hanya bahasa Inggris saja.

3. Usul

- a. Seminar Politik Bahasa Nasional mengusulkan kepada Pemerintah agar Pemerintah turun tangan dalam usaha pengindonesiaan nama-nama asing yang masih dipakai untuk badan pemerintah, lembaga-lembaga resmi, dan badan usaha umum seperti hotel, bank dan gedung pertemuan.
- b. Seminar Politik Bahasa Nasional mendesak supaya usaha penerjemahan yang berencana segera dilancarkan.

- c. Seminar Politik Bahasa Nasional menyarankan kepada pihak-pihak yang berwewenang agar memikirkan sanksi atas pelanggaran terhadap bahasa baku dalam situasi yang menuntut pemakaian ragam bahasa itu.

5. Keputusan Menteri Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan Republik Indonesia No.096/1967 tentang “Fungsi dan Tujuan Pengajaran Bahasa Inggris pada Lembaga-lembaga Pendidikan Tingkat Lanjutan dalam Lingkungan Departemen P dan K”
Menteri Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan
Telah membaca: Surat Sdr. Kepala Biro Perpustakaan dan Pembinaan Buku Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan tanggal 30 November 1967 No.265/I-Um/67, tentang Penetapan Kebijakan Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan mengenai tujuan pengajaran bahasa Inggris.
Menimbang:
 - a. bahwa guna mencapai masyarakat yang adil dan makmur diperlukan “maximum development of human and economic resources”;
 - b. bahwa pengembangan sumber-sumber kemampuan manusia akan menghasilkan skilled man-power dalam segala bidang dan tenaga kader untuk leadership negara, dan pemanfaatan sumber kekayaan alam di bawah tanah, di darat dan laut akan membawa kesejahteraan seluruh bangsa;
 - c. bahwa pengembangan tersebut secara maksimal tidak mungkin dicapai melalui media bahasa Indonesia saja mengingat bahwa ilmu pengetahuan serta teknologi dunia sebagian besar terkandung dalam bahasa asing, terutama bahasa Inggris, sehingga penguasaan yang efektif dari tamatan lembaga pendidikan tingkat lanjutan

- terhadap bahasa Inggris mutlak dipergunakan;
- d. bahwa ketidakmampuan para mahasiswa untuk memanfaatkan reference Inggris tersebut untuk sementara waktu dapat diimbangi dengan penerbitan diktat-diktat, yang mengakibatkan kemerosotan kemampuan para sarjana baru, sehingga dengan man-power semacam itu tidak mungkin dapat dicapai “maximum development of human and economic resources”;
 - e. bahwa berhubung dengan hal-hal tersebut, dipandang perlu segera ditempatkan adanya fungsi dan tujuan pengajaran bahasa Inggris di Indonesia terutama pada lembaga-lembaga pendidikan tingkat lanjutan dalam lingkungan Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan.

Mengingat:

- a. Keputusan Presiden Republik Indonesia:
 - 1) No. 163 tahun 1966;
 - 2) No. 173 tahun 1966;
 - 3) No. 171 tahun 1967;
- b. Keputusan Presidium Kabinet tanggal 3 November 1966 No. 75/U/KEP/11/1966.

Mengingat pula: Hasil perundingan antara Team Pembina Pengajaran Bahasa Inggris dengan Kepala Seksi Bahasa Inggris pada Pusat Penelitian Kurikulum Metodika dan Didaktika-Lembaga Penelitian dan Pengembangan Pendidikan Direktorat Jenderal Pendidikan Dasar, Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, yang telah disetujui pula oleh Rapat Kerja Persiapan Upgrading Guru-guru Bahasa Inggris di SMP yang diselenggarakan di Tugu pada tanggal 26 sampai dengan 29 November 1967.

Memutuskan:

Menetapkan:

Pertama

Fungsi dan tujuan pengajaran Bahasa Inggris di Indonesia terutama pada lembaga-lembaga pendidikan tingkat lanjutan dalam lingkungan Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, ialah:

- 1) fungsi: ialah sebagai alat untuk:
 - a) mempercepat proses pembangunan negara dan bangsa;
 - b) membentuk persahabatan dengan bangsa-bangsa lain;
 - c) menjalankan “foreign policy” kita;
- 2) tujuan: ialah “working knowledge of English” yang terperinci sebagai berikut:
 - a) effective reading ability;
 - b) ability to understand spoken English;
 - c) writing ability;
 - d) speaking ability;yang masing-masing diperlukan terutama oleh para mahasiswa untuk:
 - a) menyelami isi textbook dan reference material dalam bahasa Inggris yang merupakan 90% dari semua reference;
 - b) menangkap kuliah dosen bangsa asing dalam rangka afiliasi dengan perguruan tinggi di luar negeri atau untuk berhubungan dengan perorangan serta mahasiswa asing;
 - c) mencatat kuliah dosen bangsa asing secara tertulis, serta untuk memperkenalkan kebudayaan Indonesia kepada bangsa lain;
 - d) berhubungan dengan dosen, perseorangan maupun mahasiswa asing secara lisan.

Kedua:

Memberi wewenang kepada para Direktur Jenderal dalam lingkungan Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan untuk mengatur lebih lanjut pelaksanaan ketentuan tersebut pada pasal "Pertama" pada lembaga-lembaga pendidikan tingkat lanjutan yang ada dalam lingkungan masing-masing.

Ketiga:

Keputusan ini mulai berlaku pada hari ditetapkan.

Ditetapkan di Jakarta pada tanggal 12 Desember 1967

Menteri Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan

a.n.b. Sekretaris Jenderal

d.t.o. Mayjen TNI Prof.Dr. Soemantri Hardjoprakoso

6. Keputusan Kongres Bahasa Indonesia I, Surakarta, 25-29 Juni 1938:

Kertas kerja:

- a. "Sedjarah Bahasa Indonesia" - Sanoesi Pane
- b. "Bahasa Indonesia di dalam Pergoeroean" - Ki Hadjar Dewantara
- c. "Bahasa Indonesia di dalam Persoeratkabaran" - Djamaloedin (Adi Negoro)
- d. "Menjesoeaikan Kata dan Faham Asing kepada Bahasa Indonesia" - Mr. Amir Sjarifoeddin
- e. "Bahasa Indonesia Sebagai Bahasa Persatoean dan Bahasa Keboedajaan" - Mr. Muh. Yamin
- f. "Bahasa Indonesia dalam Badan Perwakilan" - Soekardjo Wirjopranoto
- g. "Pembaharoean Bahasa dan Oesaha Mengatoernja" - S. Takdir Alisjahbana

- h. "Dalil-dalil tentang Hal Edjaan Bahasa Indonesia" - St. Pamoentjak
- i. "Instituut Bahasa Indonesia" - Sanoesi Pane
- j. "Mentjepatkan Penjebaran Bahasa Indonesia" - M. Tabrani

Poetoesan Konggres Bahasa Indonesia

- I. Sesoedah mendengarkan dan memperkatakan prae-advies toean Mr. Amir Sjarifoeddin tentang "Menjesoeaikan kata dan faham asing ke dalam bahasa Indoensia", maka Konggres terjanata pada oemoemnja setoedjoe mengambil kata-kata asing oentoek ilmoe pengetahoean. Oentoek ilmoe pengetahoean jang sekarang, Konggres setoedjoe kalau kata-kata itoe diambil dari perbendaharaan oemoem. Pekerdjaan itoe hendaklah didjalankan dengan hati-hati, karena itoe perkara itoe patoetlah diserahkan kepada satoe badan.
- II. Sesoedah mendengarkan dan bertoeakar pikiran tentang prae-advies toean St. Takdir Alisjahbana hal "Pembaharoean bahasa dan oesaha mengatoernja", maka sepandjang pendapatn Konggres, soedah ada pembaharoean bahasa jang timboel karena ada tjara berpikir jang baroe, sebab itoe merasa perloe mengatoer pembaharoean bahasa itoe.
- III. Sesoedah mendengar prae-advies toean-toean St. Takdir Alisjahbana dalil ke-VI dan Mr. Muh. Yamin, maka Konggres berpendapat bahwa gramatika jang sekarang tidak memoeaskan lagi dan tidak menoeroet woedjoed bahasa Indonesia, karena itoe perloe menjoesoen gramatika baroe, jang menoeroet woedjoed bahasa Indonesia.

MOTIE

- IV. Orang dari berbagai-bagai golongan, dari berbagai-bagai daerah, berkonggres di Solo pada tanggal 25-27 Juni 1938, setelah mendengarkan prae-advies toean K.St. Pamoentjak tentang "Hal edjaan bahasa Indonesia", dan setelah bertoeakar pikiran tentang hal itoe, maka yang hadir berpendapatan: bahwa edjaan baroe tidak perloe diadakan, sampai Konggres mengadakan edjaan sendiri, bahwa edjaan jang soedah berlakoe, jaitoe edjaan van Ophuijsen oentoek sementara boleh diterima, tetapi karena mengingat kehematan dan kesederhanaan, perloe dipikirkan peroebahan seperti jang diseboetkan oleh prae-adviseur, karena itoe berpengharapan:
1. soepaja orang Indonesia selaloe memakai edjaan jang terseboet,
 2. soepaja fractie Nasional di Volksraad mendesak Pemerintah oentoek memakai edjaan seperti jang dimaksoedkan oleh Konggres,
 3. soepaja perhimpoean kaoem goeroe soeka membantoe poetoesan Konggres.
- V. Setelah mendengar prae-advies toean Adi Negoro, tentang "Bahasa Indonesia di dalam persoeratkabaran", maka sepandjang pendapatan Konggres, soedah waktoenja kaoem wartawan berdaja oepaja mentjari djalan-djalan oentoek memperbaiki bahasa di dalam persoeratkabaran. Karena itoe berharap soepaja Perdi bermoeepakat tentang hal itoe dengan anggota-anggotanja dan komisi jang akan dibentoeak oleh Bestuur Konggres jang baroe bersama-sama dengan Hofdbestuur Perdi.

- VI. Sesoadah mendengarkan prae-advies Ki Hadjar Dewantara dalil ke-X jang disokong oleh toean R.M.Ng.Dr. Poerbatjaraka, maka Konggres Bahasa Indonesia memoetoeskan: bahwa Konggres berpendapatan dan mengandjoerkan soepaja di dalam pergoeroean menengah diadjarkan djoega edjaan internasional.
- VII. Sesoadah mendengarkan prae-advies toean Soekardjo Wirjopranoto tentang "Bahasa Indonesia dalam badan perwakilan" jang dioetjapkan dan dipertahankan oleh toean R.P. Soeroso, maka Konggres berpendapatan dan mengeloearkan pengharapan:
Pertama: soepaja moelai saat ini bahasa Indonesia dipakai dalam segala badan perwakilan sebagai bahasa perantaraan (voertaal).
Kedua: mengeloearkan pengharapan soepaja menoendjang oesaha oentoek mendjadikan bahasa Indonesia bahasa jang sjah dan bahasa oentoek oendang-oendang negeri.
- VIII. Sesoadah mendengar prae-advies toean Sanoesi Pane tentang "Instituut Bahasa Indonesia" dan mendengar pendirian Komite tentang hal itoe; maka Konggres Bahasa Indonesia memoetoeskan: soepaja diangkat soeatoe komisi oentoek memeriksa persoalan mendirikan soeatoe Instituut Bahasa Indonesia dan Konggres mengharapkan soepaja mengoemoemkan pendapat komisi tentang soal jang terseboet.
- IX. Sesoadah mendengarkan prae-advies toean-toean St. Takdir Alisjahbana, Mr. Muh Yamin dan Sanoesi Pane, maka Konggres berpendapatan, bahwa oentoek kemadjoean masjarakat Indonesia,

penjelidikan bahasa dan kesoesasteraan dan kemadjoean keboedajaan bangsa Indonesia, perloe didirikan Pergoeroean Tinggi Kesoesteraan dengan selekas-lekasnya.

Komite Konggeres Bahasa Indonesia

Ketoea Kehormatan: Prof.Dr. Hoesein Djajadiningrat

Ketoea: Dr. Poerbatjaraka

Wakil Ketoea: Mr. Amir Sjarifoeddin

Penoelis: Soemanang, Armijn Pane, Katja Soengkana

Bendahari: Soegiarti Nj. Mr., Santoso - Maria Ulfah

7. Kongres Bahasa Indonesia II, Medan, 28 Oktober - 2 November 1954
8. Kongres Bahasa Indonesia III, Jakarta, 28 Oktober - 3 November 1978
9. Kongres Bahasa Indonesia IV, Jakarta, 21 November - 26 November 1983
10. Kongres Bahasa Indonesia V, Jakarta
11. Undang-undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 2 Tahun 1989 tentang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional, Bab XI "Bahasa Pengantar":
Pasal 41:
Bahasa pengantar dalam pendidikan nasional adalah bahasa Indonesia.
Pasal 42:
 - (1) Bahasa daerah dapat digunakan sebagai bahasa pengantar dalam tahap awal pendidikan dan sejauh diperlukan dalam penyampaian pengetahuan dan/ atau keterampilan tertentu.
 - (2) Bahasa asing dapat digunakan sebagai bahasa pengantar sejauh diperlukan dalam penyampaian pengetahuan dan/ atau keterampilan tertentu.

UU No.2/1989 tentang Sispennas menggantikan:

1. Undang-undang Nomor 4 Tahun 1950 tentang Dasar-Dasar Pendidikan dan Pengajaran di Sekolah (Lembaran Negara Tahun 1950 Nomor 550);
2. Undang-undang Nomor 12 Tahun 1954 tentang Pernyataan Berlakunya Undang-undang Nomor 4 Tahun 1950 dari Republik Indonesia Dahulu tentang Dasar-dasar Pendidikan dan Pengajaran di Sekolah untuk Seluruh Indonesia (Lembaran Negara Tahun 1954 Nomor 38, Tambahan Lembaran Negara Nomor 550);
3. Undang-undang Nomor 22 Tahun 1961 tentang Perguruan Tinggi (Lembaran Negara Tahun 1961 Nomor 302, Tambahan Lembaran Negara Nomor 2361);
4. Undang-undang Nomor 14 PRPS Tahun 1965 tentang Majelis Pendidikan Nasional (Lembaran Negara Tahun 1965 Nomor 80);
5. Undang-undang Nomor 19 PNPS Tahun 1965 tentang Pokok-pokok Sistem Pendidikan Nasional Pancasila (Lembaran Negara Tahun 1965 Nomor 81).

4. Issues in the Implementation of Policy

Many years have gone since the 1994 curriculum was first introduced in primary schools. In the short time since implementation, several problems have been recognised, such as lack of qualified teachers, lack of resources, and lack of facilities. Most teachers teaching English in primary school have no English background. Only well-known private schools and certain public schools can afford teachers with English background to teach. There are a few resources available but they are, certainly, insufficient for EFL program in primary school and so are the facilities. Therefore, only certain primary schools in the cities implement English teaching to the pupils. Ironically, many well-

known private and several public primary schools in big cities throughout Indonesia taught English long before the government's policy launch. They usually start with year 3 students and some even start from year 1. Having English teaching in primary schools has an impact on a school's prestige in society. There is a trend for these rich schools to be considered 'better'. Indeed, this phenomenon does attract parents to send their children to primary schools which offer English.

Lack of qualified English teachers is the dominant problem faced by Indonesian primary schools. Even secondary schools require more English teachers. The decision to place English in primary schools as an elective subject is considered wishful thinking at this stage, taking into account this major problem. However, efforts are being made to eventually improve the quality of English language teaching regardless of the low financial support. In-service training for English teachers is being held every semester, with a limited number of English teachers attending. This aims to enhance teachers' capability and performance in teaching English especially to young learners. However, to run this program properly requires funding and this seems to be another problem since funding is not easy to get.

Resources and materials are another problem that needs to be taken into account. Although some textbooks for teaching English in primary schools have been published, the content of the books does not really accommodate primary school pupils' reading ability. Through my observations and interviews with English teachers in Manado, one of many problems they face is lack of sources of English-based songs. Songs are interesting for children because they bring fun and joy to them (Brown 1987). To cope with this lack of teaching materials, several Indonesian children's songs which are familiar to children have been translated into English.

Many years have passed since English was first taught in Indonesian high schools. These programs started by using traditional methods, such as grammar translation. Other methods were later employed like audio lingual and whole language, but not immersion. Immersion is left out in teaching English because of the policy which strongly rules Indonesian to be the instructional language in schools when teaching content subjects. However, a range of different methods has been introduced, including the so-called communicative approach. However students' English competency still remains more or less the same, despite the methods used. Many complaints were put forward by teachers about students' English competence. Most of them say that the students do not have a positive attitude towards English. Only those who are really interested in English are successful and those who are not are left behind. Dardjowidjojo (1998) notes that, despite the number of years allocated to learning English, the result has not been encouraging. He then goes on, "the majority of Indonesians, including many highly educated language scholars, do not master English well enough to absorb scientific materials written in English" (1998:45). The complaints are also about the huge administrative tasks that must be fulfilled such as preparing lesson plan according to the format for every class although the classes are parallel, teacher must make each lesson plan for each of these parallel class, annual programs, quarterly programs, analyse of the material, teaching plans, and work sheets. The teachers I interviewed argue that these tasks consume much of their time, cutting into lesson preparation time. The centralised curriculum is also another problem in that it stifles teachers' creativity. Based on various resources including my own experience, students complain about various matters relating to learning English, such as:

- a. English is difficult to learn (regarding methods and/or techniques as well as the subject matter itself)
- b. unfriendly teachers,
- c. structure-oriented lessons,
- d. limited time scheduled.

Providing standard teaching facilities, including foreign language teaching-learning aids, is necessary to support teachers and students in teaching and learning process. There has been progress in providing language laboratories to support the development of listening and speaking skills, but unfortunately these are still limited to certain public schools or private schools that can afford it.

D. Australia

Having discussed the implementation of foreign language teaching in primary schools in Indonesia and Thailand and since the thesis is about foreign language learning in primary schools, it is interesting to look at what a neighbouring country, Australia, does in terms of teaching foreign languages in its schools. Australia is the major western-type country located in the Asian region where English is the dominant language used almost universally. However, Australia is also recognised as a multicultural country, having been formed from different ethnic groups from all over the world.

English was introduced into the continent with the First Fleet in 1788. English displaced the Indigenous languages. Whilst it is spoken almost universally throughout Australia, it is regarded as a foreign language by many Indigenous Australians, including some whose first and only language is English. It is comparable to Dutch in Indonesia, except that Dutch did not manage to displace the languages of Indonesia.

Despite the fact that English is still regarded as a foreign language by sections of the small Indigenous minority, the reality is that English is the only language spoken by the vast majority. As far as language policy documents are concerned, migrant languages other than English are regarded as languages other than English, whilst English is the national language used for all official purposes in Australia.

In this section, I will briefly discuss the language policy in Australia followed by languages other than English (LOTE) in primary schools, with a focus on teaching Indonesian in South Australia. I will consider the Federal Policy as well as the State of South Australia policy. The States have responsibility to follow up the Federal Policy however, they also have their own right to adapt such policy according to the situation. I choose South Australia is because I am now temporarily residing in Adelaide, South Australia.

1. Language Policy

The need for a national language policy in Australia was raised because of the diversity of languages spoken (migrant languages, Aboriginal languages and English) in this country. This is addressed by Commonwealth Department of Education (1982:23) which stated that “the concepts of multiculturalism and the ‘global community’ have linguistic implications for Australian education and Australian social life ...”. Historically, the concern of having a policy on language started in the seventies, as reported by the Senate Standing Committee on Education and the Arts in a book called *A National Language Policy* (1984:1):

“A national policy on language was initially mooted in the mid-1970s. This proposal concerned the teaching of languages other than English Consideration was also given to the study of other languages, including Asian languages, Aboriginal languages and languages spoken by other ethnic communities”.

In 1979, a policy statement on multiculturalism was published by the Department of Education⁶. This statement puts forward the recognition of the multicultural nature in Australian society. It also acknowledges the role of schools in such a society. It aims to “reduce bias and prejudice, by developing in children an appreciation of the contributions different cultures can make towards a national identity” (‘Policy Statement on Multiculturalism’, 30 May 1979).

The governmental system in Australia has influenced the implementation of such a policy. Compared with Indonesia and Thailand, which have centralised systems where all policies come from the central government, Australia has a Federal government and State and Territory governments. In terms of a national policy, Lo Bianco (1987) in his book *National Policy on Languages* clearly defined the position and role of the Federal and State governments. It is stated that the Commonwealth has roles namely, “a responsive role in providing resources to the expressed needs of the authorities whilst concentrating on international education and other areas of exclusive responsibility, an actively involved in specific objectives such as the needs, opportunities and the rights of minorities, Aborigines, etc.” On the other hand, the State and Territory governments are concerned in different ways with “pre-school education, post-compulsory schooling, adult education, technical and further education and tertiary education. Thus, Australia as a federal country should involve a partnership between the States, Territories and Commonwealth of Australia working towards broadly shared common goals (Lo Bianco 1987).

Lo Bianco (1987:4) continues: “Language policies should be developed and coordinated at the national level on the basis of four guiding principles, namely:

6 ‘Policy Statement on Multiculturalism’, 30 May 1979, Education Office Gazette, Policy and Information Services Branch, Queensland Department of Education, p. 148

- competence in English
- maintenance and development of LOTE
- provision of services in LOTE
- opportunities for learning second languages”

To support this statement, Lo Bianco (1987:120) then explains further that

“This policy explicitly declares that the study of at least one language in addition to English ought to be an expected part of the educational experience of all Australian students, ideally continuously throughout the years of compulsory education”.

To implement a program, especially a national program, its goals should be stated clearly. The goals of LOTE in Australian schools are defined in the *White Book - Australia's Language* (1991): “The learning of languages other than English must be substantially expanded and improved to enhance educational outcomes and communication within the Australian and the international community”.

In implementing this policy, the role of the school is recognised as being important. It is realised that language teaching and learning efforts are to enhance Australia's place in Asia and the Pacific and its capacity to play its role as a full and active member of world forums (Lo Bianco 1987). Therefore, the purpose of learning LOTE, as cited in *Towards a National Language Policy* published by Commonwealth Department of Education (1982:14), is no longer purely for circumscribed academic reasons but increasingly for a wide range of other purposes:

- to gain an appreciation of other cultures and ways of thinking
- for travel
- for purposes of trade and defence
- for obtaining jobs
- for communication with Australians of a different ethnic background.

However, in South Australia, one of the Language Policy Working Party recommendations about LOTE states that

“programmes in languages other than English aimed at providing special support for refugee children entering mainstream schooling be recognised by the Education Department as a special need requiring an immediate response” (1983a:62)

Thus, in the country like Australia where the role of Federal and State governments is considered equal, one cannot impose its views on the other. However, understanding and similar perception of certain matters of debated such as language policy are of important part in the whole system so one should be of support to another. The next section will discuss the issues in the policy implementation.

2. Issues in the Implementation of Policy

a. LOTE in Primary School

The Primary Curriculum Committee in South Australia in November 1983 established a working party to investigate the teaching of languages other than English (LOTE) in primary schools. As a result of the input from the Curriculum Service Branch, ‘LOTE Programs in Primary Schools’ was published in March 1985. There are several reasons for teaching LOTE in primary schools, as stated in Resources Review by the Queensland Department of Education, Curriculum Service Branch (March 1987) as follows:

- children develop language ability more naturally in the early primary years, or even during preschool because there is a minimum interference from the mother tongue at this stage.
- a LOTE program is intended to develop an appreciation of other languages and cultures; it will be

more likely to achieve success with younger children who have had less exposure to racial prejudice.

- adolescents tend to demonstrate more self-consciousness among their peers and may find activities such as making ‘strange sounds’ more embarrassing than younger children.
- primary school children tend to enjoy activities such as singing, language development games and role play, which involve some repetition. Such activities are considered most appropriate to language practice and are more likely to result in language learning being seen as enjoyable.

Despite the rapid development of the LOTE program in primary schools, it has been reported by the Senate Standing Committee on Education and the Arts that major problems have been identified in “teacher education and in overcoming a certain amount of prejudice against teaching other languages” (1984). The Commonwealth Department of Education in the *National Survey of Language Learning in Australian Schools* (1983b:32) state that “in the primary schools, where there has been a greater readiness to innovate by introducing languages other than English, teacher availability was a bigger factor ...”. Therefore, a recommendation was made by the Senate Standing Committee on Education and the Arts that to expand language teaching, it is important to concentrate on the key areas of need, namely:

- the reliable supply of qualified staff;
- appropriate teacher training
- provisions for continuity of study at secondary school
- adequate supplies of teaching materials

Throughout Australia the languages other than English being taught in primary schools include: Adnamatana(sic),

Arabic, Chinese, Dutch, French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Latin, Macedonian, Malay, Maltese, Modern Greek, Pitjantjatjara, Serbi(sic)-Croatian, Croatian, Spanish, Turkish, Ukrainian and Vietnamese (Commonwealth Department of Education Australia 1982) among others. Later on, the focus is on a core of eight languages to be nominated by each State and Territory Minister from the following priority languages: Aboriginal languages, Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Modern Greek, Russian, Spanish, Thai and Vietnamese (White Book 1991).

In the National Policy on Languages (1987), Indonesian/Malay is considered one of the languages of wider teaching. More particularly, it was recommended for promotion due to currently inadequate resource levels. The term 'languages of wider teaching' according to this National Policy is

“a broad designation. It can be taken to mean that at a national level these languages warrant promotion over and above specific support for other languages since it is expected that more students will take these, that other languages and relatively more schools will teach these languages than other languages” (p.125).

b. Teaching Indonesian in South Australian Schools

Indonesian is not widely used in Australia although geographically Indonesia is Australia's closest Asian neighbour. Their geographical proximity plays an important role in the nature of the relationships between both countries however. The Federal Government in its National Asian Languages and Studies Plan shows a strong belief in the importance of gaining a familiarity with Asian cultures due to the position of Australia as a part of Asia. Therefore, in the policy of Languages Other Than English (LOTE), the Federal Government (1982) has determined four main languages to

be given priority. These are Indonesian, Japanese, Chinese and Thai (was formerly Korean).

The teaching of Indonesian, especially in South Australian schools, has experienced its ups and downs. The political and diplomatic relations between these countries as well the differences between the language policies of the State and Federal Government have affected the progress of Indonesian language teaching. For instance, in South Australia there are twelve foreign languages taught in schools. This is because South Australian society consists of various groups from around the world. This fact influences the expansion of Indonesian language teaching. It goes without saying that certain foreign languages grow faster because of the large number of people in the community who speak the languages, such as, Greek, Italian and Vietnamese.

In South Australia, Indonesian has been taught in schools since the sixties, though back then there were not as many programs as there are now. The teaching of Indonesian during that period was mainly within high schools and universities. In the seventies, it declined due to tense political and diplomatic relations which followed the Indonesian takeover of East Timor. The relationship became closer again in the eighties as Australia started to determine its position as a part of Asia. Since then, there has been a lot of progress in terms of the number of schools teaching Indonesian as the chosen foreign language. In 1990 there were 60 schools, while the latest data (1998) show that there are about 100 schools, both primary and secondary schools (but mostly primary schools) teaching Indonesian.

The development of foreign language teaching is definitely affected by the government policy. Taking into account the

educational system in Australia, which is much more flexible and decentralised, the role of policy, particularly from the Federal Government, is very important in that it requires schools to implement the teaching of foreign languages. As stated by the Indonesian Language Adviser “because of the policy, the system has to supply support and so does the State Policy”. Especially for teaching Indonesia in South Australia, its existence is greatly supported by the policy from the Federal Government since the South Australian government does not restrict foreign language teaching to Asian languages due to large numbers of migrants from a variety of non-Asian ethnic backgrounds.

After implementing the policy for several years, evaluation is essential to recognise the usefulness as well as the obstacles faced and in order to make improvements. An evaluation is very important, in order to be able to rectify the former policy to make it more applicable and appropriate for the present and predicted conditions. It is also expected to give solutions or at least strategies to the problems.

Apart from the political situation which influenced teaching of LOTE, in particular Indonesian, there have been other influences, notably the problem of teachers, the problem of resources, and the problem of funding from the government. These problems have had an impact on the development of teaching Indonesian in schools. Therefore, it is important to find solutions to these problems in order to improve the teaching practice.

Having implemented LOTE in primary schools for about a decade, South Australia is now entering the second decade. Lo Bianco in his Report (1995) concluded that “the focus on breadth of coverage of the 1986 State Language Policy was

an unqualified success". By taking into account the good and bad aspects of the previous policy, as identified in the Lo Bianco Report, and the issues raised by schools and other stakeholders, it has been developing a languages plan which sets policy for the next 10 years. The goal for this plan is that "By the year 2007, all students through R-10 will be learning a language other than English in quality programs that are an integral part of a broad and balanced curriculum". The implementation time line has been determined for the target outcomes so that:

- By the beginning of the year 2001 all schools will have planned for the long term provision of languages programs that focus on quality learning outcomes that are linked to the LOTE Statement and Profile.
- By the beginning of the year 2004 all junior primary and primary schools will have student achievement data that demonstrates growth of learning in languages, linked to the Statement and Profile and student standards.
- By the beginning of the year 2007 all schools will have student achievement data that demonstrates the growth of learning in languages, linked to the Statement and Profile and student standards (adapted from Summary of Languages Plan 1998-2007 – draft)

In the implementation of this plan, as defined in the Summary of Languages Plan, schools will be supported by quality assurance, teacher supply, curriculum, and learner pathways. The following range of languages: Aboriginal languages, Chinese (Mandarin), French, German, Greek, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Spanish and Vietnamese will have support from DETE in South Australia.

Despite its ups and down, teaching Indonesian in South Australian schools has increased since it was first introduced in the sixties. The role of policy from both Federal and State Governments helps strengthening the implementation of Indonesian as well as other LOTE. Regarding problems encountered, efforts have been made to look for the solution of the problems and evaluating the relevance of policy.

E. Comments on Language Policy

The language policies in three countries have been discussed in this chapter. However, there are several points to be noted. The general goals of policy stated the expectation of learning the target language in overall as shown in the following table over the page.

Thai EFL policy has been improved by lowering the starting age of introducing English in primary school since 1996. However, the general goals of policy does not change much except the addition of what to expect after learning English from year one. If we look at the policy statements especially the goals for EFL programmes in primary schools, many interpretations are possible. This actually opens the opportunity to develop creativity. However, the condition is not quite supportive because Thailand still has a centralised education system which makes this less possible. The policy statement is also completed with such a pathway which determines the topic and guide the teachers in arranging the teaching process, unlike the Indonesian EFL goals of policy for primary school which, for me, sounds more realistic. Here, it is stated clearly what should be achieved after learning English for certain periods in primary schools. For example, it sounds simple, but it is easy to understand and to measure later on that 'at the end of primary school, the pupils are expected to ... master at least 500 words'. The limitation is good in one side, especially Indonesia has just introduced TEFL in primary school recently, however, it is suggested to improve the policy as it develops over

time. Together with the policy, there is also teaching program which explains the topic and activities in class. Just like Thai EFL goals of policy, Australian LOTE policy is also general as far as the policy goals is concerned. I understand this as the influence of Australian decentralised education system which give more chance to be creative however LOTE pathways is provided to guide teachers in preparing the class. The goals in foreign language teaching is shown in the table below.

Referring to Thailand and Australia that have implemented FL long before Indonesia has, the problems occur are similar such as lack of qualified teacher including lack of language proficiency of the TL they teach, lack of resources and facilities. Considering these problems, I think it is fair in Indonesian not to introduce English as a compulsory subject in primary schools until the problems have found the solution, otherwise it would not produce a satisfactory result. Furthermore, I think, Thailand and Indonesia need to consider some aspects of LOTE in Australia which are applicable such as giving more freedom to schools and teachers to develop the EFL program based on the available resources and the environment. In a larger scale, decentralised education system is also important to be considered for application in Indonesian and Thailand due to more demanding, democratic and liberal education. It also opens more opportunity to improvements and creativity and to maximally use the local resources.

F. Summary

This chapter has presented the language policies in three different countries. The discussion has been divided into three main parts according to the country, Thailand first, followed by Indonesia, and then Australia. Each part discusses the policy as well as the issues of its implementation in primary schools. From the discussion, it can be seen that there are similarities among them in terms of the problems

regarding policy implementation. This was then commented in the section before this. The summary of discussion in this chapter can be looked at table 5.1.

In the next chapter, I will discuss classroom practice in terms of organisational matters and teaching approach. These are the main parts of the implementation of policy; how the policy is translated into the practice of teaching and learning in the classroom.



Chapter 5

Organisational Matters and Teaching Approach

Language policy and the issues of its implementation have been discussed in the previous section. In this section, the organisational matters and teaching approach will be presented to complete the discussion of the implementation of language policy in primary school foreign language teaching. The first part of this section will discuss aspects of the classroom which can be classified as organisational matters. These matters in turn affect classroom practice, which is covered in the second part.

A. Organisational Matters

1. Issues in the Classroom

In this section I will discuss the practice of foreign language classroom learning in the three different countries of my observation. The first part of my discussion will describe general issues found in the classroom data. The second part will be the analysis of the classroom data available. Comments are based on limited number of observation.

- a. General issues found in primary school classroom practices

In general, based on the samples, primary school classrooms in Indonesia, Thailand and Australia share similar

contexts which is foreign language contexts. However, the most similar are Indonesia and Thailand, not just because both are dealing with English as a foreign language but they also share similar education systems. In Australia foreign languages are better known as languages other than English (LOTE) as mentioned in the previous chapter. The Australian educational system is also different from Thailand and Indonesia. This has been addressed in the previous chapter.

In terms of the classroom situation, especially the atmosphere, Indonesian and Thai classrooms give a similar impression, i.e. they are formal and a bit tense, less spontaneity from students and monotonous. The evidence can be seen in the extract of classroom transcription. On the other hand, from an observation of two Australian classrooms, it looks that the atmosphere tends to be more relaxed, the situation is more pleasant and the classes are more dynamic. In this classroom the teacher tries to involve the students as much as possible in classroom activities. Seating arrangement is another factor. In Indonesia and Thailand, the seats are arranged in rows, the students have to sit facing the blackboard and the teacher's desk in front of the class; group seating is sometimes arranged if required, depending on the activity. It is different in Australia, where the students are arranged in groups of a maximum of 6 and also it is possible to for the students to sit on the floor if necessary.

In Indonesia and Thailand, having special classrooms for English in schools is not common and the English teacher usually just comes to the students' home classroom. If the school can afford to provide a sound laboratory - in Thai public primary schools, there is a government program to supply these as in Rusamillae PS in Pattani, Wat Tapod PS in Nakorhpathom- the students are directed to the laboratory if

required, according to the lesson. The primary school I visited in Adelaide has its special Indonesian classroom. In Australia, based on my informal talk with LOTE teachers attending the Global Citizenship Conference July 1999, most primary school, where one of a range of LOTEs is available, usually have a special classroom for the foreign language taught in the school. Therefore, whenever the students are scheduled to learn the language, they are directed to go to this foreign language classroom and the language teacher just waits for them in this room. The special room for language learning is well decorated and colourful; it is also supplied with teaching resources and teaching aids. From my point of view, it is much better if a school, primary school in particular, which offers a foreign language, for instance English, can provide a special classroom for the purpose of teaching and learning English. This will motivate the language teacher to be creative and to make an effort to provide as much information and teaching aids as possible in this class. As stated as follows: "The Indonesian classroom has good resources and very-well decorated. This help the teacher to use the teaching aids which are displayed and within a reach". On the side of students, having a special language classroom will give them more chance to learn from all the resources and learning aids (only if the classroom is completed with reasonable resources from the TL) and they can focus their intention and attention to this certain subject which they cannot receive in their home room. By providing a special language classroom, the process of language learning is supported because the teaching aids are accessible and mostly within a reach.

Having given my general impression of the Indonesian, Thai, and Australian primary school classrooms, I will shift my discussion to other classroom issues.

b. Specific issues in the classroom

In terms of classroom organisation, there are several matters which need to be discussed. These matters undoubtedly influence the teaching and learning process. In this section, the organisational matters are categorised into size of class and time allocation; personnel, in this case, the teacher; and teaching resources. Table 5.1. will show the summary of this section.

1) Size of class

Regarding size of class in primary schools, these three countries share similar problems, having more than an ideal number of students in a class. However, compared to Indonesian and Australian primary school classes, the size of Thai primary school classes, especially in private schools, is relatively large. In Thailand, the schools I observed show that the number of students in each class varies. The facts show that the schools located in town have more students in each class compared to schools located out of town. This is probably because the population in the urban areas is bigger than in the rural one. The average number of students in public schools are about 30-40 pupils each class. In certain private schools, the number of students in the class can even reach 50-56 pupils.

By contrast, in Indonesia the number of students is generally kept to a maximum of 30 in each class. In fact, the size of most Indonesian primary school classes is decreasing along with the success of family planning programme. However, the number of students in each class is still considered more than an ideal one. In South Australian primary schools the number of students in one class is also kept to a maximum of 30.

In regards to size of class, popularity because of the 'quality' of the school is also one factor that makes the number of students become enormous in certain schools. Some schools are considered to be better than the others. This phenomenon happens especially in Thai and Indonesian schools where education is considered very important but expensive. The trend seems to be that the better quality the school has, the more popular the school becomes, and the greater the number of students go to this school. Offering English in primary school is considered one factor to attract more students to attend the school. The availability of teachers and the facilities also contribute to the number of students in a class. If teachers and the facilities are well provided, students can be divided into several parallel class. These issues should be addressed properly because big size of class does influence the interaction in the classroom.

It is different in Australia where education is just taken for granted. Education field is given more attention and funding by the Australian government and every school is considered able to achieve an equally acceptable standard of education. Although public schools in Australia at the moment is having a problem of funding cuts from the Government, the overall condition of the public schools and the educational sector can still be considered better than most Indonesian and Thai primary schools. The schools also have equal opportunity to develop their own curriculum as long as it is in accordance with the statement of profiles determined by the Australian Education Council on behalf of the Government. Therefore, the problem of having big classes does not seem occur in schools.

However, as far as learning a foreign language is concerned, the big size of class is likely to be one of the obstacles in classroom interaction. This fact makes it difficult for the teachers anywhere to give the same attention to all the students in the class. Therefore with big class size, only those who really want to learn English can succeed. Furthermore, in terms of classroom interaction, particularly foreign language learning, if the size of class is big, the less opportunity the students have to talk. Thus, Long and Porter's observations (1985) show that, in a fifty-minute lesson of a class of thirty students in a public secondary school classroom, the opportunity to speak for each student is thirty seconds per lesson or one hour per year. Therefore it is ideal to have smaller class size, since the smaller the size of class, the better management the teacher will perform and the more opportunity the students will have to speak.

2) Time allocation

Time allocation is important, especially in learning a foreign language. It is considered a significant factor in classroom learning because how much time is allocated indicates how much interaction will potentially occur in a classroom. Long and Porter's observation (1985) about the opportunity for students to talk in classroom interaction that I mentioned previously is a good example of the importance of time allocation.

The amount of time in learning English in Thailand varies from school to school. The significant difference is between public and private schools. In year 5 and 6 in public schools, students learn English everyday (5 days per wk) for 1 period (50-60 minutes) each day. Year 1-4

students learn English for two hours in a week which can be divided into twice a week with 50 minutes each or 4 times a week with 30 minutes each. My interviews show that the schools are free to decide the instruction time which suits their situation. If there is a lack of English teachers, English is only taught in year 1 and 2 for 1 hour a week or it is split into two meetings for 30 minutes each per week. In some schools, English is taught in years 1, 2, 5, and 6. By way of contrast, English has been taught in years 1 to 6 for many years in private institutions even when there has been no policy yet stating that English should be taught from year 1.

In Indonesia, as I explained previously, English is not a compulsory subject at primary level but is one of the *muatan lokal* (local-content) subjects. Therefore, the amount of time allocated varies from school to school depending on the availability of teachers and facilities. However, in the Guidelines for English subject, it is explained that English can be taught from year 4 with time allocation of 12 hours for the first quarter and another 12 hours for the third quarter of the school year⁷. In year 5 and 6, it is allocated 12 hours for each quarter (Depdikbud 1994). It should be noted that in the Indonesian educational system, one academic year (1 year) is divided into three quarters of four months each, including school holidays. Private schools usually teach English for a period each week.

Time allocation for LOTE in Australian schools varies from school to school, depending on the ability of the schools themselves to perform LOTE teaching. At the

7 In the Indonesian school system, there are three quarters (terms) in each school year.

primary level, the time allocated for LOTE ranges from 1 hour to 90 minutes per week (Lo Bianco 1997). In South Australia, Indonesian, as one of the priority languages elected in 1995, is taught for a minimum of 90 minutes in primary schools (Lo Bianco 1997).

3) Personnel

In implementing foreign languages in schools, I found that the obstacles faced by personnel are similar in the three countries. My interviews with key persons in primary school FL programs in these countries express that personnel is also a problem that needs to be addressed. Guaranteeing the supply of qualified teachers seems to be the main problem faced in teaching foreign languages. The fact that the teacher who is teaching a foreign language does not have an academic qualification in the language she or he is teaching, especially in primary schools, is quite common. It means that it is still acceptable to know foreign language teachers have no such background. These teachers usually voluntarily teach the language based on reasons such as, that the schools could not find a teacher although the program had to be started, and with they have a little knowledge of the language or they like that language or they offer themselves to do the teaching or are appointed by the headmaster who knows they are able to speak the language and so forth.

Primary schools in Indonesia and Thailand face the problem of a lack of 'real' English teachers, that is teachers who majored in English. Most of the teachers teaching English in primary school have little training in the language. Their teaching specialisations vary from geography, science, history, Thai language, economics,

and so forth. Some teachers such as Teacher C, D, E and I do the teaching because they like the language. Teacher E in Nakornpathom Province, Thailand expressed: "I majored in Anthropology but I teach English because I like learning English". By contrast, those who teach in private institutions mostly have an English major background.

In South Australia, according to the ILA who refers to the data collected by LMRC, LOTE teachers stated that they teach the particular language although they did not major in it because they were asked by the principal to teach it. Thus, the principal will often ask teachers in his schools whom he knows have a foreign language background. For instance, if the principal knows that a teacher has an Italian background, he then will ask the teacher to teach Italian to the students in that school; Italian then becomes the language other than English taught in that school. The same happens in Indonesia, where the availability of English teachers is a problem.

Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) in their book *Language Planning, from practice to theory*, recognised three essential problems in teacher supply. These problems are: the source of teachers, the training of teachers, and the rewards for teachers. Thus, there are some steps which can be taken in order to overcome the problem of the availability of qualified teachers. In terms of the source of teachers, there are several possibilities, such as to retrain the existing language teachers of one language to the new target language so that they retain their teaching positions or to import teachers from a country where the target language is spoken natively. The training

of teachers is understood as another the problem. Pre-service training is essential to prepare candidate teachers and it is generally agreed that a minimum of three years training is required. In-service training is an alternative in order to give the teacher more information and practices about teaching the foreign language of his/her choice. Sending existing teachers for further university study is another alternative. Such training also permits teachers to maintain their level of proficiency (Kaplan and Baldauf 1997:132). The reward for teachers is the third problem which they raise. I very much agree with giving adequate rewards to the teachers of a foreign language because proficiency in another language should be recognised as a valuable ability. Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) suggest two kinds of incentives as rewards for teachers. Initial incentives are designed to defray the costs of getting trained both in the language and in general pedagogy, while long-term incentives are designed both to provide satisfying careers to language teachers and to encourage the maintenance of language proficiency.

In a developing country such as Indonesia, primary school teachers seem to have double responsibilities: professional and family responsibilities. Why? Because primary school teachers are mostly females who are married and their income is low. It is a fact that their time is mostly spent looking after the family and less after their main profession. This affects the quality of their teaching, due to less time for preparation or looking for new information. In such developing countries where teachers' welfare is not a priority, expectations of teachers can not be high, unfortunately. An exception is those who work in well-known private schools, where their

welfare is considered important in fact, their quality of work is higher. Therefore, I may say that there is a close link between teacher's welfare or, according to Kaplan and Baldauf's term 'rewards for teachers', and the quality of teaching they perform. In a developed country like Australia, such considerations are far less important.

4) D. Teaching resources

Teaching resources are important in order to support the teaching and learning process. If there is a range of materials available, the teacher should be able to select and choose one which is appropriate and suitable for the students. As far as language learning is concerned, the materials or teaching resources can be in the form of textbooks, audiocassettes or videocassettes.

In Thailand, most teaching resources are in the form of textbooks. There are various English textbooks for use in primary school, some written in both Thai and English, some all in English written by native speakers. All the textbooks are intended to be revised and improved every academic year, however in practice this depends on the funding availability. "English is Fun" was first introduced, as it is reported, in 1954. "On the Springboard" is developed at a major Thai university (Srinakharinwir ot Uni). Most public schools use the textbooks supplied by the government through the Office of National Primary Education Commission (ONPEC). Private schools use textbooks supplied by National Board for private education. These books are supplemented with workbooks and also teachers' books. Below is the example of typical exercises in textbook.

These English textbooks seem to follow similar patterns where they provide a lot of exercises with pictures or short texts. I have enclosed an example of the exercises above. If we look at the goals of teaching where the students are expected to communicate, such textbooks would not be able to meet the goals because doing exercises only will not make the students be able to speak.

In Indonesia, most teaching resources are also in the form of textbooks. There is a range of different textbooks available for teaching English in primary schools, published by private publishers. They are mostly written in English. However, unlike in secondary schools where English is a compulsory subject and the Department of Education and Culture publishes textbooks which serve as a compulsory resource, there is no such textbook for English in primary schools. Sometimes, teachers are expected to provide their own resources based on the English books available. Below is the example of typical exercises from textbook.

Based on the information I got, none of the available textbooks serve as the main and only resources for English subject. It is because English is part of local-content subject, and it is expected to be taught using local resources. Unless, the topic is on grammar. The textbooks are used when the topic of lesson is available in the books. The choice of textbooks also depends on a special agreement between school in this case teacher and the publisher. The following is the typical exercise in the textbook.

As found in Thai English textbooks, English textbooks in Indonesia also consist mostly of exercises although

there are sections for listening and speaking. Time spent for these activities is considerably less compared to doing exercises. Again, this does not meet the goals of teaching which is communication.

Beside these textbooks, teachers are also expected to create other activities which are attractive to students. Songs are one alternative. Unfortunately, most English songs adapted from English-speaking countries are not very appropriate for Indonesian children. Therefore, some popular songs created for children in Indonesia have been translated into English to cater the needs of songs in EFL program especially in primary schools.

In the Australian LOTE context, learners are classified into four categories which represent the stages of schooling (Australian Education Council 1994). Band A is the lower primary years (it is also called junior primary years), Band B is the middle to upper primary years, Band C is the lower secondary years, and Band D is the post-compulsory years. Because I am focussing on primary schools, only Band A and Band B are considered. At Band A, communication in LOTE focuses on students and their immediate environment, such as the classroom, and events and items of personal interest and significance. At Band B, students are learning to work cooperatively and have a growing awareness of appropriate social communication and behaviour. This categorisation helps the teacher to choose and decide which materials suit the students' level.

Materials are decided by teachers based on the students' category and the pathways developed by the curriculum adviser at the Language and Multiculturalism

Resource Centre, Newton SA. Australian teachers teaching Indonesian are given the opportunity to choose materials that support the topic as long as it is still in accordance with the statement and profiles (Curriculum Corporation), currently called as pathways (LMRC, Newton SA). The pathways is developed for each group (see previous section re: Band A, B, C) which are focussing on oral interaction as its linguistic dimensions. Basically, the pathways provide guidance of what to reach (language awareness) and so what should be done (functions and notions). It also notes the possible grammar, syntax, morphology and phonology to learn within the topic as well as the types of text. After all, it is believed that the teacher knows best the ability of his/her students because of their regular contact with the students.

The Indonesian language adviser at the Language and Multiculturalism Resource Centre admitted that there is a lack of resources for teaching Indonesian in South Australian schools since all the resources are developed in Australia. It is different from other LOTEs, such as Italian, Japanese, French, or German which have a lot of support and contribution from those countries. However, if we compare teaching resources for English in Indonesia, for instance, to teaching resources for Indonesian here, I have to admit that the resources for teaching Indonesian here in Australia are much better in form and variety. Moreover, the resources are not only in the form of textbooks, but also available in the forms of audiocassettes and videorecording.

There is a range of publications available resources for teaching Indonesian in South Australian primary schools.

Every published resource must go through the Resource Centre first to be examined as to its appropriateness for use in schools. However, as I mentioned above, teachers have the right to choose which particular resources from those available suit the children. Below is the example of typical exercise in textbooks.

From the range of textbooks available, it is hard to calculate which ones are used most because there is no information gathered about this. Moreover, as stated above, teachers have the right to make a choice of textbook being used therefore it might vary from school to school. Nowadays, a CD-ROM where the program of language is offered has been available for purchasing.

Having presented the organisational matters and the issues employed in it, the next section will discuss the teaching approach related to the evidence in classroom data.

B. Teaching Approach

1. Theoretical Background

There are two interpretations of learning, naturalistic or unconscious and instructed or conscious (Ellis 1994, Krashen 1982). Language learning program, terminologically, falls into the category of instructed or conscious learning, however, Tsui (1985) argues that in learning a second or foreign language both conscious and unconscious learning of the target language takes place. Tsui then explains further that “when the teacher is teaching an item explicitly and getting students to practise it, then conscious learning is going on; but when the teacher relates anecdotes or students relate their own experiences and express their ideas, unconscious acquisition is occurring” (1995:12). I

myself do not agree 100% with Tsui's ideas, however, I think it is true that learning language can be both conscious and unconscious depending on the situation. In this study, I focus on what is called by Ellis 'instructed language learning', looking at the practice of foreign language learning in primary education.

In the process of learning itself there are many influencing factors, such as the syllabus, the materials, the methods and techniques used, the teacher as well as the students, and so forth. All of these factors are believed to affect the result of the learning, in this case the learners' progress. Many educational experts such as Beebe (1985) and Allwright and Bailey (1991) agree that if these factors are better addressed, better results will be obtained. Regarding methods, Allwright and Bailey (1991) put forth that "method does matter, ..., but only to the extent that it makes a real difference to what actually happens in the classroom" (p.xvii). The result of the Pennsylvania Project by Smith cited in Allwright and Bailey (1991), for instance, where the audiolingual method was compared with the traditional method, shows the similarity of outcomes of the methods being compared. Scherer and Wertheimer's work (1964) also found no significant differences overall after a two-year trial period comparing the modern audiolingual method with the traditional grammar-translation method. Therefore, what really matters is something that happens in the classroom, namely the so-called classroom interaction. As Allwright and Bailey (1991:9) put forward that "... something below the level of technique (something more interactive and less obviously pedagogic) takes place, and that this interaction (that is whatever actually happens in the classroom) ..." makes a difference to learners' progress. Johnson (1995:81) also pointed out in her book that "...the teacher-student interactions that take place in classrooms can, ..., have an important impact on how students use a language and what they ultimately learn.

Regarding classroom interaction, according to Allwright and Bailey (1991) there are three aspects of a classroom language lesson usually called ‘planned aspects’ that is *syllabus, methods,* and *(social) atmosphere* and also there are three outcomes usually called ‘co-produced outcomes’, namely *learners’ receptivity, practice opportunities,* and the *input*. The relationship between plans and outcomes is described in the following chart which is adapted from Allwright and Bailey (1991:25) :

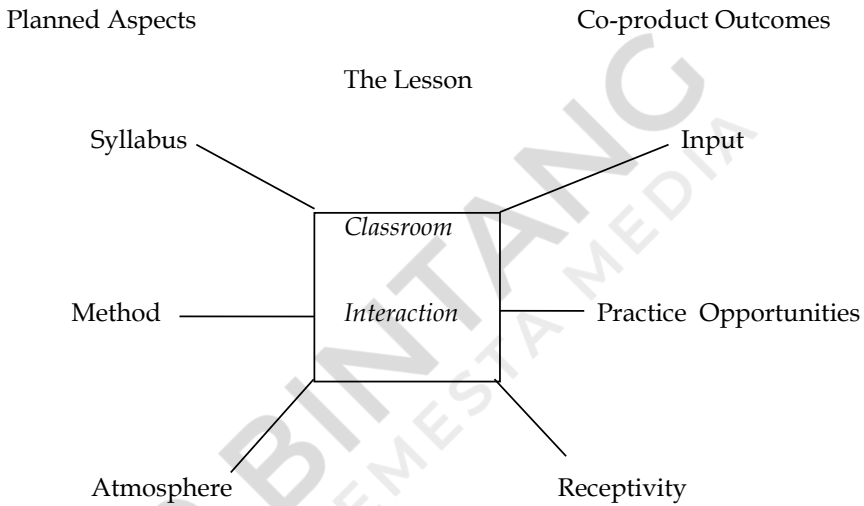


Figure 5.1. Relationship between plans and outcomes

Classroom interaction can happen if teachers as well as students get involved or participate in this activity. It is certainly unreasonably true that the teacher is the only one who has the power in classroom and the learners have none. In fact, "... while teachers have a certain amount of power in the classroom, learners also clearly influence the pace and direction of the interaction" Allwright and Bailey (1991:149). Johnson (1995:39) also supports Allwright and Bailey saying that "... what students bring to classrooms and how they talk, act, and interact in classrooms contributes to the dynamic of communication in second language classrooms".

Whilst, on the side of the teachers, Johnson (1995:38) continues “... the dynamics of classroom communication are shaped not only by what teachers say and do, but also by who they are and what they bring to the classroom”. However, as Allwright and Bailey (1991:18-19) point out “... no matter what they all bring, everything still depends on how they react to each other (learner to learner as well as teacher to learner) when they all get together in the classroom ... interaction, in class or anywhere, has to be managed, as it goes along, no matter how much thought has gone into it beforehand ... it has to be managed by everyone taking part, not just by the teacher, because interaction is obviously not something you just do to people, but something people do together, collectively.

In the classroom interaction, especially in language learning, “the language used affects the nature of the interaction, which in turn affects the opportunities for learning that are made available” (Tsui 1985:7). More importantly, as Tsui (1995:7) points out, “the language used by the teacher does affect the language produced by the learners”. Therefore, teacher talk and student talk are important aspects in classroom interaction, although interaction can also be non-verbal. These two main features can be elaborated into six aspects as follows:

Teacher question

Teacher feedback and error treatment

Teacher explanation

Modified input and interaction

Turn-allocation and turn-taking behaviour

Student talk

(Adapted from Tsui 1995:12-20)

If we look at the elaboration of the aspects in classroom interaction, it is clear that teacher talk plays an important role in

classroom interaction; as Tsui (1995:13) points out, “teacher talk not only takes up the largest portion of talk but also determines the topic of talk and who talks ... it is therefore a very important component of classroom interaction”.

A typical pattern in verbal classroom interaction is teacher asking question - learner answering the question - teacher giving a feedback. These activities are also known as initiation-respond-feedback (IRF) (Mickan 1999). Sometimes, a teacher has to ask the questions several times in order to have student's respond, or the question needs to be modified to help the student understand better. “The modification of questions to make them comprehensible to students and to elicit response is another important area of classroom interaction” explained Tsui (1995:14).

There are two types of question which are typically used in classrooms:

- a. *Closed and open questions.* Barnes (1971) defines ‘closed questions’ have only one acceptable answer; whereas to ‘open questions’ a number of different answers would be acceptable, and
- b. *Display (knowledge-checking) and referential questions.* Long and Sato (1983) differentiate ‘display question’ (also called ‘evaluative’, ‘test’ or ‘known information’ questions) as questions asked to establish the addressee's knowledge of the answer to ‘referential questions’ as are intended to provide contextual information about situations, events, actions, purposes, relationships, or property.

Of course, “the kinds of question asked have important effects on student responses and the kinds of interaction generated.” (Tsui 1995:30). Both open and referential questions give more opportunity for the students to use their prior knowledge in order to achieve new information. The explanation and feedback are

also considered significant parts of teacher talk “given that the role of the teacher is to make knowledge accessible to students” (Tsui 1995:30).

Modifying these aspects of classroom interaction is important in order to involve the students maximally in the learning process. Regarding language learners, Seliger (1977) put forth two types of language learners, namely:

- a. *High-input generators (HIGs)* who participate actively in conversations and consequently generate plenty of input from other people
- b. *Low-input generators (LIGs)* who participate minimally and hence deprive themselves of obtaining input from other people

Although this research has been challenged, I agree to use these terms when looking at learners’ participation.

Types of learners as mentioned above do affect the classroom interaction especially since “in language classrooms, where the target language is used as a medium of communication, classroom interaction becomes even more important since the target language is at once the subject of learning and the medium of learning” (Tsui 1995:22). Therefore, it is important for a teacher to recognise types of each student in a class so that good classroom interaction can be promoted.

2. Analysis of Classroom Data

Having stated the background regarding classroom interaction, I will now present the classroom data I obtained. I will divide the discussion into two parts. The first is based on the six aspects found in classroom interaction mentioned previously and the second is according to the country in which the research took place.

a. Aspects of classroom interaction

In this part, I am particularly focussing on the six general aspects occurring during classroom interaction. In the previous section I quoted the six aspects from Tsui's book *Classroom Interaction* (1995) and now I will analyse whether those aspects are evident in the classroom data.

1) Teacher questions

Questions are a very important aspect in classroom interaction. Chaudron (1988) in his studies about teachers' questioning behaviour shows that 20-40 per cent of classroom talk consists of questions. Tsui (1985) reported the findings of a study of English lessons in Hongkong schools showing that teacher asking questions, nominating a student to answer the question, student answering question and teacher giving feedback constitute nearly 70 per cent of classroom activity. Regarding types of questions asked in this classroom data, it looks like that most of the questions asked are closed and display question type (see 1a and 1d for example). There is also a few open and referential types of question such as shown in extract 1b and 1i.

The following extract is taken from a year 4 EFL classroom in an Indonesian primary school. This is the first year of learning English because English is first introduced in year four in this school.

1a

T: What is this?

C: It is a ear

T: It is an ear.

C: It is an ear

T: What is this?

C: *It is a nose*

T: *What is this?*

C: *It is a chin*

T: *What is this?*

C: *It is a mouth*

The teacher is testing the ability of her students in mastering the last lesson about parts of the body. She addresses the questions to the whole class, the students answer, then the teacher gives them feedback, in this case, correcting the article 'a' to 'an'. The questions asked by the teacher can be categorised as closed questions, because the answer is exact. *Ear, nose, chin, mouth* are the expected answers the students will give.

Below is another example of teacher question addressed to students. The extract is taken from year six EFL in a Thai primary school. The students have been learning English since year one.

1b

T: *"Can you make a sound of frog?"*

T: *"Make a sound of frog"*

T: *"Ooogh ... ooogh ..."*

S: *"Ooogh ...ooogh ... (students laugh)"*

T: *"Make me a sentence ..."*

S: *"I don't like snake"*

T: *"Why?" (said something in Thai) "It is ... ugly"*

T: *"Spider" repeat after me "spider"*

C: *"Spider" ... "spider"*

T: *"Make a sentence with spider"*

C: *"I don't like spider"*

In this example, the first question followed by a request asked by the teacher is a closed question because

the students are expected to have the same answer based on their existing knowledge about the sound of frog. And, yes, they produce similar responses when led by the teacher. The next question, which has been re-formulated to sound like a request can be considered as a referential question, not just because it has a range of acceptable answers but also because the teacher does not have the answer yet. The later questions are of the same type. What is missing in text **1b** is the teacher's verbal feedback to students' responses. The questions produced are not only to check their comprehension about the text but also to develop their ability to use and relate the new knowledge with their existing knowledge. Because questions are an important part of classroom interaction, they should be prepared, formulated and modified well in order to maintain the interaction in the classroom. The studies of teachers' questioning behaviour done by Chaudron (1988) show that questions consist of 20-40 percent of classroom talk. However, it sometimes happens in classrooms that the teacher seems to ignore the question she/he asks, especially if there is no response from the students. Let us see another extract below:

1c

(This class is talking about the things in the bag. The teacher then shows the bag and asks this question)

T: This is big or small?

C: (silent)

T: Today I have memory games for you, memory games for you.

This example shows that the teacher, instead of making her question clearer by adding more explanation, for instance, automatically changes the topic. This will

cause confusion to the students. In responding to students' silence, the teacher should take action, not suddenly move to a new topic. It is true that this situation usually happens if the teacher wants to keep on the plan, he does not want to be behind the schedule. However a teacher should always try to take control on him/herself in order to provide positive stimulus and respond because if a teacher tends to always cut off, it is potentially to create confusion in students. It may gradually cause students having negative impression then develop negative attitudes towards the subject.

Thus, it is better for teachers to always follow up the questions they make and try not to leave them when move to the next one so the students will get clear and better comprehension of what is being talked about. Some of the classroom data show that teachers tend to change the topic and ignore the question if it has not been answered for a while. The students may not know the answer or they may not understand the question. Therefore, teachers should be able to respond to such situation, probably, it may helpful if teachers paraphrase the question.

2) Teacher feedback and error treatment

In the classroom extract **1a**, in line 3 the feedback as well as error treatment done by the teacher is clearly seen although it is just a simple example. Below is an extract taken from a Thai year six EFL classroom.

1d

T: What's this?

C: bag

T: a bag. You say bag.

T: What's this?

C: box.

T: a box

C: a box.

T; This?

C: doll

T: a doll

C: a doll

T: a doll

C: a doll

T: This?

C: gun

T: a gun

C: a gun

T: a gun

C: a gun

In the above data, the teacher is checking the students' vocabulary based on a text they are learning. She also corrects the wrong pronunciation of those words. In this case, the teacher does the error treatment immediately, as it is possible in this situation. Other errors can not be treated immediately because the explanation will consume much time. That is why error treatment is delayed in certain cases. However, the teacher sometimes forgets to give error treatment if the delay is too long.

The following is another example of immediate error treatment taken from a Thai year 1 EFL classroom.

1e

T: big

C: big.

T: big

C: *big*

T: *bag*

C: *bag*

T: *bag*

C: *bag*

T: *big bag*

C: *big bag*

T: *big book*

C: *big book*

T: *big box*

C: *big box*

T: *big box*

C: *big box*

T: *big bag*

C: *big bag*

T: *It's a big bag*

C: *It's a big bag*

T: *It's a big box*

C: *It's a big box*

T: *It's a big book*

C: *It's a big book.*

This extract shows the teacher doing an error treatment regarding pronunciation. She does the treatment repetitively because she is not satisfied at the sounds her students produce if she just does it once or twice. Feedback and error treatment are important elements in classroom interaction because they help not only students but also teachers towards better understanding of the lessons.

3) Teacher explanation

Explanation is commonly used in vocabulary when a teacher explains certain words which are new to students.

It is also useful when teaching grammar, especially in explaining the rules. The following data illustrate teacher explanation:

1f

T: Jadi, kalau 'on' itu apa artinya? Di, di opo?

[T: So, what is the meaning of 'on'?]

C: (indistinct)

T: di atas. Jadi kalau 'on' itu di atas. Kalau 'in', in the bedroom, di dalam. In [the] living room, in the kitchen, di dalam ya. Jadi kalau in itu di dalam, kalau on itu di, apa tadi?

[T: on top. So, 'on' means 'di atas' (Ind.). In, in the bedroom, means 'di dalam' (Ind.). In the living room, in the kitchen, 'di dalam' (Ind.), ya. So, if 'in' is 'di dalam', what is 'on'?]

C: di atas

[C: on top]

T: di atas, kalau in di dalam.

[T: on top, and in is in side (di dalam, Ind.)]

In the above data, the teacher is explaining the meanings and the different usages of the prepositions 'in' and 'on'. Explanation is in the hand of the teacher and it is very important. However, Tsui (1995:16) states that "inappropriate explanation or over-explanation hinder rather than help students to comprehend." Therefore, teachers should also be aware of making inappropriate explanation in order to avoid hindrance for students.

4) Modified input and interaction

The speech produced by the teacher in the classroom is different from the speech produced outside the classroom. The speech teacher produced in the classroom tends to

be modified with a purpose to make their speech more comprehensible to the student. Tsui (1995:17) points out in her book *Classroom Interaction* "... teachers tend to modify their speech by speaking more slowly, using exaggerated intonation, giving prominence to the key words, using simpler syntax and a more basic vocabulary". However, Tsui then goes on, "more recent studies have pointed out that simply modifying the input is no guarantee that the input has been made comprehensible to students. The following example is taken from year $\frac{3}{4}$ primary school learning Indonesian.

1g

(In this extract, the teacher is counting the number of students in year 3 and those in year 4. L=Lina, from the Language and Multiculturalism Resource Centre and N=Nihta, myself; we were in the class)

T: year threes, put your hand up. year three children, hand up. year three.

L: wow! tinggi sekali! tinggi, ya.

[L: wow! Very high! high, isn't it?]

T: you're tinggi, you are tall

[T: you're tall, you are tall.]

L: siapa di kelas empat?

[L: who is in year four?]

N: angkat tangan

[N: raise your hands.]

L: kelas empat. ya! bagus. Tinggi.

[L: year four, yes! Good. High.]

T: did you understand me? some did. you know that you're kelas empat (year four). you're year four. and we'll have year threes first then we'll have year fours. not too bad, are they? and any more?

T: anak-anak ... kelas tiga. hands up year three, then we'll count.

[T: children ... year three, hands up, year three, then we'll count.]

T: ... you speak Indonesian, can't you?

C: satu dua tiga empat lima enam tujuh delapan sembilan sepuluh sebelas <anak & guru> duabelas tigabelas.

[C: one two three four five six seven eight nine ten eleven (children and teacher) twelve thirteen.]

T: terima kasih ...

[T: thank you]

The underlined sentence is showing the modified input the teacher produced. In this situation, the teacher suspects that not all the students understand what she said so she decides to repeat what she said in different ways, modifying it to make simple and easy for the students to understand.

1h

T: Okay, ada dua kerjas hari ini [two jobs today]. We have two jobs to do. Tugas nomor satu [Job number one], here is your term summary of the things you've covered this term. What's the topic been, Ralph?

L15: Happy birthdays.

T: How do you say 'happy birthday'?

L15: Selamat ulang tahun [happy birthday]

T: So, that's our topic. Have a look, you're going to read through our summary. Kamu akan membaca [you will read], then you're going to put your name, and then we'll collect them all up again, so that I can make a 'commenter'[comment], comment on how you've been working this term. Ssst ...

Above is another example taken from the same class as the previous excerpt. Here, the teacher translates the target language she used into learners' native language in order to make her explanation about what the students will be doing understandable. For me, using both languages in the form of translation is another way of modifying the teacher input. It is aiming to produce more comprehensible talk.

5) Turn-allocation and turn-taking behaviour

As I have discussed in the preceding part of this chapter, interaction in the classroom can be teacher-student, student-teacher and student-student interaction. Classroom interaction means two parties participate in this activity. However, it is a fact that the teacher is more dominant than the students and students' involvement depends on the teacher. Tsui (1995:73) states that "since the classroom is a place where the teacher is the figure of authority who decides who has the right to speak and when, student's turn-taking behaviour is often affected by the teacher's turn-allocation behaviour". There are two kinds of turn-taking behaviours as defined by Tsui (1995), 'solicited turns' is when a teacher seeks an answer and nominates a student to answer and 'unsolicited turns' is when a student voluntarily contribute without being appointed. The following excerpt shows that the teacher's turn-allocation behaviour affects student's turn-taking behaviour.

1i

T: Kym, apakabar, hari ini apakabar (sambil menunjukkan gambar beberapa ekspresi wajah dan namanya seperti, gembira, sedih, panas, dst.)

[T: Kym, how are you today] (showing some pictures of several facial expressions such as happy, sad, hot, and so forth)

L1: Saya panas.

[L1: I am hot.]

T: Chris, apakabar?

[T: Chris, how are you?]

L2: Um ... saya merosok [merasa] panas dan sedih.

[L2: Um ... I feel hot and sad.]

T: Panas dan sedih. Mengapa?

[T: Hot and sad. Why?]

L2: Uhm, I had fight with Christine when playing with my skateboard

T: Aah, sayang ... tidak bagus ... terima kasih, Chris ...

Kym (shout to Kym who's talking)

[T: Aah, it's a pity ... it's not good ... thank you, Chris ... Kym] (shout to Kym who's talking)

T: Allan, apa kabar?

[T: Allan, how are you?]

L3: Saya merasa panas.

[L3: I feel hot.]

T: Panas. Besok lebih panas, saya mendengar. Yeah, tomorrow even hotter. Shaileigh, apa kabar?

[T: Hot. Tomorrow is even hotter, I heard. Shaileigh, how are you?]

L4: Saya ... sedih

[L4: I am ... sad.]

T: Sedih?

[T: Sad?]

L4: Senang.

[L4: Happy.]

T: Senang, Ooh ..., terimakasih, senaaang. Jay, apakabar?

[T: Happy. Ooh ..., thank you, happy. Jay, how are you?]

L5: *Saya merasa sedih.*

[L5: I feel sad.]

T: *Ha? Sedih, mengapa?*

[T: Ha? Sad, why?]

L5: *'Coz we've lost in basketball*

T: *Ooh ... Christine, apakabar?*

[T: Ooh ... Christine, how are you?]

L6: *Saya ... saya merasa sedih*

[L6: I ... I feel sad.]

T: *Sedih juga. Mengapa? Why?*

[T: Sad, too. Why?]

L6: *Because I've got in a fight with Chris.*

This is an example of the teacher deciding whose turn to speak during that period of learning. This turn-taking behaviour is classified as the solicited turns because teacher nominates who to answer.

6) Student Talk

So far I have been discussing how important students' involvement is in classroom learning. This involvement is very much related to students' participation and student talk. This aspect becomes more important in the case of learning a foreign language. Swain (1985) points out that the production of comprehensible output is also essential to the acquisition of the target language. However, there are many factors which influence students' production in foreign language learning classroom such as being shy, afraid of making mistakes, nervous, as well as cultural background influences and so forth. Tsui (1995) explains that classroom anxiety is a phenomenon found in all classrooms, however, unique factors are related to second

or even foreign language learning. Thus, mastering the target language and performing it at the same time is not an easy process and that is why, the foreign language classroom can engender specific stated of anxiety.

Talking in the target language is the best way for learners to master the TL, it could happen if the learners are given opportunities to do so. Long and Porter cited in Mickan (1997:90) suggest learners to work in groups on task which require them to use the TL. In these classroom data, there is no student talk as described above. The talk produced by students occurs mostly because of teachers' initiation as shown in several previous excerpts. In some observed classes students are sitting in groups however the task is not group task but individual task. Therefore, learners are not stimulated to talk the TL since the task did not require it.

Regarding student participation, Allwright and Bailey (1991) warned that students should not be forced to participate before they are ready to do so. Teachers who are not aware of this will be pushing students to be active and this may end up with students having negative attitudes. Such a situation is, in fact, not good because it may not promote the condition where the students will be able in talking the TL. Therefore, the teacher should be able to sense the style of individual students and encourage them to talk when they are ready to perform the TL utterances. Cultural and social background is another aspect that affects student's hesitation to participate. If the students are grown up in the condition that they are taught not to talk much but to be a good listeners, such habits will affect them

to perform student talk. However this kind of students should be given more encouragement so they may not feel shy to speak. The teachers' role is important in this matter.

b. Classroom Data in Contexts

In this section, I will describe the practice of teaching English as a foreign language in Thai and Indonesian primary school classrooms by presenting several extracts of classroom activities transcribed from audio-tape and notes from classroom observation (when audio-tape recording was not available). This aims to give a clear description of how English is taught and learned in Thai and Indonesian classrooms. Language policy will also be taken into account and any problems regarding policy and practice will be raised. I will then look at classroom interaction of Indonesian classes in South Australian school. It should be noted that I was not able to observe every year level in all primary schools visited. The Thai context will be discussed first, followed by the Indonesian context, and at the end the Australian context will be presented.

1) Thai Context

In teaching English, teachers in Thailand use both languages, Thai and English. Most instructions are in English, and the children seem to understand as long as it is a routine instruction. To check whether the children understand or not, especially if a new topic is introduced, the teacher uses the mother tongue.

The choice of language used in the classroom very much depends on the teacher's capability in using the target language, in this case English. In some classes, I found that English is heard just for greetings and other

than that, Thai is used most of the time. As regards the learners, as far as the classrooms I observed are concerned, the language used among them is mostly the mother tongue. The target language is used when they are addressed by the teacher individually. Repetition happens most of the time especially in classical responses where the students respond in unison. Repetition is important in second or foreign language learning, especially in pronunciation. Following is an extract of classroom interaction which shows repetition:

T: (showing a chart with the word : FROG written on it both in English and in Thai) *"Frog, repeat after me!"*

C: *"Frog"* (in unison).

T: (ask the students to make the sound of a frog)

C: (laughing.....)

T: (give example of how frog sounds)

C: (practising the sound of frog)

T: *"Make me a sentence about [a] frog"* (mentioning this 5 x), *"put your hand [up]"*

S: *"I don't like frog[s]"*

T: *"I don't like frog[s]"*, *repeat after me* (asking the class)

C: *"I don't like frog[s]"*

T: *"Can you make a sound of frog?"* [*Can you make a frog sound*]

T: *"Make a sound of frog"*

T: *"Ooogh ... oooogh ..."*

S: *"Oooghoooogh ..."* (students laugh)

T: *"Make me a sentence ..."*

S: *"I don't like snake[s]"*

T: *"Why?"* (says something in Thai) *"It is ... ugly"*

T: *"Spider" repeat after me "spider"*

C: *"Spider" ... "spider"*

T: *"Make a sentence with spider"*

C: *"I don't like spider"*

T: *"Squeezing"*

S: *"I am squeezing an orange [juice]"*

T: *"swallowing"*

C: *"swallowing"*

T: (teacher explained in Thai what swallowing means)

T: *"I am eating [a] banana". "how many banana[s]?"*

T: *"Repeat after me : frog"*

C: *"frog"*

T: *"snake"*

C: *"snake"*

T: *"spider"*

C: *"spider"*

T: *"poison"*

C: *"poison"*

T: *"squeezing"*

C: *"squeezing"*

T: *"eating"*

C: *"eating"*

The above extract is taken from the year 6 classroom. It shows a typical classroom interaction where repetition happens most of the time during the lesson presentation. Sometimes the teacher asks a student to make a sentence or answer a question but it may not be a meaningful action since the actual sentence has been provided and the students just need to change part of the sentence. Although the answer the students give is correct, it does not always mean that they understand. In fact, they may just be imitating without understanding. It is shown in the following extract:

T: *This is a pencil. This is a pencil.* (showing a pencil)

C: *This is a pencil.*

T: *What is this?*

C: *Pencil.*

T: *What's this?*

C: *Pencil.*

T: /sel/, /sel/ *mai chai*[no, it's not like that] /se/, /sel/

C: *Pencil.*

T: *This is a pen. This is a pen. Repeat after me : pen.*

C: *pen.*

T: *pencil*

C: *pencil.*

T: *This is a pen.*

C: *This is a pen.*

T: *This a pencil.*

C: *This a pencil.*

T: *Again*

C: *This is a pencil.*

T: (showing a pen)

C: *This is a pen.*

T: *Again.*

C: *This is a pen.*

T: *Listen ... listen ... 'This is a rubber', rubber, rubber.*

C: *rubber, rubber,*

T: *This is a rubber.*

C: *This is a rubber.*

T: *What's this?*

C: *This is a rubber.*

T: *What's this?*

C: *Rubber*

T: *What's this?*

C: *Rubber.*

T: This is a ruler, ruler, ruler.

C: Ruler, ruler, ruler.

T: This is a ruler.

C: This is a ruler.

T: This is a ruler.

C: This is a ruler.

T: What's this?

C: This is a rubber.

T: What's this?

C: Ruler.

T: What's this?

C: Rubber.

....

The interaction between teacher and learners in the class is formal and teacher-centred, the teacher being the one who dominates the process of teaching and learning rather than the learners. In this situation, it is difficult to have a natural understanding of a language in the classroom since the atmosphere of the class does not promote the naturalistic climate of learning process. The question 'what is this?' addressed to students when showing them pen or pencil, as I stated before, does not make them understand the language. It is probably more meaningful for teacher asking her students to mention things in their school bag or in their pencil box, for example rather than asking 'what is this' when holding a pen, especially if the goal of the lesson of the day is to introduce to them items used for school.

Referring to the goals of policy, the learning activities in classrooms in terms of creating positive attitude of students towards English and being able to respond in a simple English have been developing well however in

order to achieve the goals maximally the activities need to be more improved.

2) Indonesian Context

The situation in primary school classrooms in Indonesia where English is taught is more or less the same as in Thailand, especially in terms of the seating arrangements, the formality between teacher and learners, and the classroom setting. The role of the teacher is seen as dominant. Although a few years ago, the so-called Cara Belajar Siswa Aktif -CBSA (students' active learning style) was introduced, the situation remains more or less the same because it was just a name, the practice is still the same where teachers are the ones who hold the power in class. The teaching and learning activity is still understood as an action of a mother feeding her children, the teacher is the one who holds the power as far as the classroom is concerned, and the learners just take this for granted.

For most Indonesian learners, English is considered as their third or even fourth language. Indonesian is mostly known not as the mother tongue but at least as a second language. This is because the mother tongue is usually a dialect or a vernacular (local) language, especially for those who live in the country. That is the reason why the lesson is carried out using both Indonesian and English. In some parts of Indonesia, we can even find the English lesson being presented using another language as well as Indonesian and English, for example when the local language is the language most people speak in that society rather than Indonesian. Dialect is commonly used combined with Indonesian,

apart from book-based English as shown in the following extract of my classroom data. I understand it is similar in other schools as well.

C: They are colful [colourful]

T: They are colourful. Ayo bersama-sama (Let's try together), kok banyak yang diam gini, gimana (why many of you just keep silent)? H. How are the kites?

C: They are colourful.

The words in bold form are not standard Indonesian but are used together with Indonesian, since the teacher is trying to encourage all students to speak and respond to her.

Like in Thai classrooms, many repetitions occur in Indonesian primary school classrooms. The activity is very much based on the books; the teacher reads, students repeat, just following what is written in the book. From the recordings I have, each class has lots of repetitions. The following extract shows this:

T: Now, number 8. Study the sentences. Now, listen and repeat.

T: Don't worry.

C: Don't worry.

T: Don't play in the street.

C: Don't play in the street.

T: Don't go.

C: Don't go.

T: Don't write

C: Don't write

T: Don't close your book

C: Don't close your book.

T: Bring your kite.

C: Bring your kite.

T: Open your book.

C: Open your book.

T: Sit down.

C: Sit down

T: Come with me.

C: Come with me.

T: Hold on the kites.

C: Hold on the kites.

Such lesson styles do not provide much activity for children in learning English, yet learning English at an early age should be made interesting in order to attract attention and develop a positive attitude towards the lesson. Children just imitate exactly what the teacher says. If children may learn something it is probably the pronunciation and the familiarity towards English words. Activities such as repetition and drilling are appropriate for pronunciation and therefore should be improved. However, at the same time teachers should also be well trained in using the target language because the students will automatically listen and follow the teachers. Otherwise the goals of policy would not be met.

Overall, the activities in classroom learning do not support the general goals to be achieved due to several factors. Teachers' proficiency in English is still in need to be improved. Although, English is still not a compulsory subject it does not mean that it is not important. In fact, TEFL program in primary schools has not been given optimal attention for it to develop well. However, referring to the actual goals for TEFL in primary school stated in chapter 4, if this program is managed properly and seriously, the goals may be attained.

3) Australian Context

The following discussion is based on my only observation in one primary school located about 30 kilometres to the south of Adelaide. In this school, Indonesian is the only LOTE for children to learn and is taught at every level, beginning from kindergarten, reception and year one until year seven. The teacher is an Australian, a middle-aged woman who enjoys very much teaching Indonesian to the children.

Since Australia is a multicultural country, the children have various backgrounds. Therefore, their first language varies according to the parents' background. However, English is the language used for communication throughout Australia, so I assume that English is the language children experience most. In this school, Indonesian is considered as the target language to learn.

In the classes I observed, both teacher and students try to speak the target language to each other. The teacher, in particular, tries as much as possible to use the language she is teaching, although it sounds a bit strange to a native speaker of the target language. However, it is not easy to maintain this all the time because of the students' lack of vocabulary of the target language. Therefore, in practice two languages, the first language which is English and the target language, Indonesian, are used. As seen in extract 1i the teacher is trying to make the pupils speak the language they are learning.

Addressing the pupils individually encourages them to try hard speaking Indonesian, no matter if it is correct or not. The interaction and relations between teacher and learners are very relaxed but attention to the lesson

is maintained. Early in the lesson for about 20 minutes, children sit on the floor while the lesson is presented. After that, when doing the exercises, they are arranged to sit in groups. The seating arrangement makes it easier for the teacher to monitor the students.

On the other hand, however, the teacher sometimes replies in English to students' responses in Indonesian. This is understandable, as spontaneity especially regarding language tends to make us use the mother tongue, as shown in the following:

T: Panas (hot). Besok lebih panas (tomorrow is even hotter), saya mendengar (I heard) Yeah, tomorrow even hotter.

T: Shylie, apa kabar? (Shylie, how are you?)

Shylie: Saya merasa sedih. (I feel sad)

T: Sedih (sad)? Ah, how come?

The teacher could have responded by saying 'kenapa' or 'mengapa' instead of saying 'how come' since these two words are familiar to them, but the spontaneity of the teacher's answer precluded this.

Using both languages, alternately is good but I would suggest it is better to use the target language first and then translate it into English. This is to let the students become more familiar with the language they are learning. The following extract shows how the languages are used alternately :

T: Sedih juga. Mengapa? Why?

Christine: Because I got in a fight with Chris.

...

T Mau minum? (to Christine) Would you like to go and have a drink?

...

T: lebih keras, a little bit louder, Steph

T: what do you guys think? ... sibuk sekali, we've been very busy, haven't we?

The above shows the using of Indonesian first followed by the English translation whereas the following extract shows the reverse:

Ssst ...quick! Cepat!

Looking at the activities developed in classrooms, it is possible for the goals of policy to be achieved if such activities are maintained and improved overtime, it is even better if teachers of the target language have good proficiency. Regarding Indonesian programme, it has been increasing over time in South Australia.

As Australia has experienced LOTE programmes for more than a decade, and a number of research projects in this area have been conducted, this means that the number of LOTE programmes are increasing in every State and that the quality of the programmes is continually improved.

C. Comments on Classroom Interaction

Classroom data described in the previous sections have shown some interesting points. In terms of classroom interaction, the data show that most aspects of the interaction such as teacher question, teacher feedback and error treatment occur in the classrooms. Repetition is the most dominant class activity in Indonesian and Thai classrooms. However certain classes in the data show the opportunity for upper level students also to perform the TL communicatively.

The data from each country show that the opportunities for language learning vary. Relating to language teaching objectives/

goals (see Table 4.3), Thai classroom data show the opportunities to learn more in vocabulary and pronunciation and grammar but less in communication. In fact, communication, pronunciation and grammar are the learning objectives. In lower level PS, students are given the chance to be familiar with simple English words and pronunciation through songs and games. In Indonesian classroom data, repetition and textbook-based exercises dominate the class activities besides songs and games. This results in less opportunity for student talk other than repeating words. Australian classroom data show that students are given more opportunity to speak the TL. This is in accordance with the main objective of learning LOTE which is to be able to communicate. Students are encouraged to work in groups so they can practice the TL they are learning.

Indonesian and Thai language classroom may follow what is being done in Australian LOTE classroom in terms of performing class activities which give more opportunity for students to practice the language they are learning. Textbook-based exercises are not bad but they are very limited and sometimes non situational. It is suggested that teachers create other activities and use the exercises in textbooks as supplementary activity. Group tasks are another way of increasing the opportunities for students to speak TL. The FL programme will be running well and produce satisfactory results if support is given from anywhere, such as the government, the educational agency, the school community including principal, teachers, students and the society.

D. Summary

In the sample of classroom data I obtained from Indonesian primary schools, it is shown clearly that the teacher almost never addresses the questions individually. Every question is asked to the class and answered by the whole group in unison. In this situation it is hard to tell whether all students understand the lesson, and those

whose are considered have difficulties in learning may well be left behind.

Another point is that the teacher rarely gives feedback, especially in the form of appraisal to encourage students' motivation. I assume that this is because of the belief of most teachers in Indonesia that appraising students directly will make them big-headed and disrespectful towards the teacher. Further the teacher just follows exactly what is written in the textbook. This causes the classroom interaction to become flat and monotonous, a situation which does not promote learning.

In the samples of classroom data from Thai primary schools, it is shown that questions are addressed either individually or to the whole class. Appraisal is not often found in classroom interaction.

In the classroom data I have from the Australian primary school, questions are mostly addressed individually. This actually helps the teacher to measure how well the students understand the lesson and whether the teacher has been doing the job well. Individual questioning takes time and only a little task can be achieved but the results are worthwhile. Regarding appraisal, it is more often found in the Australian primary school classrooms than those in Indonesia or Thailand.

The summary of the discussion about organisational matters and teaching approaches in foreign language programmes, can be looked at table 5.1. It describes the differences and similarities between Indonesia, Thailand, and Australia. The next chapter will then explain the implications of this study for the support and improvement of foreign language learning in primary education.

Chapter 6

Implications of The Study

In the previous chapters, I have described foreign language policy and its implementation in primary classroom practice. To complete the discussion, I would like to put forward the implications of this study. These implications mostly refer to the Indonesian education system, as this is the main reason for this study. Thailand and Australia are also discussed. I have classified the implications under higher education, the primary education classroom, teachers reform, and curriculum reforms.

A. Implications For Higher Education

The practice of TEFL in primary school impinges on higher education. An effective foreign language plan requires continuity from school to higher education. This provides opportunity for a longer learning period and potentially better outcomes in terms of levels of proficiency.

From the point of view of the Indonesian education system, it is interesting to discuss the issue more deeply since following the policy of deregulation in education by the Indonesian Government in February 1998, there has been a debate among the experts about using English as a medium of instruction at university level. This

is a consequence of giving permission for foreign universities to be established in Indonesia. It should be noted that in the policy of deregulation in education issued in February 27 1998, the government permits foreign institutions to establish new universities in Indonesia, which automatically will use English as their language of instruction. Constitution number 2 year 1989 section 41 about National Education System states that “bahasa pengantar dalam pendidikan adalah bahasa Indonesia” [the language of instruction in education is Indonesian]. Section 42 states that “bahasa asing dapat digunakan sebagai bahasa pengantar sejauh diperlukan dalam penyampaian pengetahuan dan/atau ketrampilan tertentu” [“foreign languages can be used as language of instruction as far as needed to transfer a knowledge and/or special skills”]. This is interesting because within three months after the policy of deregulation in education was introduced, the government withdrew it, then launched the revised version of it. In the revised policy, the government limits the use of English as a medium of instruction up to 50 % to local universities while for foreign universities, English can be the only medium of instruction but Indonesian as a subject must be offered with a minimum value of 4 credit out of the standard 20 credit that students take in a semester.

There have been arguments for and against using English as a medium of instruction in Indonesia (Kompas March 1998, Suara Pembaruan April 1998). It could be argued that using English as a language to transfer knowledge (‘content teaching’) in schools is an enormous and potentially disruptive change in the Indonesian educational system as a whole.

However Zainal Arifin Achmady (Dirjen Dikdasmen Depdikbud di Jakarta - Directorate General of Basic and Secondary Education, Department of Education and Culture in Jakarta) states that Indonesia is actually a late starter in this matter when compared to neighbouring countries like Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand and the Philippines,

which already use English as a medium of instruction (Kompas 26/2/98). In fact, unlike Malaysia and Singapore, which categorise English as a second language, or Thailand, which implemented TEFL in primary schools nationally more than two decades ago, the status of English in Indonesia is that of a foreign language which is compulsory only from Sekolah Menengah Pertama (SMP - Junior High School)⁸.

However, it is true to say that teaching English from an early age is very valuable if English is to be a medium of instruction in higher education. In fact, it was considered a 'green light' for this use of English when the Presidential Decree in 1990 gave permission to teach English earlier than secondary school. This was followed by the 1994 curriculum which strengthened the status of English in primary school.

However, most students in tertiary education only had two hours each week learning English in high school. At present, based on the 1994 Curriculum, the period of learning English in high school has increased to four hours per week. Exceptions are students who can afford extra English courses outside of school. Considering these facts, it would appear that English instruction at primary and high school level is not an adequate basis for students to be able to cope with lectures in English at university level. This comes as no surprise as English is taught as an elective subject from year 4 primary school plus two periods per week for English in High School only (National Curriculum for English 1994).

This study suggests the value of a language policy which supports government plans to prepare university students for future English-based lectures. Learning English from an early level is recommended although one could also argue that that it would be better to invest

8 •Some part of this paragraph has been published in Nuansa Indonesia Magazine (1998) as part of an article.

in intensive adult academic English as preparation for university English courses rather than in primary school programmes. In fact, preparing for university English-based lectures is only one possible reason for TEFL implementation in primary schools. David Crystal (1997) remarked that learning English as foreign language is no longer a luxury but a necessity if a country is to participate in world affairs. However, attention and support for national language and local languages needs to be improved in order to maintain and perpetuate national identity. Considering the current situation and conditions in the Indonesian education system, I should say that we are not ready yet for using English as a medium of instruction. It would only be a waste of energy and funds since students and lecturers in higher education at present do not have adequate English-language skills. The standard and extent of English language skills i.e. reading, writing, listening and speaking from primary school onwards needs to be improved. In fact, the Indonesian political, educational, economic and cultural 'climate' right now is not conducive to implement such policy. To achieve optimum results, a reformation in education should be implemented, which gives more autonomy to society and school through community-based education and school-based education. This will give more opportunity to at least schools in the same province to develop the syllabus based on the condition as well as needs of the local area. This issue has been addressed recently by Indonesian Minister of Culture and Education in Jakarta (Kompas 2/5/99). This would replace the central government's control of education.

Although improving the practice of TEFL at primary level is difficult, it is recommended to provide continuity of learning from primary to tertiary education. Continuity is important since it gives more opportunity to learn the language and achieve higher levels of proficiency (Carroll 1975, Genesee 1978, and Clyne 1986).

To implement TEFL at all levels of education requires sufficient qualified teachers. How to produce quality teachers will be discussed in section 6.4. below.

B. Implications For The Primary Education Classroom

It is clear from this study that primary education, especially in terms of teaching foreign language(s) needs more support. There are very few TEFL programmes in Indonesian primary schools. The required improvement is not merely for the sake of TEFL in primary school but for the education system as a whole.

Primary education is the basic level of education for the introduction of foreign language(s). As a starting point for teaching foreign language, it is necessary to have practical goals to promote good teaching approaches. Methods and techniques need to be relevant and appropriate for children.

Young children are motivated to learn by playing games and singing songs (Baldauf and Rainbow 1992, Halliwell 1992). The classroom extract showed that the class is monotonous and the activities were only based on the exercises in the textbook so students were passive (Clyne et al 1995). The data do not show the activities of reading and writing. Methods and techniques that activate students' language use are important. Attracting children's attention and developing a fondness for learning languages is one of the goals of policy. The improvement of teaching approaches in primary schools' foreign language teaching will also support TEFL in higher education.

Comparison of classroom teaching in different countries can inform the development of effective teaching approaches, as my classroom data show. Thailand and Indonesia share similar classroom situations. The classrooms I observed, are generally formal and tend to be teacher-centred. The seating arrangement where the chairs and tables are in rows supports the impression of formality. There

is a shortage of teaching and learning resources due to financial limitations. On the other hand, Australian classrooms are less formal and more relaxed although focused on learning. The learners rather than the teachers are the centre of the classroom. Children can sit on the floor and the chairs and tables are arranged in groups of 4-6 students. More importantly, some schools have their own foreign language classroom complete with the resources and teaching aids.

These differences should be taken into consideration in the implementation of TEFL in primary schools in Indonesia and Thailand. A more relaxed atmosphere in classrooms as well as smaller class size could contribute to learners' feeling of confidence in class participation. Indonesian and Thai primary classrooms could be improved along those lines. Indonesian's CBSA is actually ideal if it is implemented properly because it supports learners' active role in class. Activating learners' role in a language learning class provides more opportunity for learners to practice using the TL (Tsui 1995). Conducting more group tasks, which require learners to talk rather than individual or written tasks, is suggested (Long and Porter in Mickan 1997:90). Although the learners' role is important, the teachers' role is most influential. Teachers need to be creative and responsive to students' class reactions in order to create good relations and interaction. Effective teaching will support learning processes, which realise the goals of policy.

Teaching resources also need to be taken into account in Indonesian and Thai TEFL. It is not the quantity of resources such as textbooks, but the appropriateness of these books to the TEFL programme. Most textbooks for English are just exercise-based activities. This kind of activities does not support the goals of teaching, communication skills, to be gained. It is a bit different in Australia since there is a range of teaching resources to choose from books, audiocassettes, videorecordings and recently CD-ROM. However, teachers' language and methodology skills are more than resources. The following

section deals with teachers' reform from the perspective of TEFL programmes in primary education.

C. Implications For Teachers Reform

Based on my observations and interviews with primary school teachers of English in Indonesia and Thailand and teachers of Indonesian in Adelaide, it is clear that the role of the teacher in teaching a foreign language to young learners, primary school students, is very important. No matter how advanced the methods, techniques and facilities are, the teachers' role is still crucial. At present there is a shortage of capable teachers. Despite some successes in the area of teaching and learning English, the quality of teachers still needs to be improved.

There is a great need for regular in-service training to improve the quality of teaching foreign language everywhere. Thailand and Indonesia which teach English in primary school, or Australia with its LOTE programmes. The in-service training could be simply in the form of regular meetings (Duff 1988) once a month, for example, of English teachers in a local area if it is in Thailand or Indonesia, where they can share experiences and tackle problems. Or it could be in the form of workshops where there are guest speakers who can provide training in the TEFL field. Formal in-service training could also be held, perhaps, once a year depending on funding. It could be a week's training where the teachers are gathered in one place and do combined activities such as attending special lectures, micro-teaching, and so forth (Higgs 1982). This in-service training would help develop teachers' ability in teaching English, especially those who are in charge of English teaching. It could also provide the teachers with up to date information on effective English teaching. The in-service curriculum should be flexible and be able to accommodate the changes in society. This would support the education system in general and classroom practice in particular.

In-service training could include different strategies. Parrot (1988:26) suggests identifying 'particular problems of diverse and even conflicting' especially for teachers of EFL whose first language is not English. Lowe (1988:50) offers a 'correspondence course' for in-service training. In-service training also help teachers to be reminded and aware of being trapped into a routinety of our teaching activities. Maingay (1988) makes a distinction between 'ritual teaching behaviour and 'principled teaching behaviour'. He argues that because of its routine activities for teachers, teaching is seen as just a ritual not a principled teaching behaviour. To prevent teaching behaviour to become just a ritual, teachers should be open-minded in receiving feedback whether it is a critique, suggestion or appraisal in order to enhance his/her teaching practice. Feedback could also be obtained through observation. Such observation could be for training purposes, assessment purposes development purposes and for observer development purposes (Maingay 1988). These observations will benefit teachers to evaluate the teaching practice.

The quality of pre-service training also needs to be improved in order to increase the supply of qualified English teachers. The first step is to have clear objectives about the qualities of English teacher this service is expected to develop. English teachers in primary schools have different approaches from the English teachers in high schools, for instance. Of course, there are basic or general topics that could be the same but, to make this pre-service training effective, the curriculum should be able to cater for teachers at every level of education. As far as foreign language learning is concerned, the teacher is a model in class, therefore proficiency in the TL should be given more priority besides other skills of language and teaching methodology.

The curriculum in pre-service training should be realistic and responsive towards changes in the society and in language plans. In Indonesia, for example, the English Department in IKIP or FKIP used to train English teachers for high schools so the curriculum is

set for these purposes. However with the changes in EFL teaching programme according to 1994 curriculum, this pre-service training curriculum should also adjust to the changes to increase the quality of teachers to able to teach the range of language learners.

Current pre-service training seems less responsive to the on going change and development in schools curriculum. In English Department IKIP Manado for example, the subjects taught to the English teachers to be are mostly theory-oriented. The subjects offered are classified into MKDU - Mata Kuliah Dasar Umum (Basic General Subjects) such as Pancasila (Doctrine of the Five Principles of Indonesia), Religion, Education of National Movement History (it applies in any tertiary institution), MKDK -Mata Kuliah Dasar Keguruan (Basic Educational Subjects) such as, Administration of Educational Supervision, Principles and Philosophy of Education, PBM - Proses Belajar Mengajar (Teaching-Learning Process Subjects) such as, Teaching Method, Social Research Methodology, Language Testing, Planing of English Teaching and Remedial Teaching, and MKBS - Mata Kuliah Bidang Studi (Field-oriented Subjects). The MKBS are then categorised into Linguistics, Literature, Vocabulary, Translation, Analysis of English Curriculum and Textbooks for high school and Language skills subjects. There should be a reformation in the curriculum. For instance, MKDU subjects are learnt in every level of education beginning from primary school to tertiary level. Based on some resources and own experiences, it should be better to cease these subjects in tertiary education and give the space to field-oriented subjects in order to prepare student teacher to be more professional. In terms of MKDK, as stated above, the subjects taught are very theoretical and sometimes not that applicable to present day situations. These examples show that the curriculum needs to be reformed to adjust to current development. To produce qualified teachers, there are four specific quality demands in Australia's national languages statement (1996a):

Teachers must cater for the range of language learners.

Teachers must cater for the proper learning environment for all language learners.

Teachers must possess proficiency in the language.

Teachers need expertise in sociocultural knowledge, skills and attitudes.

Besides these specifications, teachers should be aware of effective teaching methodology. These specifications are useful as basic considerations for pre-service training. Language proficiency is important. Four language skills subjects offered in the curriculum are relevant to these qualifications. A research project conducted by National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia Language Testing and Curriculum Centre at Griffith University (1996a) defined in detail quality in beginning teachers of language by identifying the minimum skills and competencies needed for language teaching. The following is a summary:

Area of competence 1: Using and developing professional knowledge and values:

Use of the language

Knowledge about the language

Cross cultural values

Cultural understandings

Goals of language learning

understandings about learning

Understandings about second/foreign language learning

understandings about language teaching methodologies

Ethical and legal requirements

Area of competence 2: Communicating, interacting and working with students and others:

Communication with students

Responding to individuals

Managing behaviour

Working in teams

Developing professional and community contacts

Area of competence 3: Planning and managing the teaching and learning process:

Planning courses and units

Planning for specific groups of learners

Implementing language programmes

Responding flexibly

Fostering learning skills

Area of competence 4: Monitoring and assessing student progress and learning outcomes:

Understandings about assessment

Assessing language learning

Area of competence 5: Reflecting, evaluating and planning for continuous improvement:

Reflecting on practice

Developing as a professional

These ideas are a good starting point if Indonesia or Thailand would like to consider reform in their pre-service training programme.

Given current resources and teacher skills, this study suggests gradual implementation of TEFL in primary schools for Indonesia. Only primary schools that are able to provide the facilities and can afford qualified English teachers should offer English. However, efforts should be made to make TEFL in primary school a priority for implementation such as developing a system of 'model' or schools with special TEFL programmes before the policy is applied nationally.

Teachers' welfare, as mentioned in the previous chapter, is a prime concern, especially teachers in most Indonesian primary schools. Action must be taken to increase the remuneration for these teachers if quality teaching is expected. On the other hand, Australian

teachers do not face this problem of welfare in the same way as teachers in developing countries. As a developed country, teachers' welfare is no longer a problem which affects their ability to do the job well. However, the quality of their teaching and their capability as professionals still requires development.

Having discussed the implications for teachers reform, the next section will discuss the implications for curriculum improvement.

D. Implications For Curriculum Improvement

Curriculum is an important part of language teaching. It is defined by van Lier (1996:3) as "a systematic collection of accumulated knowledge and experience, from a multitude of sources, that guides curriculum practices." He, further defines curriculum in a holistic and process sense: "it is holistic in the sense that every part and every action must be motivated by and understood in relation to all other parts and actions, in an integrative way; it is process-oriented in the sense that pedagogical interaction is motivated by our understanding of learning rather than by a list of desired competencies, test scores, or other products" (1996:3). Therefore, a curriculum should be well-arranged and aim to establish effective classrooms.

There are two alternatives considering the current curriculum for EFL in Indonesian primary schools. If we look at the goals of teaching, one of them is to be able to communicate in simple English. However, in the explanation of the goals for the teaching programme, less activity in communication is minimized. The programme which applies to year 4 to 6, comprises three main components namely vocabulary, dialogue, and pragmatics. The first alternative, is teachers should be able to translate this teaching guide into activities which will attract students to get involved so the goals of learning can be achieved. Therefore, if this curriculum is going to be maintained, it would be better if the teaching guide is revised and it includes

activities which promote communicative skills and group tasks which can encourage students to use the TL. The other alternative is to simplify the curriculum to suit the current teaching and learning process, for example to change the goals and the programme, instead of aiming to develop communication skills, memorising vocabulary for certain numbers of words would be more realistic. However such goals is challenged by the general goal of learning language for communication.

The 1975 curriculum of English teaching in Indonesian high schools states that the main goal is to prepare students when they are in tertiary education to be able to read textbooks which are mostly written in English. This would seem to be a barrier in implementing the idea of using English as a medium of instruction at tertiary level as the consequence of global development. The practice of teaching and learning English based on this high school policy will not assist the development of communicative skills necessary where English is the medium of instruction. Looking at this situation, it is advisable to reform and restructure every level of education so that each level will support each other as well as to support the purpose why English is taught in school. We need to expand the reading-based goals to communicative skills goals. If the main goal is for communication and using English as the medium of instruction for certain subjects at tertiary education, the goals of TEFL from PS to high school should support this main goal. Teaching activities at the lower stages should develop students' communicative skills.

Finally, a curriculum needs to be evaluated after a certain period in order to develop the quality of teaching and learning and to keep up with global development. Thailand, for example, after implementing TEFL in PS from year 5, decided to develop the programme by starting it in year 1 (Education Reform 1996). The development is based on the evaluation that in order to achieve native-like pronunciation,

EFL is better introduced earlier (*see* also Chapter 4 Section 4.2.1). In Australia, when LOTE was first introduced, it was applied in high school, gradually it was introduced in primary schools. Lo Bianco's statement (1987:120) that the implementation of LOTE programmes is "ideally continuously throughout the years of compulsory education" recommends the practice of LOTE from primary education.

E. Summary

The implications of this study have been described in this chapter. First the implications for higher education: this part looked at the importance of early foreign language programmes to support such programme in higher education. Secondly, the implications for the primary education classroom: this part looked at classroom practices and the possibility for improvements. Thirdly, the implications for teacher reforms: this part considered teacher training and development and restructuring current pre-service training. Finally, the implications for curriculum reforms: this part discussed the importance of having an up-date curriculum, which fits people's needs and the situation. It also suggested giving more freedom for teachers to create language learning activities which give opportunity for learners' enjoyment.

The conclusions and recommendations coming out of this study regarding foreign language policy and its implementation in primary classroom practice is the topic for the next chapter.

Chapter 7

Conclusions and Recommendations

A. Conclusions

This study set out to investigate language policy and its implementation in teaching English as a foreign language in primary schools in Thailand and Indonesia. To complete the discussion of language policy regarding foreign language teaching, LOTE teaching in Australia is also described.

A central part of this study concerns language policy. An ideal language policy is a policy that caters for the needs of society. In TEFL, a good language policy considers the situation and condition of the classrooms, the needs of the learners, and the promised advantages after the learning process is complete. A well-planned language policy is very important to direct the process of teaching and learning. In policy implementation difficulties and problems may be encountered. Therefore the policy needs to be evaluated in order to determine the next steps and to deal with any weaknesses.

The educational systems of Indonesia and Thailand have several similarities. Both countries have centralised systems i.e. the central government, in this case the Minister of Education, is the only authority which determines policy and regulations concerning policy. As regards teaching English, the curriculum, syllabus, methods and

techniques are centrally decided. However, in Indonesia, because English is still an alternative subject, part of a local content subject in primary schools, guidance is provided but the local areas are given freedom to choose and decide on materials which suit their needs as long as they are still in the syllabus. This is very different from the system of education in Australia which reflects a decentralised and more liberal education. The schools are given more autonomy and freedom to determine the curriculum. However pathways are provided to guide the teachers in conducting the lesson. This opens the opportunity for the teacher to develop his/her activities as long as the goals are attained.

In countries like Indonesia and Thailand which hold centralised systems, schools do not have much option but to wait for and follow government instructions. In fact, this causes a dilemma. On the one hand, as the policy is government regulation, all schools have to follow and apply the policy. On the other hand, the implementation of a language policy can raise problems if there is a lack of qualified teachers, lack of materials and facilities. This happens in Thailand and Indonesia and also in Australia.

In Thailand, after implementing EFL programmes in primary schools from year 5 for more than two decades, there is a recent language policy which rules that English teaching has to start from year one in primary schools. This new policy has had wide-ranging implications for the schools involved.

Teachers have a key part in how policy is applied. It is they who influence the teaching and learning process. In the case of Thailand when English was introduced in year one, the number of teachers to teach English was not sufficient, not to mention their quality. In fact, many teachers teaching English in primary schools have not majored in English. However, since the policy was an instruction from the central government, there was no option but to apply it.

Teachers are sometimes blamed because of the unsatisfactory results of students' proficiency. In fact, it is unfair if teacher is the only one to be blamed for the unsatisfactory result of the students since there are other factors such as size of class, time allocation, lack of teaching resources which may cause this dissatisfaction.

As regards the learning process, there is no direct influence of language policy on a student's way of learning and the outcomes. Teachers are the most dominant person in class. Students just rely on the teacher who teaches them. They just follow what the teacher tells them to do. In Indonesia and Thailand the dominance of a teacher is very pronounced. It is a bit different in the country like Australia where the role of teachers is not as dominant as in Indonesia and Thailand because students are also given the opportunity to initiate talk in classrooms. As far as language learning is concerned, the teacher and students should share classroom power. This will give more chance for students to practice the TL if they are given more chance to speak and express their thoughts.

In the case of Indonesia, recent policy on teaching English as a foreign language has changed. In the country where centralised educational systems apply, this change is considered very influential. English had been first introduced in Junior High School since Indonesia got its independence but recent policy allows English to be taught in primary schools from year four, although it is not a compulsory subject. The optional status of English is very reasonable considering the limitations of materials, teachers and other facilities. However, this policy change should be considered as significant progress for national education as a whole since the breakthrough of implementing English teaching in primary schools is a starting point in improving teaching English as a foreign language.

Since the policy has been launched, the best action is to evaluate and to improve on present practice. From my point of view and by

taking into account my observations, the teacher is the central issue. Teachers are the ones who have direct contact with learners. No matter how well the curriculum and syllabus have been arranged, nor how good the materials, methods and techniques are determined, if the teacher who acts as a facilitator, a manager, a mediator and a guide is not qualified and well-prepared for delivering lessons, everything will go to waste.

The fact that many English teachers in Indonesian and Thai primary schools have no English teaching background is problematic. Therefore, the authorities need to provide regular in-service training to develop and improve the ability in TEFL of current teachers. In-service training also gives more opportunity for English teachers to share experience and to keep up date. However, financial problem seems to be a barrier for this in-service programme to be implemented on a regular basis. Pre-service training where the future English teachers are prepared, should be organised well in order to suit the needs of learners and to attain policy goals. The curriculum should be adapted to the current and future situation in order to produce teachers who are qualified and capable in classroom management and in creating a nice and enjoyable learning environment especially for children at the primary level.

This comment also applies to LOTE teachers in Australia, particularly to Indonesian teachers teaching primary school children. Although materials and other learning supports are sufficient, the ability of the teachers, especially in speaking the language needs to be improved and developed.

Language policy has implication for classroom practice. As far as English teaching is concerned, primary schools have to provide an appropriate way of introducing a new foreign language to young learners, which forms a pathway for learning at higher levels of education. The important factors such as teachers, materials, time

allocation, and the facilities have to be well-addressed in conjunction to the goals of policy. This is to allow improvement and development for the future learning.

B. Recommendations

This study suggests recommendations for the countries where the research took place, in order to increase the quality of TEFL in general and the implementation of TEFL in primary schools, in particular.

1. Recommendations for Language Policy

For Indonesia, this study underlines the importance of beginning TEFL in the early stages of education. It proposes the need for language policy specifically for TEFL in primary school. Since English is still an optional subject in primary school, it is recommended to implement a policy step-by-step to improve facilities and develop teachers until we come to the point where EFL should be compulsory for primary school pupils in Indonesia as a consequence of global developments. The status of EFL should be strengthened. Policy makers should work with schools and other educational agencies in order to get up to date information about current language learning programmes, and after evaluation make changes and allocate resources.

This study has implications for Thailand where the policy does not guarantee satisfactory outcomes. There is a need to review existing programmes so they can be improved. There is still a great deal of work to do to in implementing TEFL, especially in year one because schools do not seem ready in terms of available qualified teachers.

The LOTE programme in Australia which is a multicultural country, is considered successful. There have been a lot of resources put into this programme to achieve better results. LOTE programmes are increasing. However, there are also

problems which are similar to those in Thailand and Indonesia. To overcome such problems, the policy needs to be evaluated and revised to cope with actual developments in society.

Regarding language policy, especially for language-in-education, I would suggest that, before any policy is formulated, it is important to make a careful plan by taking into account sector this policy would affect. Figure 7.1. adapted from Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) provides a good example of how to set up an investigation prior to making a language policy.

Based on this model, before the survey is conducted, it is important to note the points to survey such as *identify a target population* of students who will learn, *teacher supply*, *the syllabus*, *methods and materials*, *definition (identification) of available resources* and *assessment and evaluation* (Kaplan and Baldauf 1997). Since this is such a crucial phase the people assigned to do the survey should be aware of how important the task is and conduct the survey as thoroughly as possible. The report of this survey should be able to describe the actual conditions in the field. The result will lead to policy decision-making. When making the policy, the result of the survey plays an important role. After the target population of students is identified, preparing the teachers is important, including determining what kind of training will be provided for them to teach. Defining the syllabus and available resources as well as specifying methods and materials to use are the next important procedures.

Assessment of pupil achievement and evaluation of programmes should be done on a regular basis. When necessary the policy should be revised or replaced by a new policy.

Since this study is about language policy and its implementation in classroom practices, such procedure developed by Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) is appropriate to be adopted when planning foreign language programmes.

2. Recommendations for Classroom Practices

As mentioned in previous chapters classroom teachers face similar problems. Thai and Indonesian primary school language classrooms would be better if the situation and the atmosphere were more relaxed and more enjoyable since this study indicates they are too formal and tense. Involving more games and fun activities in learning languages is suggested in order to attract children's attention. Singing songs is a simple example of introducing the target language especially to young children (Baldauf and Rainbow 1992). Children like singing cheerful songs. Group tasks which require learners to talk in TL will also make the language learning meaningful.

The availability of qualified teachers is also important. Teachers play the most important role in class. This does not mean that one can disregard the importance of curriculum, materials or method of teaching, however, teachers should be capable of managing learners in a class. Therefore, pre-service training for teachers is important, as is in-service training to keep teachers up date in effective teaching process.

The institutions which prepare EFL teachers (such as Teachers College or the Institute of Teachers Training and Education which is called Institut Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan (IKIP) or the Faculty of Teachers Training and Education (FKIP) in a university in Indonesia) face a difficult task. A four-year programme of teacher preparation does not seem to be effective since after graduating the teachers are still not ready to work as teachers. This is ironic because these candidate teachers are expected to be fully competent. Based on my own experience, I would say that there is a gap between what has been studied and what is found and experienced in practice. When I did my practical teaching, I was totally confused because I could not rely on what I had

learnt about lesson plans and teaching practice. What I found was that I had to learn again based on the experience as I went along. In short, what is learnt is often not relevant to the actual task. Tertiary institution which have teacher training programme, such as IKIP, FKIP or STIKIP should have direct relations and always be in a regular contact with the Directorate of Basic and Secondary Education Department of Education in order to have up date information on classroom practices. It is essential to renew or revise the curriculum in such institution to meet present and future demand. This would help make the pre-service training programme more relevant and appropriate.

Besides pre-service training, in-service training is also important. To keep the teachers provided with up to date information regarding their area, in-service training should be planned and done on a regular basis. Such a programme is also useful for teachers to share any obstacles they experience and to find possible solutions. Special course outlines should be designed and developed so the programme will benefit many people. It is suggested that such a programme would include more practical matters than theoretical ones. This would help teachers make the teaching routines more enjoyable for themselves as well as for the learners.

Implementing EFL programmes at primary schools has some advantages, assuming that factors such as qualified teachers, the facilities, and materials are not the main problems. The advantages are as follows:

Being aware of culture. Children at this age are sensitive towards new things. Introduce them to English earlier will teach them to respect the other culture because learning a language cannot be separated from learning the culture too (Brumfit 1995). Having respect for other cultures will strengthen their love and respect for their own culture.

Pronunciation. As discussed in chapter 2, before puberty, children who learn a second or foreign language are likely to acquire a native-like pronunciation. In the case where one's mother tongue is a tonal language and the TL is a non tonal language, pre-natal learning is recommended for good pronunciation. Brewer (1998:67) explains that "the way baby's brain responds to sound and the way his auditory pathways are laid down evolves throughout fetal life". She then continues that "there is no doubt that the sounds heard in the womb are essential to help baby's auditory cortex develop and mature".

Psychological affect. Children, psychologically have more courage to speak a foreign language no matter whether it is right or wrong. This is different from older learners who are more self-conscious in speaking a foreign language to avoid embarrassment.

Length of study. If an EFL programme begins at primary level, children will have longer time to study and will experience more exposure towards the foreign language they are learning.

Finally the study suggests that language policy and classroom practice are two important elements which influence and support one another. This study has explained how to design a more reasonable and appropriate language policy which can benefit many people and fit the needs of society.

Bibliography

- Abas, Husen. (1987) *Indonesian as a Unifying Language of Wider Communication: a Historical and Sociolinguistics Perspective*. Pacific Linguistics, Canberra.
- Alisyahbana, Sultan Takdir. (1976) "Language Planning for Modernisation: the Case of Indonesia and Malaysia". Mouton, The Hague.
- Alisyahbana, Sultan Takdir. (1978) 'Bahasa Indonesia' dalam 'Dari Perjuangan dan Pertumbuhan Bahasa Indonesia'. PT Dian Rakyat, Jakarta.
- Allwright, Dick, and Kathleen Bailey. (1991) *Focus on the Language Classroom*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Allwright, Dick. (1988) *Observation in the Language Classroom*. Longman, London.
- Allwright, Dick. (1996) "Social and Pedagogic Pressures in the Language Classroom: the Role of Socialisation" in *Society and the Language Classroom*. Ed. H. Coleman. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge. Pp.209-228.
- Anderson, Edmund A. (1987) "Indonesian Language Month 1986: Tempest at the Forum". *New Language Planning Newsletter*. v1 n3. Pp.1-3.
- Anonymous. (n.d.) *10th Djawatan Pengajaran 1945-1955*. Kementrian P.P.&K No. Daftar 1674.
- Anonymous. (1974) *Guidelines for Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Thailand*. The Ministry of Education, Thailand.
- Anonymous. (1975) *Kurikulum Pengajaran Bahasa Inggris*. Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, Jakarta.
- Anonymous. (1982) *Towards a National Language Policy*. Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra.
- Anonymous. (1983a) *Voices for the Future: a Languages Policy for*

- South *Australian Schools*. South Australia Education Department, Adelaide.
- Anonymous. (1983b) A National Language Policy for Australia: a Report. The PLANLangPol Committee, Sydney.
- Anonymous. (1984) Report on a National Language Policy. Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra.
- Anonymous. (1986) National Survey of Language Learning in *Australian Schools*. Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra.
- Anonymous. (1989) Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 2 tentang *Sistem Pendidikan Nasional*. Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, Jakarta.
- Anonymous. (1991) Australia's Language: the Australian Language and *Literacy Policy*. Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra.
- Anonymous. (1994a) Garis-Garis Besar Program Pengajaran Bidang Studi *Bahasa Inggris*. Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan., Jakarta.
- Anonymous. (1994b) Pedoman Umum Pengembangan dan Pelaksanaan *Kurikulum Muatan Lokal Pendidikan Dasar*. Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, Jakarta.
- Anonymous. (1994c) Languages Other Than English - a Curriculum Profile for *Australian Schools*. Curriculum Corporation, Carlton, Victoria.
- Anonymous. (1994d) A Statement on Languages Other Than English for *Australian Schools*. Curriculum Corporation, Carlton, Victoria.
- Anonymous. (1996a) Language Teachers: the Pivot of Policy; the supply and *quality of teachers of languages other than English*. Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra.
- Anonymous. (1996b) Education Reform. Department of Curriculum and Instruction Development, Ministry of Education, Thailand.
- Anonymous. (1998) "Bahasa Inggris bisa Dijadikan Bahasa Pengantar

- di Sekolah", *Kompas Online*. 26 February.
- Arendt, Jermaine D., et al, eds. (1979) *Foreign Language Learning, Today and Tomorrow*. Pergamon Press, New York.
- Ariew, Robert. (1982) "The Textbook as Curriculum" in *Curriculum, Competence and the Foreign Language Teacher*. Ed. Th.V. Higgs. National Textbook Company, Illinois. Pp.11-33.
- Atkinson, David (1993) "Teaching in the Target Language: a Problem in the Current Orthodoxy", *Language Learning Journal*, No.8.
- Badudu, Jus S. (1980) *Pelik-Pelik Bahasa Indonesia*. CV Pustaka Prima,Bandung.
- Bailey, Kathleen M. and David Nunan. eds. (1996) *Voices from the Language Classroom: Qualitative Research in Second Language Education*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Baldauf, Richard, Jr., and Peter G. Rainbow. (1992) "Motivation in Language Teaching: the Key to Quality in Learning and Teaching" in *Quilt and Quill: Achieving and Maintaining Quality in Language Teaching and Learning*. Eds. N.Bird and J.Harris. Institute of Language in Education, Hongkong. Pp.76-96.
- Baldauf, Richard Jr., and Allan Luke., eds. (1990) *Language Planning and Education in Australasia and the South Pacific*. Multilingual Matters, Clevedon.
- Barnes, Douglas. (1971) "Language in the Secondary Classroom" in *Language, the Learner and the School*. Eds. D.Barnes, J. Britton and H. Rosen. Penguin, Harmondsworth. Pp.10-77.
- Beebe, Leslie M., ed. (1988). *Issues in Second Language Acquisition: Multiple Perspectives*. Newbury House, Rowley, Massachusetts.
- Beeby, C.E. (1979) *Assessment of Indonesian Education*. New Zealand Council for Educational Research (NZCER), Wellington.
- Bell, Judith. (1993) *Doing Your Research Project*. Second Edition. Open University Press, Buckingham.
- Bergentoft, Rune. (1994) "Foreign Language Instruction: a Comparison Perspective" in *Foreign Language Policy: An Agenda for Change*.

- Ed. R.D. Lambert. Sage, Thousands Oaks. Pp.8-34.
- Best, John W. and James V KahnW (1993) *Research in Education*. Allyn & Bacon, Needham Height, Massachusetts
- Bialystok, Ellen and Kenji Hakuta. (1994) *In Other Words: the Science and Psychology of Second Language Acquisition*. Basic Books, New York.
- Bialystok, Ellen. (1990) *Communication Strategies: a Psychological Analysis of Second Language Use*. Blackwell, Oxford.
- Bliss, Joan, et al (1983) *Qualitative Data Analysis for Educational Research*. Croom Helm, London
- Bogdan, Robert C. and S.K. Biklen. (1992) *Qualitative Research for Education: an Introduction to Theory and Methods*. Allyn and Bacon, Newton, Massachusetts.
- Bolitho, Rod. (1988) "Language Awareness on Teacher Training Courses" in *Explorations in Teacher Training: Problems and Issues*. Ed. T. Duff. Longman, London. Pp. 72-84.
- Brewer, Sarah. (1998) *Super Baby, boost your baby's potential from conception to year one*. Thorson, London.
- Briggs, Charles. (1986) *Learning How to Ask*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Britton, James N. and Margaret Gill. (1984) *English Teaching, an International Exchange*. Heinemann, London.
- Brown, Christine, L. (1994) "Elementary School Foreign Language Programs in the United States" in *Foreign Language Policy: An Agenda for Change*. Ed. R.D. Lambert. Sage, Thousands Oaks. Pp.164-176.
- Brown, Douglas H. (1987) *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. Prentice Hall, New Jersey.
- Brown, Marvin J. (1976) "Thai Dominance over English and the Leaning[sic] of English by Thais", *PASAA*. v6 n1-2. Pp. 67-85.
- Brumfit, Christopher J. and John T. Roberts. (1983) *A Short Introduction to Language and Language Teaching: with a Comprehensive Glossary*

- Terms*. Batsford Academic and Educational, London.
- Brumfit, Christopher J. and R. Mithchell, eds. (1990) *Research in the Language Classroom*. Macmillan, London.
- Brumfit, Christopher, et al, ed. (1995) *Teaching English to Children: from Practice to Principle*. Longman, Essex.
- Caroll, Fairlee W. (1980) "Neurolinguistic Processing of a Second Language" in *Research in Second Language Acquisition*. Eds. R.C. Scarcella and S.D. Krashen. Newbury House, Rowley, Massachusetts. Pp.81-86.
- Carroll, John B. (1975) *The Teaching of French as a Foreign Language in Eight Countries*. Wiley, New York.
- Chaudron, Craig. (1988) *Second Language Classrooms: Research on Teaching and Learning*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Clyne, Michael, ed. (1986) *An Early Start: Second Language at Primary School*. River Seine, Melbourne.
- Clyne, Michael, et al. (1995) *Developing Second Language from Primary School: Models and Outcomes*. National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia, Deakin A.C.T.
- Clyne, Michael, ed. (1997) *Undoing and Redoing Corpus Planning*. Mouton de Gruyter, Berlin.
- Cobarrubias, Joan and Joshua A. Fishman. (1983) *Progress in Language Planning: International Perspectives*. Mouton de Gruyter, Berlin.
- Cobbe, James and Ibrahim Musa. (1992) SD-D2 "Swadana" Upgrading Program [D2 PGSD Swadana]. Summary Preliminary Report, D2-PGSD Program Economic Aspects [and] Report on Study of Economic Aspects. Educational Policy and Planning Project. Florida State University, Florida. ERIC.
- Cohen, Louis and Lawrence Manion. (1985) *Research Methods in Education*. Croom Helm, London.
- Comrie, Bernard, ed. (1990) *The Major Languages of East and South-East Asia*. Routledge, London.
- Cook, Vivian. (1991) *Second Language Learning and Language*

- Teaching. Edward Arnold, London.
- Cope, Bill and Mary Kalantzis, ed. (1993) *The Power of Literacy*. The Falmer Press, London.
- Corder, S. Pit. (1967) "The Significance of Learners' Errors", *International Review of Applied Linguistics (IRAL)*. v5 n4. Pp.161-170.
- Corson, David. (1990) *Language Policy Across the Curriculum*. Multilingual Matters, Clevedon.
- Cotton, Julie. (1995) *The Theory of Learners: an Introduction*. Kogan Page, London.
- Crystal, David. (1992) *An Encyclopedia Dictionary of Language and Languages*. Penguin, London.
- Crystal, David. (1997) *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language*. Second Edition. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Dardjowidjojo, Soenjono. (1998) "Strategies for a Successful National Language Policy: the Indonesian Case", *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*. 130. Pp.35-47.
- Davies, Alan, ed. (1977) *Language and Learning in Early Childhood*. Heinemann, London.
- Duff, Tony, ed. (1988) *Explorations in Teacher Training: Problems and Issues*. Longman, London.
- Ellis, Rod. (1985) *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Ellis, Rod, ed. (1990) *Instructed Second Language Acquisition: Learning in the Classroom*. Blackwell, Oxford.
- Ellis, Rod. (1992) *Second Language Acquisition and Language Pedagogy*. Multilingual Matters, Clevedon.
- Ellis, Rod. (1994) *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Epstein, Noel. (1977) *Language, Ethnicity, and the Schools: Policy Alternatives for Bilingual-Bicultural Education*. Institute for Educational Leadership, George Washington University,

- Washington, D.C.
- Fairclough, Norman. (1992) *Critical Language Awareness*. Longman, London.
- Ferguson, Charles A. (1971) *Language Structure and Language Use: Essays*. Stanford University Press, Stanford, California.
- Fillmore, Lily Wong. (1979) "Individual Differences in Second Language Acquisition" in *Individual Differences in Language Ability and Language Behaviour*. Eds. C.J. Fillmore, D. Kempler, , and W.S.Y. Wang. Academic Press, New York. Pp.203-228.
- Finocchiaro, Mary. (1964) *Teaching Children Foreign Language*. McGraw-Hill, New York.
- Fishman, Joshua A. (1973) *Language and Nationalism: Two Integrative Essays*. Newbury House, Rowley, Massachusetts.
- Fishman, Joshua A. ed. (1974) *Advances in Language Planning*. Mouton, The Hague.
- Freed, Barbara F., ed. (1991) *Foreign Language Acquisition Research and the Classroom*. D.C. Health & Co., United States.
- Freudenstein, Reinhold, ed. (1979) *Teaching Foreign Languages to the Very Young*. Pergamon Press, Oxford.
- Gardner, Robert C. and Wallace E. Lambert . (1972) *Attitudes and Motivation in Second Language Learning*. Newbury House, Rowley, Massachusetts.
- Gardner, Robert. C. (1985) *Social Psychology and Second Language Learning: the Role of Attitudes and Motivation*. Edward Arnold, London.
- Genesee, Fred. (1981) "A Comparison of Early and Late Second Language Learning", *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Sciences*.13. Pp.115-127.
- Genesee, Fred. (1988)"Neurolinguistics Perspective" in *Issues in Second Language Acquisition; Multiple Perspectives*. Ed. L.M. Beebe. Newbury House, Rowley, Massachusetts. Pp.81-112.
- Gradman, Harry L. (1978) "English as a Foreign Language (EFL)"

- in *Classroom-Relevant Research in the Language Arts*. Coord. H.G. Shane and J. Walden. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Washington, D.C. Pp.39-47.
- Grittner, Frank M. (1969) *Teaching Foreign Languages*. Harper & Row, New York.
- Grotjahn, R. (1987) "On the methodological basis of introspective methods" in *Introspection in Second Language Research*. Eds. C. Faerch and G. Kasper. Multilingual Matters, Cleveland Avon, England.
- Gurney, Roger. (1973) *Language, Brain and Interactive Processes*. Edward Arnold, London.
- Halliwell, Susan. (1992) *Teaching English in the Primary Classroom*. Longman, London.
- Harley, Birgit. (1986) *Age in Second Language Acquisition*. Multilingual Matters, Clevedon.
- Heryanto, Ariel. (1995) *Language of Development and Development of Language: the Case of Indonesia*. Pacific Linguistics, Canberra.
- Higgs, Theodore V., ed. (1982) *Curriculum, Competence, and the Foreign Language Teacher*. National Textbook Company, Illinois.
- Howell, Kenneth W. et al. (1993) *Curriculum-Based Evaluation: Teaching and Decision Making*. Brooks/Cole, California.
- Jakobovits, Leon A. (1970) *Foreign Language Learning: a Psycholinguistic Analysis of the Issues*. Newbury House, Rowley, Massachusetts.
- Johnson, Karen. (1995) *Understanding Communication in Second Language Classrooms*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Johnston, Malcolm. (1985) *Syntactic and Morphological Progressions in Learner English*. Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs, Canberra.
- Kandiah, Thiru and John Kwan-Terry. eds. (1994) *English and Language Planning: a Southeast Asian Contribution*. National University of Singapore, Singapore.

- Kaplan, Robert, B. (1990) "Introduction: Language Planning in Theory and Practice" in *Language Planning and Education in Australasia and South Pacific*. Eds. R. Baldauf Jr. and A. Luke. Multilingual Matters, Clevedon. Pp.3-13.
- Kaplan, Robert B. and Richard B. Baldauf. (1997) *Language Planning from Practice to Theory*. Multilingual Matters, Clevedon.
- Kennedy, Chris., ed. (1983) *Language Planning and Language Education*. George Allen and Unwin, London.
- Kennedy, Raymond. (1942) *The Ageless Indies*. The John Day Company, New York.
- Krashen, Stephen D. (1981) *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. Pergamon Press, Oxford.
- Krashen, Stephen D. (1982) *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Pergamon Press, Oxford
- Krashen, Stephen D., Scarcella, R. C., & Long, M. H. eds. (1982) *Child-Adult Differences in Second Language Acquisition*. Newbury House, Rowley, Massachusetts.
- Krashen, Stephen D. and Tracy D. Terrel. (1988) *The Natural Approach: Language Acquisition in the Classroom*, Prentice Hall, New Jersey.
- Lambert, Richard D., ed. (1994) *Foreign Language Policy: An Agenda for Change*. Sage, Thousands Oaks.
- Lancy, David F. (1993) *Qualitative Research in Education: an Introduction to the Major Traditions*. Longman, London.
- Lenneberg, Eric H. (1967) *Biological Foundations of Language*. John Wiley & Sons, New York.
- Lewis, Glyn E. and Carolyn E. Massad. (1975) *The Teaching of English as a Foreign Language in Ten Countries*. Almquist and Wiksel International, Stockholm.
- Liando, Nihta V.F. (1998) "Implementing English as a Medium of Instruction in Schools and Tertiary Education: A Recent Issue in Indonesia". *Nuansa Indonesia*. v3 n1. Pp.44-46.

- Lightbown, Patricia, and Nina Spada. (1993) *How Languages are Learned*. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Lim, Catherine. (1995) "English for Technology - Yes! English for Culture - No!" in *The Politics of Multiculturalism in the Asia / Pacific*. Ed. D. Myers. Northern Territory University Press, Darwin.
- Lindfors, Judith Wells. (1987) *Children's Language Learning*. Prentice Hall, New Jersey.
- Littlewood, William. (1981) *Communicative Language Teaching: an Introduction*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Littlewood, William, T. (1984) *Foreign and Second Language Learning: Language Acquisition Research and its Implications for the Classroom*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Lo Bianco, Joseph. (1987) *National Policy on Languages*. Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra.
- Lo Bianco, Joseph. (1995). *Consolidating Gains, Recovering Ground: Languages and South Australian Schools*. Department of Education and Children's Services, Adelaide and the National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia, Canberra, Adelaide and Canberra.
- Lo Bianco, Joseph, et al. (1997) *Language and Literacy: Australia's Fundamental Resource*. Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra.
- Long, Michael and Charlene Sato. (1983) "Classroom Foreigner Talk Discourse: Forms and Functions of Teachers' Questions" in *Classroom Oriented in Second Language Acquisition*. Eds. H.W. Seliger and M.H. Long. Newbury House, Rowley, Massachusetts. Pp.268-285.
- Long, Michael and P Porter. (1985) "Group Work, Interlanguage Talk and Second Language Acquisition", *TESOL Quarterly*. 19. Pp.207-228.
- Lowe, Tim. (1988) A "Correspondence Course" for Teachers of English

- in *Explorations in Teacher Training: Problems and Issues*. Ed. T. Duff. Longman, London. Pp. 50-63.
- Macaro, Ernesto. (1997) *Target Language, Collaborative Learning and Autonomy*. Multilingual Matters, Clevedon.
- Marland, Michael. (1977) *Language Across the Curriculum*. Heinemann Educational Books, London.
- McArthur, Tom. (1992) "Models of English", *English Today*. v8 n4. Pp.12-21.
- McDonough, Steven H. (1992) *Psychology in Foreign Language Teaching*. Second Edition. Routledge, London.
- McDonough, Steven H. (1995) *Strategy and Skill in Learning a Foreign Language*. Edward Arnold, London.
- McLaughlin, Barry. (1981) "Differences and Similarities between First and Second Language Learning" in *Native Language and Foreign Language Acquisition*. Ed. H. Winitz. The New York Academy of Sciences, New York. Pp.23-32.
- McLaughlin, Barry. (1985) *Second Language Acquisition in Childhood*. Second Edition. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, New Jersey.
- McLaughlin, Barry. (1987) *Theories of Second Language Learning*. Edward Arnold, London.
- Mickan, Peter F. (1997) *Classroom Talk and Second Language Learning*. Master of Education (Honours) thesis. University of Wollongong.
- Mickan, Peter F. (1999) *Talking to Learn English in Foreign Language Classrooms*. Paper presented as Keynote Address at Conference of Teachers of English, Republic of Taiwan.
- Moag, Rodney. (1982) "English as a Foreign, Second, Native, and Basal Language: a New Taxonomy of English-Using Societies" in *New Englishes*. Ed. J. Pride. Newbury House, Rowley, Massachusetts. Pp.11-50.
- Moeliono, Anton M. (1986) *Language Development and Cultivation: Alternative Approaches in Language Planning*. Translated by Kay

- Ikranegara. Australian National University, Canberra.
- Mühlhäusler, Peter. (1994) "Language Teaching = Linguistic Imperialism?". *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics (ARAL)*. v17 n2. Pp.121-130.
- Murni, Sri Minda. (1993) "Whole Language: an Indonesian Viewpoint on the Development of the Second Language Reading Skills of Primary School Pupils", *Guidelines*. v15 n2. Pp.75-85.
- Nemser, William. (1971) "Approximative Systems of Foreign Language Learners", *International Review of Applied Linguistics (IRAL)*. v9 n2. Pp.115-123.
- Neufeld, Gerald. and Eta Schneiderman. (1980) "Prosodic and Articulatory Features in Adult Language Learning" in *Research in Second Language Acquisition*. Eds. R. C. Scarcella & S. D. Krashen. Newbury House, Rowley, Massachusetts. Pp.105-109.
- Neustupný, Jiri V. (1983) "Towards a Paradigm for Language Planning", *Language Planning Newsletter*. v9 n4. Pp.1-4.
- Nunan, David. (1985) *Language Teaching Course Design: Trends and Issues*. National Curriculum Resource Centre, Adelaide.
- Nunan, David. (1988) *Syllabus Design*. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Nunan, David. (1989) *Understanding Language Classrooms: a Guide for Teacher-Initiated Action*. Prentice Hall, New Jersey.
- Nunan, David. (1992) *Research Methods in Language Learning*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Olson, L., & S. Samuels. (1973) "The Relationship between Age and Accuracy of Foreign Language Pronunciation", *Journal of Educational Research*. Pp.263-267.
- Ozolins, Uldis. (1993) *The Politics of Language in Australia*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Painter, Clare. (1991) *Learning the Mother Tongue*. Second Edition. Deakin University, Geelong, Victoria.
- Parrot, Martin. (1988) "Dealing with Disparate Needs on Training

- Courses for Teachers whose First Language is not English" in *Explorations in Teacher Training: Problems and Issues*. Ed. T. Duff. Longman, London. Pp.26-43.
- Paulston, Christina Bratt. (1974) *Implications of Language Learning Theory for Language Planning: Concerns in Bilingual Education*. Center for Applied Linguistics, Virginia.
- Paulston, Christina Bratt, (1994) *Linguistic Minorities in Multilingual Settings: Implications for Language Policies* J. Benjamins, Amsterdam.
- Penfield, Wilder and Lamar Roberts. (1959) *Speech and Brain Mechanisms*. Princeton University Press, New Jersey.
- Pennington, Martha. (1996) *Phonology in English Language Teaching: an International Approach*. Longman, London.
- Perren, G.E., ed. (1968) *Teachers of English as a Second Language: Their Training and Preparation*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Reagan, Timothy. (1984) "Review on Ronald Carter's *Linguistics and the Teacher*", *Language Problem Language Planning*. v8 n3. Pp.338-339.
- Richard-Amato, Patricia. (1988) *Making It Happen: Interaction in the Second Language Classroom*. Longman, White Plains, New York.
- Richard-Amato, Patricia. (1997) *Affects and Related Factors in Second and Foreign Language Acquisition*. Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Alexandria, Virginia.
- Richard-Amato, Patricia A. and Marguerite Ann Snow, eds. (1992) *The Multicultural Classroom: Readings for Content-Area Teachers*. Addison Wesley, Massachusetts.
- Richards, Jack C. and Theodore S. Rodgers. (1986) *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching: a Description and Analysis*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Robinson, Gail L. (1977) *Resources for Teaching Languages Other than English in the Primary School*. Centre for Research in Measurement

- and Evaluation, Sydney.
- Romaine, Suzanne, ed. (1991) *Language in Australia*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Rubin, Joan and Bjorn.H. Jernudd. eds. (1971) *Can Language Be Planned: Sociolinguistic Theory and Practice for Developing Nations*. The University Press of Hawaii, Honolulu.
- Rubin, Joan, et al. (1977a) *Language Planning Processes*. Mouton, The Hague.
- Rubin, Joan. (1977b) "Indonesian Language Planning and Education" in *Language Planning Processes*. Eds. J. Rubin, et al. Mouton, The Hague. Pp.111-156.
- Rychlak, Joseph F. (1994) *Logical Learning Theory: a Human Teleology and its Empirical Support*. University of Nebraska Press, Lincoln.
- Scarcella, Robin C. and Stephen D. Krashen, eds. (1980). *Research in Second Language Acquisition*. Newbury House, Rowley, Massachusetts.
- Scherer, George A.C and Michael Wertheimer. (1964) *A Psycholinguistic Experiment in Foreign Language Teaching*. McGraw-Hill, New York.
- Seliger, Herbert W. (1977) "Does Practice Make Perfect? A Study of Interaction Patterns and L2 Competence", *Language Learning*. 27. Pp.263-278.
- Seliger, Herbert W. (1988) "Psycholinguistics Perspective" in *Issues in Second Language Acquisition: Multiple Perspectives*. Ed. L. M. Beebe. Newbury House, Rowley, Massachusetts. Pp.17-40.
- Selinker, L. (1972) "Interlanguage", *International Review of Applied Linguistics (IRAL)*. v10 n3. Pp.201-231.
- Shane, Harold G., et al (1978) *Classroom-Relevant Research in the Language Arts*. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Washington D.C.
- Sherman, Robert R., and Rodman B. Webb, eds. (1988) *Qualitative Research in Education: Focus and Methods*. The Falmer Press,

London.

- Shorrocks, Diane. (1995). "The Development of Children's Thinking and Understanding" in *Teaching English to Children: from Practice to Principle*. Eds. Ch. Brumfit et al. Longman, London.
- Singleton, David M. (1989) *Language Acquisition: the Age Factor*. Multilingual Matters, Clevedon.
- Slametmuljana. (1965) *Politik Bahasa Nasional*. Jambatan, Jakarta.
- Slametmuljana. (1982) *Asal Bangsa dan Bahasa Nusantara*. PN Balai Pustaka, Jakarta.
- Stenhouse, Lawrence. (1983) "Case Study in Educational Research and Evaluation" in *Case Study: an Overview*. Eds. L. Bartlett, S. Kemmis and G. Gillard. Deakin University, Geelong. Pp.11-54.
- Stern, Hans H. (1967) *Foreign Languages in Primary Education: the Teaching of Foreign or Second Languages to Younger Children*. New revision ed. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Swain, Merrill. (1985) "Communicative Competence: Some Rules of Comprehensible Input and Comprehensible Output in its Development" in *Input in Second Language Acquisition*. Eds. S. Gass and C. Madden. Newbury House, Rowley, Massachusetts. Pp. 235-253.
- Taylor, Steven J. and Robert Bogdan. (1998) *Introduction to Qualitative Methods: a Guidebook and Resource*. Wiley, New York.
- Tollefson, James W. (1991) *Planning Language, Planning Inequality: Language Policy in the Community*. Longman, London.
- Tollefson, James W. ed. (1995) *Power and Inequality in Language Education*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Tough, Joan. (1995) "Young Children Learning Languages" in *Teaching English to Children*. Eds. Ch. Brumfit et al. Longman, Essex. Pp.213-227.
- Tsui, Amy B.M.(1985) "Analyzing Input and Interaction in Second Language Classrooms", *RELC Journal*. v16 n1. Pp.8-32.
- Tsui, Amy B.M. (1995) *Introducing Classroom Interaction*. Penguin,

- London.
- Vale, David and Anne Feunteum. (1995) *Teaching Children English*. Eds.
- Ruth Gairns and Marion Williams. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Van Els, Theo, et al. (1984) *Applied Linguistics and the Learning and Teaching of Foreign Languages*. Translated by. R.R. van Oirsouw. Edward Arnold, London.
- Van Els, Theo. (1994) "Planning Foreign Language Teaching in a Small Country" in *Foreign Language Policy: An Agenda for Change*. Ed. R.D. Lambert. Sage, Thousands Oaks.
- Van Lier, Leo. (1988) *The Classroom and the Language Learner: Ethnography and Second-Language Classroom Research*. Longman, London.
- Van Lier, Leo. (1996) *Interaction in the Language Classroom: Awareness, Autonomy and Authenticity*. Longman, London.
- Walker, Rob. (1985) *Doing Research: a Handbook for Teachers*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Wells, Gordon and John Nicholls., eds. (1985). *Language and Learning: an Interactional Perspective*. The Falmer Press, London.
- White, Ronald V. (1988) *The ELT Curriculum: Design, Innovation and Management*. Blackwell, Oxford.
- Widdowson, Henry G. (1978) *Teaching Language as Communication*. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Wilkins, David A. (1976) *Notional Syllabuses: a Taxonomy and its Relevance to Foreign Language Curriculum Development*. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Winitz, Harris, ed. (1981) *Native Language and Foreign Language Acquisition*. Annals of The New York Academy of Sciences, New York.
- Wood, David J. (1988) *How Children Think and Learn*. Blackwell, Oxford.

Yin, Bo. (1990) "Language Planning and Education in Southeast Asia: an Annotated Bibliography" in *Language Planning and Education in Australasia and the South Pacific*. Eds. R. Baldauf Jr. and A. Luke. Multilingual Matters, Clevedon. Pp.335-348.



Profile

Nihta Vera Frelly Liando, born in Manado on August 3rd 1970, is currently an associate professor at the English Education Department Faculty of Languages and Arts Universitas Negeri Manado. She received her first degree from Universitas Negeri Manado (previously known as IKIP Negeri Manado) in 1993. Her Master of Arts by Research was obtained from University of Queensland Australia followed by a Ph.D from University of Adelaide in Australia in 2007. She has presented in various conferences in Indonesia and beyond. She has also published articles in various national accredited and reputable international journals. Her areas of interests are in teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL), sociolinguistics and educational psychology.

Dr. Liando is actively involved in English teacher association in Indonesia, called TEFLIN (Teachers of English as a Foreign Language in Indonesia) and currently serving as the Coordinator for Sulawesi and Maluku Region. She has also been serving as the Head of Department of English Education since 2020. She is also a fulltime member of AsiaTEFL, an organization of teachers of English in Asia. It is her belief that there are always rooms for improvement and that process never betrays results. *Age quo agis.*