DEVELOPING EFL STUDENTS' COMMUNICATIVE SKILLS THROUGH CONTENT-BASED INSTRUCTION: A CASE STUDY OF EFL TEACHING IN AN UNDERGRADUATE DEGREE PROGRAM AT A TERTIARY INSTITUTION IN INDONESIA

A thesis

submitted in fulfilment

of the requirements for the degree

of

Doctor of Philosophy in Education

at

The University of Waikato

by

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THE UNIVERSITY OF
WAIKATO
Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato

2017

ABSTRACT

This thesis reports on a mixed-methods case study, where the researcher as practitioner explored the effectiveness of a content-based instructional approach in improving the communication skills and motivation of a group of students at a tertiary education in Indonesia. The following research questions guided this study: (a) What are the attitudes of some EFL students of non-English departments towards current EFL teaching in the tertiary context? (b) Are there any differences in the intervention class EFL students' pre-test and post-test scores measuring verbal communication performance (actual and self-reported)? (c) What factors identified in a theme-based instructional program appear to contribute to an improvement in EFL students' communication skills? (d) Are there self-reported differences in intervention class EFL students' motivation and attitudes following the intervention program and what reasons do they offer for this improvement?

This study used mixed-method data collection methods. It utilised a quasi-experimental design where the research participants were grouped into two groups, an intervention class (IC) and a non-intervention class (NIC). The data were collected using the following methods: questionnaires, reflective journals, video recordings, observations and various pre-test and post-test measures. The qualitative data were analysed using thematic analysis and the quantitative data were analysed using the SPSS statistical program.

In terms of the main findings, first, the results revealed that the students had developed a positive attitude towards the current EFL teaching program. Most of them considered that English was very important and disagreed with the current two-credit allocation for English. They preferred a student-centred EFL class to a teacher-centred class and they also preferred an EFL teaching approach focused on their content-subjects to one focused on general themes.

Second, the results from the pre-test and post-test mean scores revealed that the intervention class (IC) students' mean scores improved significantly after they

were given the intervention. The non-intervention class (NIC) students' mean scores also improved but they were not significant.

Third, the qualitative findings from students' self-report data revealed that there were four themes (motivation and engagement, affect, self-confidence, and a sense of improvement in EFL and content-subject learning) that emerged. Finally, the results from the questionnaire given to the IC students before and after the intervention revealed that for the most part, their attitude and motivation levels appeared to increase after they were exposed to a theme-based instructional approach. Triangulation of a number of finding strengthened the argument that the content-based instructional approach, in this case, the theme-based instructional approach was effective in improving EFL students' verbal communicative skills and enhancing their motivation in learning the target language.

A number of limitations were identified in relation to this study, including its non-generalisability, the short duration of the intervention, the non-utilisation of NIC students' views, and a number of ethical issues. However, the findings were promising. On this basis, this thesis recommends further study to be undertaken to investigate the effect of CBI in EFL teaching and learning in Indonesia, which involves more groups of non-English department students from different departments and a longer duration of study which will provide more substantial data related to the effectiveness of a content-based instructional approach in EFL teaching in this context.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Study Program of Sumatra University (pseudonym) who had given full support for the success for this study.

Finally, I would like to thank all my PhD colleagues who always showed me heartfelt friendship and encouragement. In particular, Nachia, Lynda Ling, James Memua, and Mark Major who had spent their time to discuss academic matters regarding our studies. I will not forget their true friendship.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this research study to my **Late Father, Muhammad Nasir bin Senurim**. He taught me the meaning of perseverance as a success mantra for life. The saying of his that inspire me the most: "No success will be gained without challenge and perseverance".

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of the study. It includes the evolution of the study which describes my experience as an EFL teacher for non-English department students, which helped me recognise certain problems in EFL teaching in my own context and led me to decide to test a solution to these problems. This is followed by an articulation of the research questions, research objectives, and a brief indication of the research methodology. I then turn to the context of the study, comprising a brief description of Indonesia as a country, EFL teaching in Indonesia and factors that may affect EFL teaching in this context. Next, I describe the specific context of the study followed by an indication of its significance. Finally, I provide an overview of the organisation of the thesis.

1.2 The evolution of the study

I graduated from the English Education Department of the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education (FKIP) of a university in Palembang Indonesia in 1994. Subsequently, I started teaching English to non-English department students at the Faculty of Agriculture of a university I will henceforth call the "Sumatra University" to preserve the anonymity of this institution. In 1995, I obtained a position as a permanent English lecturer in the English Education Study Program, an undergraduate program under the Language and Arts Education Department of the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education (FKIP) of Sumatra University. My main job was teaching English to EFL students of the English Education Study Program. Although I am a permanent lecturer of the English Department, I still serve as an English lecturer for non-English departments in Sumatra University.

In my experience, teaching English to non-English department students is different from teaching English to students enrolled in the English Education Study Program. Non-English department students have particular problems learning English. Based on my own experience of teaching English to non-English department students from 1994 to 2007, there are factors inhibiting them

from improving their English communicative competence. These include the limited contact hours for the English subject (2 credits out of 160 credits for the whole study), large classes, unsuitable learning materials, ill-defined teaching objectives, questionable assessment procedures, and poorly motivated students.

From time to time I attempted to improve my EFL teaching by applying various teaching strategies and approaches, integrating the four language skills in my teaching and learning activities, or encouraging my non-English department students to join English club activities available on campus. However, I continued to find that they made little progress in terms of their English proficiency.

As I saw it, improving EFL teaching and teaching conditions in higher education needed to involve other parties: top management, content-subject teachers, and teachers of English. Top management, ranging from heads of departments to the rector, obviously played a main role in decision-making related to EFL teaching on campus. An agreement, for example, to increase the credit allocation for English, would need to be subject to ratification by the rector.

At Sumatra University, communication between involved parties to improve EFL teaching at the university was a challenge, since there was limited sharing of information and few attempts to improve EFL teaching for non-English department students. The Sumatra University Language Institute, which coordinated the EFL teaching for non-English department students, seldom discussed teaching materials with related departments. At a department level, the EFL management was generally a matter of simply getting the job done. Students learned English because it was a compulsory subject, the departments provided the course because it was a curriculum requirement, and the Sumatra University Language Institute provided the EFL teachers and teaching materials because it was appointed to do the job.

Teaching and learning conditions were another factor which I believe impacted on the EFL teaching program. In Sumatra University, a class for English in non-English departments might consist of 60 to 150 students and this situation was often demotivating for teachers such as myself.

Factors such as the above prompted me to investigate a content-based instructional approach for the non-English department students I taught. As I saw it, the current teaching approach, which focused mainly on grammar and reading comprehension, was not helping students in developing their communicative skills. They studied English grammar monotonously (forms, usage, examples and practices). Reading exercises in the current teaching approach did not challenge them to think critically either. These largely consisted of multiple choice questions, true-false questions, and cloze exercises. In addition, the current EFL teaching approach did not adequately cover the four language skills. As a result, students had a low motivation in learning. They took the English subject because it was compulsory and their motivation was merely to pass the subject – not to master it.

Based on my own professional and academic reading, I felt that a content-based instructional approach would encourage students to think critically as they learned the content of their own majors. This approach attempts to "combine language with disciplinary learning, suggesting that teachers can build students' knowledge of concepts in content areas and at the same time as they are developing English proficiency" (Schleppegrell, Achugar, & Oteíza, 2004, p. 67). With such an approach, EFL students do not just use English in their language learning but also use it in learning their content subjects. As a result, so the theory goes, they may become motivated and engaged since they have background knowledge related to what they are learning. Wesche and Ready (1985) claimed, for example, that: "Gains in second language proficiency are best achieved in situations where the second language is used as a vehicle for communication about other subjects rather than itself" (p. 90).

What encouraged me to apply a content-based instructional program to EFL students at Sumatra University was my own experience of teaching English to these students, as described above. My first attempt to provide my students with EFL materials related to their majors took place during the first semester of the academic year 2009/2010. I was pleased to discover that they were enthused by the learning materials. Their motivation seemed to increase so that it was easy for me to involve them actively in the teaching and learning process. What I did in my own class was inspired by Crandall's idea of "learning a language through

academic content, engaging in activities, developing proficiency in academic discourse, fostering the development of effective learning strategies" (Crandall, 1999, p. 604)

In the study I report on in this thesis, I systematically applied a content-based instructional approach to my own EFL teaching, where I took on the role of practitioner-researcher. Research findings had shown that this approach can work well in ESL settings (see Alptekin, Erçetin, & Bayyurt; Genesee, 1994; Hauptman, Wesche, & Ready, 1988; Liaw, 2007; Ngan, 2011). I wanted to investigate how the approach might work in an EFL setting. Would the use of a content-based instructional approach help develop students' communicative skills? Would this approach address issues of student motivation?

1.2.1 Research questions

The overall aim of this study was to examine how learning English as a foreign language can be transformed into something more meaningful through the use of CBI, so that EFL students improve their communication skills in English while they are learning a content subject. It specifically focused on using theme-based instruction in a non-English curriculum area in an undergraduate program in the Indonesian higher education system.

In order to achieve this aim, the following research questions were developed:

1. What are the attitudes of some EFL students of non-English departments towards current EFL teaching in the tertiary context?
2. Are there any differences in the intervention class EFL students' pre-test and post-test scores measuring verbal communication performance (actual and self-reported)?
3. What factors identified in a theme-based instructional program appear to contribute to an improvement in EFL students' communication skills?
4. Are there self-reported differences in intervention class EFL students' motivation and attitudes following the intervention program and what reasons do they offer for this improvement?

1.2.2 Research objectives

Based on the research questions above, the objectives of this study were:

1. To investigate the attitudes of some EFL students of non-English departments towards current EFL teaching in the tertiary context.
2. To analyse the differences in the intervention class EFL students' pre-test and post-test scores measuring verbal communicative performance (actual and self-reported).
3. To investigate factors identified in a theme-based instructional program appearing to contribute to an improvement in EFL students' communication skills.
4. To investigate any self-reported differences in intervention-class EFL students' motivation and attitudes following the intervention program and the reasons they gave for this improvement.

1.2.3 Methodology

This thesis reports on a case study, conducted by a practitioner-researcher, involving a class in Sumatra University in Indonesia. The use of a case study as a research method in this study was based on the research sample involved, a single group of students at a university in Indonesia, who concurrently took English and a content-subject in the same semester. Gerring (2004) defined a case study as "an in-depth study of a single unit (a relatively bounded phenomenon) where the scholar's aim is to elucidate features of a larger class of similar phenomena" (p.341). Wellington (2015) shares the same idea as Gerring (2004), i.e. that a case study is a study of a single unit (e.g. a person, an event, a group, an organization, or a classroom). A case study researcher can also be a teacher-researcher investigating the teaching and learning process in which the research participants are students in his/her classroom. In this regard, Stenhouse (1983, cited in Nunan, 2012) referred to "classroom action research or school case studies undertaken by teachers who use their participant status as a basis on which to build skills of observation and analysis" (p. 77).

In relation to this research study, I undertook the role of a practitioner-researcher, in that I both conducted the intervention and collected the required data. As the

research involved understanding the impact of content-based instruction in an EFL setting, I chose mixed-method, data collection methods. Croker (2009) contended that case study research can use various data and data collection methods, and combine both qualitative and quantitative instruments. This study utilised a quasi-experimental design in that the research participants were divided into two groups, an intervention class (IC) and a non-intervention class (NIC) before the intervention was introduced. I conducted the intervention with the IC class using a CBI approach while the control group was taught by one of my teaching colleagues (Harris, a pseudonym) using traditional methods. A justification for these methodological decisions is outlined in Chapter 5.

1.3 Context of the study

The following sub-sections describe the context of the study, namely the general and specific context.

1.3.1 The general context

Indonesia is a unique country located between two continents (Asia and Australia) and two oceans (India and Pacific). It is an archipelagic country encompassing more than 17,508 islands, featuring 731 distinct languages and 1,100 different dialects (Kuipers, 2011). Its population is more than 200 million people united by one national language called Bahasa Indonesia (Musthafa, 2002). The national language is used as the official language in offices, businesses, social interactions, and is the language of instruction at all levels of schooling. As such, it is a compulsory language subject from primary to tertiary levels of education (except masters or doctoral degrees). Other languages, whether they are local or foreign languages (not including English), are optional language subjects in the Indonesian education system.

Although English is a foreign language or a third language in Indonesia, it is a compulsory and important subject at most levels of Indonesian education, starting from the first year of junior high school (or seventh grade) and up to the last grade of high school, the twelfth grade. It is also a compulsory subject for first-year students at most universities. Some universities require students to show evidence

that they have reached a certain level of English proficiency in the form of ITP-TOEFL-like test scores before they take the final exam of their undergraduate degree (Ibrahim, 2004). Because of its important status, the government decided to privilege English as the first foreign language in Indonesia shortly after the Dutch acknowledged the sovereignty of Indonesia in 1949. As Lauder (2008) stated:

> Early on, it was decided that English, rather than Dutch, would be the first foreign language of the country, because Dutch was the language of the colonialists and it did not have the international status that English did. (p. 10)

Realising the importance of mastering English for high-school graduates, through the 1994 National Curriculum, the government introduced English into primary schools. However, English in the primary school is not a compulsory subject. Instead, it is regarded as a local content subject. That is, it requires the institution (primary school) to manage the English teaching, which is usually based on students' needs. Musthafa (2002) stated:

> The main objective of English lessons at this early stage is to introduce young learners to the idea that in addition to their native and national languages, they can also have a foreign language. More specifically, the teaching of English in elementary schools is targeted toward the development of the ability to understand simple oral and written language. (p. 27)

In contrast, EFL teaching in junior and senior high schools is compulsory. Based on the 2006 Curriculum or KTSP (Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan), English teaching in junior high school covers 4 teaching hours[1] a week from seventh to ninth grade. Similarly, English teaching in senior high school has 4 teaching hours a week allocated to it for tenth, eleventh and twelfth grades (Dardjowidjojo, 2012).

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[1] One teaching hour equals to 45 minutes

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EFL teaching at the university level is different from EFL teaching in the primary and secondary school. It is not specifically regulated by a national curriculum. Instead, it is managed by the faculties of the universities themselves. They have the autonomy to manage issues related to EFL teaching in their own contexts (Musthafa, 2002).

Although EFL teaching in Indonesia has existed for more than six decades and occurs in the education system from junior high school (and even from primary school) right through to university, it has not been particularly successful in making Indonesian students able to communicate in English using the four language skills. Lie (2007) stated that after many years of learning English formally at school, many high-school graduates were still unable to communicate well in English. One of the possible reasons for this EFL teaching failure in Indonesia, as stated by Astuti (2013), was that the EFL teaching in Indonesia continued to be focused mainly on grammar and vocabulary.

> Unfortunately, there are still widely found that teaching English as a foreign language much and over [sic] focuses on the English Grammar and vocabulary teaching. It seems that the structure and English component become the most important competence for learning. (p. 660)

EFL teaching in higher education also generally focuses more on teaching language usage (English grammar) than language use. As a result, many university graduates do not have adequate English communication skills. Kirkpatrick (2007) explained:

> At the college or university level, Indonesian college students who are not English majors are commonly required to take two or three credit hours of MKD Bahasa Inggris, an ESP-based course in college English, where students are provided reading materials about their field of study. The focus of instruction is on developing reading skills, translation into Indonesian, and sometimes on writing in English. As the entry level of most students is very low, this ESP-based English class is a grammar

and translation class. Most ESP programs fail to develop
students' proficiency in English. (pp. 22-23)

EFL teaching in higher education, which also focuses largely on grammar and reading comprehension, is believed by a number of commentators to explain why many university graduates have low English proficiency. Kirkpatrick (2007) and Alwasilah (2012) remarked that most ESP programs at university level in Indonesia had failed to develop students' English proficiency. From my own experience as a teacher of non-English department students, and based on statements from scholars regarding EFL teaching problems at university level, there are at least four factors that may be contributing to failings in EFL teaching in higher education.

a. Too few allocated credits for the English subject

As stated by Kirkpatrick (2007) above, the allocated credits for English are only two or three hours per week. Dardjowidjojo (2000) compared this number with the number of hours high-school graduates spend learning English (about 808 learning hours) and the state of affairs where most of them do not have adequate competence in English. Their ability to communicate in English using the four language skills is far from what is expected. In the same vein, Musthafa (2002) also expressed his doubts about the minimum teaching hours for English at university level. He noted:

> There seems to be a collective sense of doubt that two or four
> credit units of on-campus formal English instruction make a
> difference for university students–considering the fact that
> some 736 hours of English in junior and senior high school do
> not seem to equip students with the skills required to read
> textbooks on their own. (p. 28)

Such comments support a widely held view that two or three teaching hours for EFL teaching at university are not enough to ensure students have good English communicative competence, that is, the ability to communicate in English both orally and in writing.

b. Aims of the EFL teaching program: Class size as a factor

As stated by Musthafa (2002) above, universities in Indonesia have autonomy to determine everything related to EFL teaching in their own context. Given this autonomy, they sometimes set unrealistic EFL teaching objectives without considering other factors that make it impossible to meet them. In is not unusual for the stake-holders in a university to prescribe that at the end of the EFL teaching programs, students will be able to communicate fluently in English both orally and in writing. Such objectives are not very likely to be attained on the basis of the two teaching hours allocated for the subject and large classes. As claimed by Dardjowidjojo (2000) and Nur (2004), large classes for English contribute to ongoing problems in ELT in Indonesia. These conditions may be one of the reasons why EFL teaching at university level, as claimed by Kirkpatrick (2007), is effectively aimed only at developing students' reading comprehension skills.

c. EFL learning materials and program assessment

As the predominant EFL teaching focus is largely on grammar and reading comprehension, EFL learning materials usually consist of reading passages with reading comprehension exercises, and grammatical structures with grammatical structure exercises. As a non-English department teacher, I used two textbooks designed and published by the Sumatra University Language Institute (pseudonym), an institution which manages the EFL teaching provisions at the university where I teach English. One textbook was intended for natural and mathematical science students (agriculture, mathematics and natural science, medicine, nursing, and engineering) and the other one was for social science students (law, social and political sciences, and economics). Each textbook consisted of two parts, reading passages for reading comprehension (covering more than 50% of the whole content) and grammar. Few reading passages in the textbooks were related to the content of students' study majors. In addition, the assessment procedures to measure students' progress were not the same in each faculty and department. Some faculties relied on the individual teacher of English teaching in their departments. These faculties were willing to accept any components the English teacher made use of to measure students' progress. Other

faculties required English teachers to provide details of score components such as quizzes, assignments, mid-term, and final semester exams. The types of questions used in the mid-term and final semester exam, in this instance, tended to consist mainly of multiple-choice questions.

d. Staff and student motivation

As mentioned previously, the number of students in a class may also affect the EFL program's outcomes. In my experience as an English teacher of non-English department students, a class of English in such a department might well consist of 50 to 150 students. Such a class would be categorised as large. It is difficult for teachers of such classes to sustain motivation. In addition, in my own experience, I would have to say that the students generally appear unengaged. When I was teaching reading comprehension or grammatical structure, I could see that only the students sitting in front seats looked keen to participate. Those sitting at the back were often distracted.

Given the factors just described, it really is a massive challenge to design a relatively brief but focused skills-based EFL teaching program that can directly help non-English department students with their studies in their major. I was motivated by this challenge to investigate whether a content-based instruction approach would be a feasible teaching approach to help EFL students increase their motivation and engagement in learning English and improve their English proficiency both orally and in written language.

1.3.2 The specific context

The faculty of Teacher Training and Education, where this study was conducted, has four departments. They are Language and Arts Education, Mathematics and Natural Science Education, Social Science Education, and Educational Science. Each department has study programs. The History Education Study Program, whose students were the participants of this study, is a study program under the auspices of the Social Science Education Department.

As stated above, the EFL teaching provision for non-English department students is provided by the Sumatra University Language Institute. The Language Institute

provides the English teachers for non-English departments. Some of these are full-time English teachers in the English Education Study Program, while the remainder are part-time English teachers at the Language Institute. The language Institute also provides teaching materials. The timetabling and rooms are the responsibility of the relevant departments.

As stated above, each faculty has autonomy in determining the number of hours for English. The Faculty of Law, for example, provides English for five semesters, the Faculty of Medicine and Computer Sciences provides English for three semesters, and the Faculty of Economics provides English for two semesters. Other faculties provide English for only one semester. Regardless of how many semesters each faculty opts to provide English, the number of hours in each semester is two hours/week. This means that non-English department students only have one lecture in English every week during the semester.

Similar to EFL teaching in other higher education institutions in Indonesia, EFL teaching at the Sumatra University is generally focused on grammar and reading comprehension. The two textbooks described above reveal the two focuses clearly. This practice has been in place in EFL teaching at the university for a long time. From the first time I became a part-time English teacher for non-English department students in December 1995, I focused my teaching practice on grammar and reading comprehension. With only one two-hour lecture per week, a teaching focus on grammar and reading comprehension, and somewhat unmotivated students, I felt unsuccessful in improving non-English department students' English communicative competence as my classes were teacher-centred and did not focus on developing students' English competence for communicative uses.

1.4 Significance of the study

The intent of my study was to seek a deeper understanding of how a content-based instructional approach might integrate both content subject materials and target-language learning. In particular, I wanted to investigate the effectiveness of theme-based instruction in improving non-English department students' communicative skills both orally and in written language.

In undertaking this research, I believed that I might generate findings that indicated a more effective way of improving EFL students' communicative skills. These findings, I believed, would be of interest to university stakeholders at my own institution ranging from heads of departments to the rector, who might see a content-based instructional approach as a solution to perceived failings in EFL instruction in non-English departments in the university. (Improvements in EFL teaching for non-English department students in Sumatra University are one of its own institutional goals.) I also saw this study as potentially helping the Sumatra University prepare its long-term plan to have open international programs in which English is used as the medium of communication and instruction.

I also believed that the study would be beneficial, not only for non-English department students at the Sumatra University, but also for EFL teaching in tertiary education in Indonesia generally. For tertiary education in Indonesia, this study will suggest an alternative EFL teaching approach to improve English competence for all tertiary students. Additionally, having enhanced communicative competence in English will help our university graduates improve their employment prospects.

1.5 Organisation of the thesis

In terms of structure, this thesis consists of nine chapters.

Chapter 2, *An overview of content-based instruction in the context of ELT*, describes current trends in ELT research, CLT, CBI, related approaches to CBI, factors in CBI implementation, and research on CBI in the Southeast Asian context.

Chapter 3, *Overview of ELT in Indonesia and the relevance of CBI EFL teaching in Indonesian higher education*, describes the status of English as a foreign language and third language in Indonesia, EFL teaching challenges in Indonesia, EFL teaching problems in Indonesian tertiary education, EFL teaching problems in some Southeast Asian countries, and the relevance of theme-based instruction in EFL teaching in Indonesian tertiary education.

Chapter 4, *Teaching and learning activities in the intervention and non-intervention classes,* describes the research setting, research participants and sampling procedures, teaching syllabi, teaching and learning activities in both IC and NIC classes, and ethical issues arising from the tests used in this study.

Chapter 5, *Research design methodology*, describes the overall design (strategy and framework), data collection procedures, data analysis procedures, validity, and ethical issues arising from this study in general.

Chapter 6, *Students' EFL proficiency, previous EFL learning experience and attitudes toward the current EFL teaching program,* describes students' EFL proficiency before the intervention program, students' historical EFL learning experiences, and students' attitudes toward the current university EFL program.

Chapter 7, *EFL students' performance, attitudes and motivation levels before and after the intervention program*, describes findings related to the second research questions (pre-test, post-test, mid-test, and semester test), and findings related to the fourth research question.

Chapter 8, *Effectiveness of a theme-based instructional program in improving EFL students' communication skills and motivation to learn English language*, describes qualitative findings related to factors affecting the effectiveness of theme-based instructional program in improving the IC EFL students' communication skills and motivation to learn English.

Chapter 9, *Discussion of findings*, presents a discussion of key findings of the study. This chapter begins with important findings from the pre-test and first questionnaire. Findings from the first section of the first questionnaire do not relate directly to the first research question but are still relevant to the topic in general since they deal with students' previous EFL learning experiences. The chapter next discusses findings that directly serve to answer the four research questions. These findings are discussed with reference to the literature, including the literature reviewed in Chapter 2. This leads to an overview of the findings and some comments on the study's implications, in particular for the Indonesian educational context. The chapter concludes by pointing out some limitations of the study, which serve as a basis for recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER TWO: AN OVERVIEW OF CONTENT-BASED INSTRUCTION IN THE CONTEXT OF ELT

2.1 Introduction

This chapter sets out an overview of content-based instruction (CBI) in the context of ELT. It first describes the current trends in ELT research in terms of theories of second language acquisition, research approaches, and teaching methods and approaches. Then it defines the communicative language teaching approach (CLT), communicative competence, principles of CLT, and CLT in ESL/EFL teaching practice. Next, it considers previous research into content-based instruction, which is the focus of investigation in this study. This section appraises the benefits and limitations of CBI for the purposes of this study, as well as the theoretical framework, rationale, models of CBI, and the appropriateness of a theme-based instructional approach for this study. The chapter goes on to discuss three approaches overlapping with or informing CBI in various ways. The next section is about the factors that may significantly affect the implementation of a CBI programme. They include students' beliefs about language learning, students' exposure to previous methods of language learning, and levels of integration and overlap of content and skills work in the EFL and content classes.

This chapter ends with an account of specific research which has been done on the interpretation and implementation of CBI in the Southeast Asian context.

2.2 Current trends in English language teaching research

Trends in language teaching research either as a second or a foreign language have changed over recent decades. Current trends in language teaching research can be grouped under three topics: language acquisition theories, research focus and approaches, and teaching methods and approaches.

2.2.1 Theories of second language acquisition (SLA)

Theories of second language acquisition (SLA) used in language teaching research have changed over time. If Krashen's (1985) input hypothesis or monitor model was the dominant framework for language teaching in the 1980s, the current focus of SLA theories in language teaching research (from 1990s up to the present) is the sociocultural theory (SCT). This theory is "grounded in the psychological theory of human consciousness proposed by Lev Semeonovitch Vygotsky, a Russian psychologist" (Lantolf, 2011, p. 24).

Cook (2008) noted that SCT has been one of the most prominent models in second language acquisition since the beginning of the 1990s. He argued that this theory stresses the importance of interaction from the viewpoint of collaborative dialogue, that is, a "dialogue in which speakers are engaged in problem solving and knowledge building" (Swain, 2000 cited in Cook, 2008, p. 230). Through collaborative dialogue the learners get double benefits; namely, they can exchange information and they can create new knowledge as well (Cook, 2008). Stapleton's (2013) analysis of the characteristics and trends within the 30-year history of the Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) conference found that Vygotsky is the second most cited author, indicating that SLT is one of the most favoured theories in SLA. In addition, van Compernolle and Williams (2013) noted that researchers' and practitioners' interest in the sociocultural theory of second language research has grown since the publications of Frawley and Lantolf's articles in 1984 and 1985. Its position as a major model for research in SLA teaching and assessment, as shown by a "growing number of journal articles and book chapters, dissertations, edited volumes, and books focused on SCT, as well as the presence of SCT in handbooks and other reference texts centred on theories of SLA" (van Compernolle & Williams, 2013, p. 278).

As stated above, a major reason why SLT has become a prominent theory in SLA research is its emphasis on in-class interaction, indicating that interaction has come to be seen as an important aspect of SLA. Well-known scholars (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007; Pica, 1994; Sato & Ballinger, 2012) have agreed that interaction is important in language learning. Lantolf and Thorne (2007) argued that interaction helps students develop their higher order thinking skills. They claimed that students' cognitive activity develops significantly when they are learning through

interaction with others in the class. Pica (1994) maintained that interaction facilitates negotiation in language learning when students have difficulties in "message comprehensibility" (p 494). She added that when students negotiate meaning, "they work linguistically to achieve the needed comprehensibility, whether repeating a message verbatim, adjusting its syntax, changing its words, or modifying its form and meaning in a host of other ways" (p. 494). Sato and Ballinger (2012) highlighted two benefits students get from collaborative interaction. They help each other's language learning development and develop more detailed perception of their own second language development as well.

Three key concepts of SCT include: mediation, zone of proximal development (ZDP), and scaffolding. The concept of mediation is fundamental to Vygotsky's thinking (Lantolf, 2000; Wertsch, 2007). Wertsch (2007) stated:

> In his [Vygotsky's] view, a hallmark of human consciousness is that it is associated with the use of tools, especially "psychological tools" or "signs." Instead of acting in a direct, unmediated way in the social and physical world, our contact with the world is indirect or mediated by signs. This means that understanding the emergence and the definition of higher mental processes must be grounded in the notion of mediation. (Wertsch, 2007, p. 178)

Vygotsky emphasised the importance of mediation for the development of intellectual capacities. The mediation can be represented in the form of intellectual tools. As one of the symbolic tools of mediation, language plays an important role in interaction with other people in the community (Lantolf, 2000). It mediates interaction to help shape people's understanding of the world (Kozulin, Gindis, Ageyev, & Miller, 2003).

An important second concept of SCT proposed by Vygotsky is the zone of proximal development (ZDP). Chaiklin (2003, p. 40) claimed that it is "one of the most widely recognized and well-known ideas associated with Vygotsky's scientific production" (p. 40). He further said that the term *ZPD* appears not only in developmental, educational and general psychology books but also in

educational research, including second language learning. Vygotsky (1978, cited in Chaiklin, 2003) defined ZPD as:

> the distance between the actual developmental level as
> determined by independent problem solving and the level of
> potential development as determined through problem solving
> under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable
> peers. (p. 40)

From the definition, ZDP can be interpreted as the gap between what a less competent person can do alone and what a less competent person can do with help. The essence of the idea is that the less competent person can develop their cognitive level when the gaps in their thinking and problem solving are supported by more capable people, such as peers or teachers. Therefore, the best way for the person to develop their cognitive level is to work collaboratively with more competent others. Interaction on a task between a less competent person and a more competent person can help the less competent person become "independently proficient at what was at what was initially a jointly accomplished task" (Chaiklin, 2003, p. 41).

Scaffolding is a third key component of SCT. This concept was not proposed by Vygotsky, but was initially coined by Bruner and his colleagues (1976) (Bodrova & Leong, 1998; Lantolf & Thorne, 2007) and was intended as a practical application for operationalising "Vygotsky's (1987) concept of working in the zone of proximal development" (Wells, 2004, p. 127). Bruner et al. (1976 cited in Bodrova & Leong, 1998) specifically identified it as the model of assistance that enables learners to perform beyond their current levels of their ZDP. Dimitriadis and Kamberelis (2006) explained:

> Since learning involves moving beyond current levels of
> competence, scaffolding should function to move learners into
> the nearest reaches of their incompetence (not too far) and
> should help them become competent there. As learning
> continues, the leading edge of the reaches of incompetence
> keeps moving on. Teachers and learners must both map the

> limits of competence and strive together to move just beyond
> it. (p. 197)

It can be summarised from the explanation above that scaffolding is a kind of intervention done by more knowledgeable people (peers or teachers) to support less knowledgeable learners in developing their cognitive ability to do certain tasks. Once the less knowledgeable learners master the task, the scaffolding can be stopped, the learners now being able to perform the task again by themselves.

2.2.2 Research approaches

Trends in research approaches used in second or foreign language teaching research have changed too. Of the two research approaches (qualitative and quantitative), qualitative research approaches were strongly favoured during the first decade of the 21st century (Benson, Chik, Gao, Huang, & Wang, 2009; Harklau, 2011; Richards, 2009; Stapleton, 2013). Benson et al. (2009), who surveyed ten journals within a ten-year period (from 1997 to 2006), found that 477 articles reporting on qualitative research were published. Richards (2009) remarked that in the new millennium, qualitative research has had a solid presence in the leading journals such as *TESOL Quarterly*, *Applied Linguistics*, *Modern Language Journal*, and *IRAL*. Stapleton (2013), in a survey of journal articles, book chapters and doctoral dissertations for the purpose of examining trends in research methodology, found that most of those empirical studies showed increasing use of qualitative research approaches. A dominance of qualitative research was also identified by Harklau (2011) when reviewing 230 publications in major international journals (*Applied Linguistics, Language Learning, Modern Language Journal*, and *TESOL Quarterly*) within a six year period (2003 to 2009).

A number of issues have caused the shift in interest from quantitative to qualitative research design. These can be classified into two broad categories: phenomenological paradigms (Best & Kahn, 2006; Bryman, 2012; Yin, 2011) and the nature of qualitative research (Bryman, 2012).

The shift in interest from quantitative to qualitative research is caused by the qualitative phenomenological paradigm, which uses "a variety of interpretive

research methodologies" (Best & Kahn, 2006, p. 246) to make known people's perceptions, perspectives and understandings of a particular situation or "the uniqueness of events" (Yin, 2011, p. 14). Epistemologically oriented interpretivists may prefer this research method because it allows them to see through the eyes of the research participants being studied, which they consider a very effective way of discerning and interpreting meaning and individual interpretation (Bryman, 2012). In other words, qualitative research is preferred to quantitative research because of a recognition of the importance of a thorough understanding of the context where the research is carried out (Greene, 2000). Another reason for the preference is explained by Bryman (2012), who pointed out that qualitative research is less structured and more flexible in nature:

> An advantage of the unstructured nature of most qualitative
> enquiry (that is, in addition to the prospect of gaining access
> to people's worldviews) is that it offers the prospect of
> flexibility. The researcher can change direction in the course
> of his or her investigation much more easily than in
> quantitative research, which tends to have a built-in
> momentum once the data collection is underway. (Bryman,
> 2012, p. 404)

Thus, qualitative research is favoured mostly by researchers because it allows for deeper description and contextual understanding, which are fundamental in the qualitative research process. In addition, the nature of qualitative research, its lack of structure and its flexibility, is also favoured by researchers because it allows them to consider the wider frames of reference of their research participants.

In addition to quantitative and qualitative research approaches, a mixed method research approach has become increasingly common in second language teaching and learning (Bryman, 2006). This type of approach, which analyses qualitative and quantitative data and triangulates the results to get findings with strong validity, has been used mainly to explore social factors such as motivation, attitude, competence, or learning styles (Bryman, 2012; Magnan & Lafford, 2012; Wilkinson, 1998). Bryman (2006) and Richards (2009) believed that there has been a significant movement from qualitative research to mixed methods research. One example of the movement was the publication of the *Journal of Mixed*

Methods Research in 2007 which reflected the growing importance of a mixed method approach.

A number of scholars support the use of mixed-methods approaches in second language acquisition research (Bryman, 2006, 2012; Duff, 2010; Richards, 2009). Bryman (2006) said that due to the strengths and weaknesses of both qualitative and quantitative approaches, combining the two approaches would make for a good research proposal. Bryman (2012) added that "such a strategy would seem to allow the various strengths to be capitalized upon and the weaknesses offset somewhat" (Bryman, 2012, p. 628). Duff (2010) supported Bryman's claim. She said that as the two approaches should be viewed as "complementary rather than fundamentally incompatible" (p. 54), a mixed method paradigm is recommended. Punch (2001), Bryman (2012) and Duff (2010) agreed about the benefits of combining the two approaches, but Punch (2001) emphasised that the particular situation should be considered in combining the two approaches. He further stated:

> Quantitative and qualitative research are combined in order to provide a general picture. Quantitative research may be employed to plug the gaps in a qualitative study which arise because, for example, the researcher cannot be in more one place at any one time. Alternatively, it may be that not all issues are amenable solely to a quantitative investigation or solely to a qualitative one. (p. 247)

A mixed methods approach can be applied as a research method in EFL studies such as this one to respond to research questions which are both qualitative and quantitative in nature, and which collect and analyse both qualitative and quantitative data. Using a mixed methods research approach is believed to provide a better understanding of the research problems (Creswell, 2003, 2009; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). It is also believed to provide a broader view of the study since the qualitative data help describe aspects that cannot be covered by the quantitative data (Creswell, 2003). And finally, it can increase the validity of the obtained findings because the triangulation of both qualitative and quantitative data involves "the use of multiple, independent methods of obtaining data in a

single investigation in order to arrive at the same research findings [by exploring] the issues from all feasible perspectives" (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 181).

More about the implementation of the mixed methods approach is explained in Chapter 4, "Research Methods and Procedure".

2.2.3 Teaching methods and approaches

In terms of language teaching methods and approaches, CLT and task-based language teaching (TBLT) are the current dominant trends. This conclusion is based on Howatt and Smith's (2014) classification of the four periods of teaching methods and approaches: the classical period (1750-1880), the reform period (1880-1920), the scientific period (1920-1970), and the communicative period (1970-2000). Howatt and Smith (2014) labelled the last period "the communicative period". In this period, CLT and TBLT are discussed as the current teaching approaches used in language teaching research. Howatt and Smith's conclusion is in line with Stapleton's (2013) findings on broad trends in language teaching over 30 years taken from reviews of a language teachers' conference in Japan (JALT). One of Stapleton's conclusions was that task-based language teaching has become increasingly visible over the 30-year period (1978-2008) of JALT.

The communicative language teaching and task-based language teaching approaches will be discussed further in sections 2.3 and 2.5.3.

2.3 Communicative language teaching (CLT)

Communicative language teaching is an approach in ESL/EFL teaching that emerged in the 1960s. It deviated from traditional methods which relied upon repetitive drills of grammar and vocabulary. Richards and Schmidt (2010), in the *Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics*, defined it as "an approach to foreign or second language teaching which emphasizes that the goal of language learning is communicative competence and which seeks to make meaningful communication and language use a focus of all classroom activities"

(p. 99). As clearly stated in this definition, the main principle of the approach is that it focuses on developing communicative competence among students.

2.3.1 Communicative competence

Communicative competence as a term was first coined by Hymes (1972) to distinguish it from Chomsky's theory of competence (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 87). Hymes argued that in order to acquire communicative competence, language learners should not only know the grammatical rules of the language, they should also be able to use the language appropriately in a given social context.

Since it was first introduced by Hymes (1972), the term *communicative competence* has been developed and interpreted in different ways. A number of scholars (Bachman, 1995; Canale & Swain, 1980; Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, & Turrel, 1995) developed and proposed their own models of communicative competence. Among these, Canale and Swain's model has been recognised as a major influence on later discussions about communicative competence. As stated by Celce-Murcia (2007), "the model proposed by Canale and Swain (l980), along with the elaborations proposed by Canale (l983), remain the key sources for discussions of communicative competence and related applications in applied linguistics and language pedagogy" (p. 41). Canale (1983) stated that in Canale and Swain's (1980) model of communicative competence,

> communicative competence refers to both knowledge and skill in using this knowledge when interacting in actual communication. Knowledge refers here to what one knows (consciously or unconsciously) about the language and about other aspects of communicative language use; skill refers to how well one can perform this knowledge in actual communication. (p. 5)

Based on Canale and Swain's (1980) model, the components of communicative competence include grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence and discourse competence, which was added later (Canale, 1983).

The term *communicative competence* is not only the main component of CLT; it is also the central concept of content-based instruction (CBI), which is the focus of investigation in this study. This relationship can be seen from Stryker and Leaver's (1997a) explanation below:

> CBI is part of what has been termed a "new paradigm" in language education. This new paradigm centers on the concept of fostering our students' "communicative competence" in the foreign language, that is, the ability to communicate with native speakers in real-life situations authentic interpersonal communication. (p. 12)

2.3.2 Principles of communicative language teaching

Communicative language teaching is also recognised as an approach rather than a method in ELT. This is because it views language teaching from "a functional theory of language – one that focuses on language as a means of communication" (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 87). Richards and Rogers (2014) added that it also refers to "a diverse set of principles that rely on a communicative view of language and language learning and that can be used to support a wide variety of classroom procedures" (p.87). Richards and Rogers (2014) and Richards and Schmidt (2010) stated that there are five principles of CLT:

1. Learners learn a language through using it to communicate.
2. Authentic and meaningful communication should be the goal of classroom activities.
3. Fluency is an important dimension of communication.
4. Communication involves the integration of different language skills.
5. Learning is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error.

<div align="right">(Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 105)</div>

In the development of communicative approaches, some of the principles of CLT have been incorporated into other approaches. One of them is content-based instruction (Richards & Schmidts, 2010). Richards and Rogers (2014) believed that CBI is "a logical development of some of the core principles of

communicative language teaching, particularly those that relate to the role of meaning in language learning" (p. 81).

2.3.3 CLT in ESL/EFL teaching practice

As stated above, the emergence of CLT was a response to the grammar translation method (GTM), which had been considered unsuccessful in improving ESL/EFL students' communicative skills. A number of scholars (Jacobs & Farrell, 2003; McDonough, Shaw, & Masuhara, 2013; Warschauer & Kern, 2000) have claimed that since its emergence in the 1960s, CLT has brought about significant changes in ESL/EFL teaching. McDonough et al. (2013) stated that CLT has been innovative in many aspects of course design, "from mastering linguistic properties (e.g. pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar) to … acquiring communicative competence" (p. 23). In line with McDonough et al. (2013), Warschauer and Kern (2000) noted a number of changes in ESL/EFL teaching and learning activities, including the following: the focus of instruction is developed to foster communicative ability; self-expression is more valued than dialogue recitation; negotiation of meaning is prioritised over structural drill practice; providing comprehensible input is imperative; the learners' culture is emphasised; and, in the textbooks used, spoken language form is distinguished from written language form. In terms of approaches to language teaching, Jacobs and Farrell (2003) identified eight major changes in approaches to language teaching since the emergence of CLT. They are learner autonomy, the social nature of learning, curricular integration, focus on meaning, diversity, thinking skills, alternative assessments, and teachers as co-learners.

2.4 Content-based instruction (CBI)

This section is the core section in this chapter as content-based instruction (CBI) is the topic of the research which has been investigated in this study. CBI seemed to me to provide a solution to the concern surrounding EFL teaching in Indonesian tertiary education. The traditional grammar-based approach is currently used in EFL teaching programmes, particularly at the institution where this study was conducted. The EFL teaching at most Indonesian universities

generally does not meet the objective of improving EFL students' communicative competence (Madya, 2002; Wati, 2011). Alternative EFL teaching approaches need to be considered, especially those which promote students' communicative skills. As stated by Widdowson (1978 cited in Hutchinson & Waters, 1987):

> Traditionally the aim of linguistics had been to describe the rules of English usage, that is, the grammar. However, the new studies shifted attention away from defining the formal features of language usage to discovering the ways in which language is actually used in real communication. (p. 7)

CBI, which integrates content learning and language skill practice, and uses the language as a means of instruction to learn content (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989; Stryker & Leaver, 1997a), seems to promise a better EFL teaching practice at the tertiary institution than the traditional grammar-based approach currently in practice.

In the next section, I will review and evaluate the main conceptual strands of CBI in order to support the argument that content-based instruction (CBI) can be applied in an EFL context in Indonesia. The explanation of CBI will start this section, followed by an assessment of the benefits and limitations of CBI, rationale, models of CBI, and the effectiveness of the theme-based instructional approach in the EFL context.

Content-based instruction is an approach to second or foreign language teaching in which the learning and teaching activities are arranged around a particular topic or subject rather than around the language's linguistic or grammatical rules (Brinton, Wesche, & Snow, 2003; Crandall & Tucker, 1990; Met, 1999; Richards & Rogers, 2014; Zarobe & Catalán, 2009). In other words, the teaching is not focused on the target language itself, but rather on what is being taught through the language. The target language becomes the medium of learning the content.

Content-based instruction is also characterised as an approach with dual commitments, that is, to develop students' content knowledge and to improve their communicative competence in the target language (Stoller, 2004). When students are learning a subject through a CBI approach, the content materials will

determine how the target language is sequenced and, therefore, presented (Brinton et al., 2003). The students thus strengthen their knowledge of content and improve their communicative competence in the language at the same time because they use it in its real function as a means of communication.

Content-based instruction originated from a successful Canadian experiment with French immersion schooling begun in 1965, the first language immersion programme intended for Canadian English speaking people learning French, Canada's second official language (Brinton et al., 2003; Cammarata, 2010; Duenas, 2004; Stoller, 2008; Swain, 2001). In this project, students learned content subjects such as mathematics or history through the medium of French. Many subsequent experiments in the implementation of content-driven curricula in other educational settings have also shown their success (Brinton et al., 2003; Grabe & Stoller, 1997; The European Commission). Brinton et al. (2003) said that immersion programmes spread in the USA as an alternative foreign language programme in elementary schools since the establishment of a Spanish immersion programme in Culver City, California in 1971. Grabe and Stoller (1997) noted the introduction of L2 immersion CBI programmes in the USSR in the 1960s. The European Commission report (2005, cited in Navés, 2009) claimed that content and language integrated learning (CLIL) "helps to ensure the attainment of EU objectives in the area of language learning and enables pupils to study a non-language-related subject in a foreign language" (p. 25).

Content-based instruction is not a new approach. As stated at the end of section 2.3.2, Richards and Rodgers (2014) believed that CBI is the rational evolution of some of CLT's principles, especially those connected with the role of meaning in language learning. This idea is based on the fact that the main focus of the CBI approach is on the teaching of content; therefore, the teaching aim should be to communicate meaningful content to the students. But CLT and CBI are not identical. The difference between CBI and CLT as explained by Larson-Freeman (2008) centres on their focus. A CLT class is characteristically focused on providing students with opportunities to practise the language functions. A CBI class, on the other hand, does not have this focus. Instead, it gives more attention to learn the content. In other words, in a CBI class, the emphasis is less on

learning to use English communicatively, but more on using English to communicate the content (Duenas, 2004; Eskey, 1997; Stryker & Leaver, 1997a).

2.4.1 Benefits and limitations of CBI

CBI offers a number of benefits to ESL/EFL students. Proponents of content-based instruction claim that focusing language learning on a content subject increases students' higher-order thinking skills (Butler, 2005; Liaw, 2007; Pally, 2001); improves engagement and motivation (Grabe & Stoller, 1997; Iakovos, Iosif, & Areti, 2011; Tedick, Jorgensen, & Geffert, 2001); and develops students' language skills (Kasper, 1997; Liaw, 2007; Stoller, 2002, April).

Content-based instruction is seen as helping students develop their thinking skills. When students use the target language to learn subject content they learn the subject academically. Using the language in realistic conditions with the subject matter of the discipline encourages them to think critically (Pally, 2001) as they are challenged cognitively (Butler, 2005). Liaw's (2007) research findings further support the view that CBI develops both students' "language skills" and "thinking skills" (p. 76).

Integration of language and content through CBI is seen by a number of researchers to increase student engagement and motivation as well. Grabe and Stoller (1997) stated that research on CBI showed students' improvement not only in language proficiency and content knowledge but also in motivation and interest. Tedick et al. (2001) added that CBI also supported "cognitive engagement" (p. 2). Interesting learning activities engage students cognitively, which in the end facilitates language acquisition (Tedick et al., 2001). In agreement with Grabe and Stoller (1997) and Tedick et al (2011), Iakovos et al. (2011) added that growing interest and engagement in CBI programme activities would lead to the improvement of students' motivation in learning.

A number of researchers have claimed that content-based instruction develops students' language skills. Kasper (1997) stated that research on CBI in ESL found an improvement in students' English language skills. Through the use of a variety of multimedia activities, students were able to "acquire knowledge in an academic discipline and [it] subsequently [provided] them with the opportunity to discuss,

analyze, extend and apply concepts presented" (Kasper, 1997, p. 317). Liaw (2007), who investigated the effectiveness of promoting EFL critical thinking skills and EFL skills with a content-based approach, supported Kasper's claim. Her research findings, which were derived from students' pre- and post-tests and questionnaires, showed that students' language skills improved after an instruction that used a content-based approach. Stoller (2002, April) had a similar view to Kasper (1997) and Liaw (2007). In a plenary address at the 2002 TESOL conference, she argued that CBI could improve students' language skills. She stated, "[A]s students master language, they are able to learn more content, and as students learn more content, they're able to improve their language skills" (p. 3).

Besides the benefits it offers, CBI also has a number of limitations, especially regarding its implementation. Those limitations can be grouped in terms of appropriate balance between academic content and explicit language teaching (Pessoa, Hendry, Donato, Tucker, & Lee, 2007), authenticity of learning materials (Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Stryker & Leaver, 1997a, 1997b; Williams, 2004), and comprehensibility of the learning materials (Brinton et al., 2003; Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Establishing an appropriate balance between academic content and explicit language teaching is a crucial problem in CBI implementation. As noted by Pessoa et al. (2007), the literature on CBI reveals difficulties with balancing content and language teaching, resulting in some cases in a teaching focus more oriented to either content or language. Problems can arise because teachers involved in CBI programmes are either "content-trained or language-trained" (Pessoa et al., 2007, p. 243). In other words, if the teacher is content-trained, the teaching content will tend to be more on subject-area content, and vice versa, if the teacher is language-trained, the teaching content will tend to be more on language form. But keeping the right balance between the content and language teaching is important. Williams (2004) in his article "Fact sheet–Enhancing language teaching with content" emphasised the importance of keeping a balance between the two teaching emphases:

> If there is too much content, learners can be overwhelmed by
> material they do not fully understand, and will not extend their
> language skills. If there is too much emphasis on language, learners

will not develop knowledge of the content (i.e. its "meanings") that is useful for them, and may not see the full potential of the language-focused learning they are involved in. (p. 6)

One way to keep the right balance between content and language learning as advised by Williams (2004) is by deciding the limits of the coverage of the topics. Limiting the coverage of the topics means the content can be explored intensively. Williams (2004) said that the topics in CBI can be generally limited to basic concepts to avoid unnecessary difficulties. In this way, the connections between the content materials and language use can be explored intensively.

The authenticity of the learning materials is the second challenge in the implementation of a CBI programme. Stryker and Leaver (1997b) explained that "by 'authentic' we mean that most or all of the language models and materials emanate from the culture being studied, rather than from sources especially prepared for students of the language" (pp. 294-295). In line with Stryker and Leaver (1997b), Richards and Rodgers (2001) defined authentic materials in one sense as "materials used in native-language instruction" (p. 215) and in another sense as "newspaper or magazine articles and any other media materials that were not originally produced for language teaching purposes" (p. 215). Stryker and Leaver (1997b) stated that a CBI teacher should be able to create appropriate learning tasks from any parts of the authentic materials which are "linguistically simple but cognitively challenging" (p. 297). What Stryker and Leaver (1997b) emphasised is that a language teacher must be able to make the authentic materials they have selected realistic and interesting to the students.

Comprehensibility is another important aspect of CBI teaching materials (Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Stryker & Leaver, 1997a). Richards and Rodgers (2001) considered that it was as important as the matter of authenticity. The problem appears if the language used in the authentic teaching materials is far beyond students' current levels (Stryker & Leaver, 1997a). It is then the duty of the teachers to make them accessible to the students. Richards and Rodgers (2001) and agreed that authentic teaching materials should be adapted and modified to ensure that they can be comprehended by the students. Stryker and Leaver (1997a) emphasised that the important issue with the authentic materials is not what those materials are, but what to do with them. Therefore, the teachers should

be able to *shelter*[2] those materials; that is, to make them accessible to students based on their level of proficiency. Stryker and Leaver (1997a) further stressed:

> An important part of sheltering content is knowing how to grade activities and utilize a broad variety of teaching strategies; among these are using context effectively, recycling or spiralling information, exploiting students' background knowledge and schemata, using peer work, and teaching coping strategies. (p. 8)

From the explanation above, it can be inferred that it is important for a teacher to be aware of the limitations of CBI approach. By carefully selecting the authentic content materials and taking appropriate steps to anticipate the limitations above, students may find the CBI class interesting and motivating. As stated by Stryker and Leaver (1997a), "[i]f the teacher carefully selects the content, the students will study topics for which they already possess schemata (i.e., the relevant linguistic, content, and cultural background knowledge)" (p. 9).

2.4.2 Rationale

I have employed three language learning principles to support the use of CBI in this study. The first rationale is taken from the central principle of CBI that "people learn a second language more successfully when they use the language as a means of acquiring information, rather than as an end in itself" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 207). This means that when the target language is used as a means of instruction in a content class, students will focus their attention primarily on the topic being discussed. The more they are engaged in the discussion, the more they use the target language.

The second rationale for applying CBI in this study is that CBI can be more motivating than the traditional grammar-focused instruction. Proponents of CBI (Brinton et al., 2003; Brinton et al., 1989; Grabe & Stoller, 1997) have claimed that students are more highly motivated to learn when the instructional materials

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[2] The term *shelter* here is different from the one used in *Sheltered content instruction*. In a *sheltered* class, the language learners are separated from native speakers

are based on topics that they find interesting and relevant. The use of a CBI approach in their EFL teaching is expected to increase not only their instrumental motivation, but also their integrative motivation, "learning the language because of a genuine interest in communicating with members of the other language (either because of positive feelings toward that community or members of that community, or because of a general interest in other groups)" (Gardner, 2007, p. 19).

The last rationale for applying CBI in this study is that CBI is derived from communicative language teaching. CLT opens the opportunity to develop EFL students' integrated communicative skills. Stoller (2002) explained:

> In a content-based approach, the activities of the language class are specific to the subject matter being taught, and are geared to stimulate students to think and learn through the use of the target language. Such an approach lends itself quite naturally to the integrated teaching of the four traditional language skills. (p. 29)

An example of such a content-based approach is a typical CBI class reading session. In the reading activities, students are required to read authentic materials, interpret them, evaluate them, share the information with others and listen to others' answers or feedback. They can give their responses either orally or in writing. So through a CBI approach, "students are exposed to study skills and learn a variety of language skills which prepare them for the range of academic tasks they will encounter" (Stoller, 1997, p. 29).

2.4.3 Models of Content-based instruction

Three content-based instructional models are available for use by practitioners. They are sheltered, adjunct, and theme-based models (Brinton et al., 2003).

Different models of CBI may produce a disposition towards a focus on either the teaching of language or the teaching of content. Among the three models of CBI (if they are viewed as different models on a continuum), sheltered and adjunct seem to be more content-driven, and theme-based may be more language-driven (Met, 1999). Key features of the three models are described below.

2.4.3.1 Sheltered-content instruction

Sheltered-content instruction is a CBI model in which the second language students learning a content subject are deliberately separated from the native speakers of the target language for the purpose of content instruction (Brinton et al., 2003; Brinton et al., 1989; Duenas, 2003; Prabhu, 1987). Language and content objectives are merged into one curriculum with one content area, and the learning materials are modified to make them comprehensible to the students (Cenoz & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2015). Students are seen as benefiting from "linguistically appropriate instruction, [they] do not have to compete in the same classroom with native English speakers, and will not be intimidated by the latter" (Rosenthal, 2000, p. 80).

The teacher of a sheltered instructional programme can be a content teacher, ESL teacher, or there may be a collaboration between content and ESL teachers. Usually, the instructor in a sheltered instructional programme is a content teacher who has some competence in ESL teaching (Brinton et al., 2003; Richards & Rodgers, 2014; Tsai & Shang, 2010). To integrate language and content effectively, content teachers should be familiar with ESL teaching methods and SLA theories so "they [the content teachers] can make their instruction more accessible to students learning through the new language" (Short, 2010, p. 273). Conversely, an ESL teacher can also be an instructor in a sheltered instructional programme. To integrate language and content effectively, "ESL teachers need to learn the content curriculum or have an educational background in the subject" (Short, 2010, p. 273). In addition, the instructors of a sheltered instructional programme may be content and ESL teachers working collaboratively. They share responsibility in coordinating assignments and evaluating students' progress; students' proficiency in language skills is assessed by an ESL teacher while their knowledge of the content subject is assessed by a content teacher (Met, 1999).

2.4.3.2 Adjunct instruction

Adjunct instruction is a CBI model where an ESL class is linked with a content-subject class (Brinton et al., 2003; Brinton et al., 1989; Prabhu, 1987). In this model, second language students are registered in two different courses at the

same time, a language course and a content course, and the two courses support one another by sharing "content-based and mutual coordinated assignments" (Brinton et al., 2003, p. 16). The benefits of this programme for ESL students are that they can strengthen their linguistic ability at the ESL class and strengthen their knowledge of the subject matter at the content-subject class (Brinton et al., 2003; Brinton et al., 1989; Madrid & Elena, 2001).

In terms of the class participants, the students taking an adjunct instruction programme share the class with the native speakers of the language when they join the content class but they have no native speakers of the language in their language course (Prabhu, 1987). The students taking a sheltered content programme, as stated above, do not study the content together with the native speakers of the language as they are deliberately separated from the native speakers of the language. In terms of age, an adjunct instruction programme is appropriate for adults with academic and vocational goals and with proficiency levels ranging from high intermediate to advanced level (Prabhu, 1987). The sheltered content instruction programme, as noted by Brinton et al. (1989), is suitable for all ages, but at a higher education level. The sheltered content instruction programme appears more suitable for students with proficiency levels ranging from intermediate to high intermediate.

2.4.3.3 Theme-based instruction

In theme-based instruction students are exposed to a highly contextualised second or foreign language learning setting by the use of a content subject that students are currently learning (Wesche & Skehan, 2002). This instructional approach requires the whole programme learning activities to be structured around particular topics or themes (Brinton et al., 2003; Crandall, 1994; Tsai & Shang, 2010).

The syllabus of a theme-based instructional programme is organised around "curricular topics which form the context through which both language- and content-related activities are conducted" (Alptekin et al., 2007, p. 2). Those topics are subordinated to more general themes. Once the themes have been decided, the language teachers develop language learning activities which integrate the four

language skills (Shang, 2006). The language learning activities can be introduced in the form of reading comprehension, audio or video materials on the same topic used for listening comprehension, and retelling stories orally or in the form of paragraph writing (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). As the syllabus of a theme-based instructional programme is structured around curricular topics derived from a content subject, this instructional model looks like "English across curriculum[s], where language teachers may work together with a content teacher on a particular topic" (Banegas, 2012, p. 118).

Different from the sheltered content instruction and adjunct instruction models, the theme-based instruction is autonomous, not parallel to other content subjects. The language teacher teaches both the content and language as one integrated programme (Brinton et al., 1989; Duenas, 2004; Stryker & Leaver, 1997a). Although collaborating with the content specialist, the language teacher is still the one who is primarily responsible for designing the syllabus, teaching the students, and assessing students' competence at the end of the course (Brinton et al., 2003; Duenas, 2004; Dupuy, 2000). Therefore, it allows "a high degree of flexibility in terms of content selection, curricular organization and procedural application" (Duenas, 2004, p. 84). Brinton et al. (2003) and Kim (2005) claimed that it is the most widespread model among the three models of CBI as it can be applied within nearly any institutional setting, and the topics can be negotiated with the students to meet their interests.

Of the three models of CBI, theme-based instruction was chosen as the core model of CBI in this study. There were three reasons for this choice. First, the objective of this study as seen from its title is to develop EFL students' communicative skills through CBI. This means that the EFL teaching approach needed in this study had to be principally language driven. Therefore, theme-based instruction was the appropriate model to use. Second, of the three models of CBI, only the theme-based model enabled me to act as a practitioner researcher. As stated above, in a theme-based model the language teacher is responsible for designing the syllabus, teaching the students, and assessing students' competence. These conditions allowed me to act as both teacher and researcher in the study. With these dual functions, I was hopeful of collecting a significant amount of useful data. And third, a theme-based model gives an EFL teacher the opportunity

to exploit the content for maximum use in language teaching. Brinton et al. (1989) further explained: "[In] a theme-based course ... the content is exploited and its use is maximized for the teaching of the skill areas" (p. 26).

2.4.4 Effectiveness of a theme-based instructional approach

A number of scholars (Alptekin et al., 2007; Brinton et al., 1989; Davies, 2003) have commended the effectiveness of theme-based instruction as an approach in EFL teaching. Alptekin et al. (2007) have said that two factors make it effective. Firstly, this approach focuses the EFL learning on the meaning of the target language rather than on the form. This enables students to learn the language more easily (Alptekin et al., 2007). When learning is focused on meaning, the EFL students are able to experience the foreign language through communication, being exposed to rich input and meaningful use of the target language in its original linguistic context. In other words, students are exposed to the use of the target language taken from the authentic materials used in English speaking countries. As explained by Richards and Rogers in section 2.4.1 above, the authentic materials are the genuine "materials used in native-language instruction … not originally produced for language teaching purposes" (p. 215). Secondly, the theme-based approach integrating content and language "provides the natural educational framework in which cognitive and linguistic factors develop simultaneously" (Alptekin et al., 2007, p. 1). As noted earlier, in the CBI model, language and content are learned synchronously. By learning the content through the language, the students are able to interpret and understand difficult concepts more readily and their target language proficiency can improve as well. Thus, a theme-based instructional approach effectively develops students' cognitive and language skills. Davies (2003) believed that theme-based instruction will also increase students' motivation because the teacher can choose any content materials which he/she thinks students will enjoy; students will be interested in learning the content materials, which in turn will increase their motivation to learn. Alptekin et al. (2007) also believed that the theme-based instruction is effective in improving students' motivation in ESL/EFL learning. They said:

> The general belief is that theme-based instruction provides
> improved motivation for learning as well as improved

learning because the integration of language and content
through a careful selection of curricular topics enables
students to have a contextual, meaningful, purposeful and
enjoyable learning experience. (p. 2)

In addition, Brinton et al. (1989) who shared other scholars' views (Alptekin et
al., 2007; Duenas, 2004; Kasper, 1997; Liaw, 2007; Stoller, 2002, April)
considered that the effectiveness of the theme-based instruction as an ESL/EFL
teaching approach is based on four factors. First, similar to claims stated by
Alptekin et al. (2007), this approach makes linguistic forms more meaningful for
students as they are used in meaningful contexts. It facilitates students'
comprehension of the teaching materials and motivates them to learn as well.
Secondly, as Duenas (2004) claimed above, the teacher is free to choose the
themes, as long as they meet students' needs and interests. In addition, theme-
based instruction allows the teachers to use authentic materials in class. Finally,
similar to benefits of CBI (Kasper, 1997; Liaw, 2007; Stoller, 2002, April), it
allows the teacher to integrate the four language skills in class. Together all these
factors are believed to make the teaching and learning activities effective, assist
students' comprehension of the teaching materials, and increase their motivation
to learn the target language.

2.5 Related approaches to CBI

The following three approaches (content and language integrated learning, the
participatory approach, and the task-based approach) are closely related to CBI.

2.5.1 Content and language integrated learning (CLIL)

Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) and content-based instruction
(CBI) both refer to a variety of instructional models in which a second/foreign
language is used as a medium of instruction to learn a content subject (Richards &
Rodgers, 2014; Wolff, 2009). These two instructional models share similar
features but not identical, although the differences between the two, according to
Richards and Rodgers (2014), are very small. Although they both look the same,
in terms of curriculum, "the CLIL curriculum may originate in the language class,

whereas CBI tends to have as its starting point the goals of a content class"
(Richards & Rogers, 2014, p. 116). Another difference between the two
instructional models can be seen from the ways they emerged. CLIL was
developed in Europe. It was proposed officially by the European Commission;
therefore, it is "very strongly European" (Wolff, 2009, p. 546). It was a result of
top-down policy (Banegas, 2012). On the other hand, CBI in North America was
shaped by a number of academics and educators and supported by extensive
literature, and therefore, it is mostly used in North American contexts (Brinton et
al., 2003; Brinton et al., 1989). Another difference between CBI and CLIL is in
terms of their instructional contexts and learners. Chamot (2014) explains:

> In CBI, the goal is to prepare English learners for successful
> participation in the English medium curriculum; the learners
> are from immigrant families speaking a variety of first
> languages. In CLIL, on the other hand, the goal is to prepare
> students for a globalized world by developing their skill in
> using the target language in an academic setting; the learners
> are speakers of the same first language and shared cultural
> values. (p. 79)

The key points from Chamot's (2014) explanation above are that CBI is the term
used for programs for immigrants or other people living in English speaking
environment while CLIL is the term used for programs for those living in
countries where English is not the primary language.

Despite Chamot's distinction, the term *CBI* (not CLIL) is used in this study
because it is the most commonly recognised instructional model in Southeast
Asian countries, including in the country where this study was carried out (Butler,
2005; Chadran & Esarey, 1997; Junyue & Yang, 2011; Shang, 2006; Warrington,
2010). Butler (2005) used the term CBI when she did a review of studies of CBI
classes and observation over 30 CBI classes in East Asia countries (China, Japan,
South Korea, and Taiwan). Chadran and Esarey (1997) used the same term for
their intensive thirty-six-week course for students taking Indonesian area studies
in Indonesia. The same term was also used by Junyue and Yang (2011), who
studied the effect of CBI for English majors in a Chinese context, and Shang
(2006), a Taiwanese scholar who had her article "Content-based Instruction in the

EFL Literature Curriculum" published in *Internet TESL Journal*. Warrington (2010) also used the term CBI in his paper "Concerns with Content-based instruction (CBI) in Asian EFL contexts". These examples show that CBI is a common popular term for the instructional approach related to learning content through the medium of a second/foreign language in Asian countries, particularly in East and Southeast Asian countries.

2.5.2 The participatory approach

The participatory approach, also known as the Freirean approach, is another instructional approach that overlaps with or informs CBI. This approach emerged in the 1960s with the works of Paulo Freire, a Brazilian literacy educator, and was widely discussed in language teaching in the 1980s (Larson-Freeman, 2008). In this approach, the content of the language lesson is based on students' cultural and personal experiences (Spener, 1992). The term "culture" in this approach refers to:

> not the static set of customs, religious beliefs, social attitudes, forms of address and attire, and foods; rather, it is a dynamic process of transformation and change laden with conflicts to resolve and choices to be made both individually and as a community. (Spener, 1992, p. 1)

The themes of discussion in this approach are derived from the students' culture. They are real issues that affect students' lives, and the target language is used as a means of instruction to solve social problems.

In several respects, the participatory approach shares similarities with the theme-based instruction-model of CBI. They both use themes that are relevant to the students as the topics of discussion. In addition, both approaches emphasise meaning and learner centred interaction, two common features of CLT (Larson-Freeman, 2008; Spada, 2007). The significant difference between the participatory approach and CBI is related to the goals and content of the teaching. The goal of CBI, in this case, the theme-based instruction is to develop students' knowledge of an academic content and their proficiency of a target language simultaneously (Brinton et al., 1989). In this way, the learning of content by means of the target

language helps the acquisition of the language and in turn, the improvement of the target language competence strengthens students' knowledge of the content (Stoller, 2008). Since the teaching is focused on a discussion about themes in academic content, the content of teaching in a theme-based instruction program is related to the academic content. The participatory approach, in contrast, is intended to develop students' communicative skills through discussions about solutions to social problems that impact students in their daily lives. The content of participatory-based teaching is, therefore, centred on students' social contexts, such as any issues of concern to them, drawn from their families and community environments (Auerbach, 1992; Larson-Freeman, 2008; Spada, 2007).

2.5.3 The task-based approach

Another approach that is related to CBI is the task-based approach. This approach was popularised by N.S. Prabhu, who believed that "students may learn more effectively when their minds are focused on the task, rather than on the language they are using" (Prabhu, 1987 cited in Lochana & Deb, 2006, p. 145). In this approach, tasks are the primary components of planning and instruction in language teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, 2014). Regarding the focus of the tasks itself, Ellis (2009) emphasised that "the primary focus [of the tasks] should be on 'meaning' (by which is meant that learners should be mainly concerned with processing the semantic and pragmatic meaning of utterances)" (p. 223).

The task-based approach is also considered an extension of the principles of communicative language teaching (CLT) (Richards & Schmidt, 2013; Willis, 2004). It is aimed at providing students with a realistic context for language use to attract them to focus on exchanges of meaning and to use language for real communication (Branden, 2006; Larson-Freeman, 2008; Willis, 2004). Through this approach, students are given open-ended tasks with a problem or objective to complete, but they are given some freedom in the way they do so (Nunan, 1989).

When compared with CBI, it can be seen that the task-based approach focuses on accomplishing tasks in language learning. Those tasks do not dominate the teaching and learning activities but are part of them. Therefore, a task-based approach can be integrated into a CBI programme. Pica (2008) stated that tasks

have been used for various instructional objectives, including as "language focusing enhancements to content-based curricula" (p. 71). In line with Pica (2008), Custodio and Sutton (1998) explained that tasks have been based on authentic materials used in a CBI programme for the purpose of increasing students' motivation and providing them with more opportunities to explore their prior knowledge. Macias (2004) reported that she had found combining a task-based teaching method with content-based instruction as syllabus design to be effective in her Spanish class, teaching Spanish to professionals.

2.6 Factors in CBI implementation

Five factors may have salient effects on CBI implementation. They are: students' beliefs about language learning; students' exposure to previous methods; levels of integration and overlap of content and skills work in the EFL and content classes; teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to language learning and CBI; and students' motivation and engagement.

2.6.1 Students' beliefs about language learning

Richardson (2003) defined *belief* as "psychologically held understanding, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true" (p. 2). Regarding students' beliefs about language learning, Ariogul, Unal, and Onursal (2009) and Horwitz (1999) shared the view that students' beliefs about language learning affect their success or failure in that learning. Students' beliefs determine what learning strategies the students may use. In line with Ariogul et al. (2009) and Horwitz (1999), Bernat and Gvozdenko (2005) added that students' beliefs about language learning affect their attitudes and motivations in language learning. They said: "Supportive and positive beliefs help to overcome problems and thus sustain motivation, while negative or unrealistic beliefs can lead to decreased motivation, frustration and anxiety" (p. 7).

It can thus be seen that the impacts of students' beliefs on their language learning experience can be positive or negative. Therefore, understanding students' beliefs about their language learning is important because those beliefs may significantly affect the outcome of a new teaching approach implementation, CBI. The students

who believe they are not good at learning a language may not make much effort to help themselves during the CBI instructional programme. In other words, their negative beliefs about language learning may become self-fulfilling prophecies, and vice-versa. The importance of understanding students' beliefs about language learning is highlighted by Horwitz (1988), who stated:

> Knowledge of learner beliefs about language learning should also increase teachers' understanding of how students approach the tasks required in language class and, ultimately, help teachers foster more effective learning strategies in their students. (p. 293)

2.6.2 Students' exposure to previous methods

Students' previous EFL/ESL learning experiences also have implications for CBI implementation. After being exposed to particular teaching or learning methods for some time, students may have strong beliefs based on those methods. Some scholars (Horwitz, 1987, 1988; Wenden, 1986, 1987) have demonstrated that there is a connection between students' beliefs about language learning and their language learning strategies. Wenden (1987), in her interviews about language learning, found that students use those learning strategies which they consider most effective. This means that once students have been exposed to good learning strategies which they believe will help them in learning a second/foreign language, they are more likely to continue to use the same learning strategies in their future language learning.

Another example of the impact of previous teaching methods in language teaching has been provided by Peacock (1999) who compared the beliefs about language learning between a group of 202 EFL students and 45 EFL teachers at the City University, Hong Kong. The research was mainly aimed at finding out whether the differences of beliefs about language learning between the students and the teacher affected students' proficiency. The research finding revealed that there was a significant difference between the percentage of students (64%) and the percentage of EFL teachers (7%) who agreed that "[l]earning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules" (Peacock, 1999, p. 257).

Of the remaining 36% of students, 23% neither agreed nor disagreed with the above nature of learning, and the other 13% disagreed or totally disagreed with the above nature of learning.

The results of the proficiency test (covering listening comprehension, grammar, reading comprehension, and writing) showed that from the three groups of students, the mean score of the 64% of students who believed grammar rules were paramount was 68; the mean score of the 23% of students who had neutral beliefs was 71; and the mean score of the 13% of students who disagreed that grammar was paramount in foreign language learning was 75. Thus, the majority of the students who agreed that grammatical rule learning was key in FL learning were less proficient than those who neither agreed nor disagreed and those who disagreed or totally disagreed. Peacock (1999) considered that the differences in the students' proficiency above were possibly affected by their beliefs about the nature of language learning.

2.6.3 Levels of integration and overlap of content and skills in the EFL and content classes

As stated earlier, theme-based instruction is aimed at developing ESL/EFL students' communicative skills and proficiency through learning the content instructed in the target language. This indicates that language learning and content learning can be integrated. Regarding the integration of language learning and content learning, Ardeo (2012) emphasised:

> Language learning and content of subject matter can be brought together because a foreign language is most successfully acquired when learners are engaged in its meaningful and purposeful use. The integration of language and content involves the incorporation of content material into language classes. (p. 215)

From Ardeo's (2012) explanation above, the integration of language learning and content can possibly contribute to successful acquisition of a foreign language because of students' engagement with the meaningful content they were learning. The engagement with meaningful content is likely to increase their interest and

motivation toward the language learning. For that reason, careful consideration of the content is important. As emphasised by Met (1997) below:

> Making decisions about content requires careful consideration
> of what students will be expected to be able to do in the second
> language, and how content teaching can contribute to helping
> students achieve the goals of the language programme. (p. 31)

In line with Met (1997), Short (1991) highlighted the focus of instruction should be carefully considered.

> The focus of the instruction should be motivated by the content
> to be learned which will help identify the language skills
> required to learn that content, and the reasoning abilities needed
> to manipulate it (analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating). (p. 2)

From the explanation of the three scholars above, the integration of language learning and content in a CBI program can impact positively on the acquisition of the target language as long as the teaching content is meaningful, the language skills students need to use to learn the content have been classified and the reasoning abilities students need to employ have been carefully considered.

2.6.4 Teacher beliefs and practices in relation to language learning and CBI

As noted earlier, a belief is characterised as a psychologically held idea or proposition about the world that is accepted to be true (Richardson, 1996). Teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning have been formed over years from their experience as students and are reinforced by colleagues (Pajares, 1992; Van Vooren, Casteleyn, & Mottart, 2012). Teachers' understanding of their own beliefs is important for the teachers because they affect their language teaching preparation and practices (Pajares, 1992; Richardson, Anders, Tidwell, & Lloyd, 1991; Van Vooren et al., 2012). Knowing their own beliefs importantly guide teachers' thinking and action in adopting teaching approaches to cope with language teaching challenges, which in turn shape the language learning environment, motivation, language achievement and competence of the students.

In brief, positive teacher beliefs are seen to benefit language teaching and learning processes.

Some of the most commonly explored teachers' beliefs are their beliefs about themselves, learners, and subject matter (M. Borg, 2001). In relation to the implementation of CBI, positive teachers' beliefs facilitate the implementation of CBI in an ELT class. The following paragraphs describe three types of teachers' beliefs.

The first belief is the teacher's belief in his/her own capabilities, in other words, teacher self-efficacy. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) defined teacher self-efficacy as "[a] teacher's own judgement of his or her capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of students' engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult or unmotivated" (p. 783). In brief, this belief refers to teacher's personal belief that with his/her capability, he/she could affect students' learning process actively. The second belief is teacher's belief about their students. An effective teacher has a strong belief that their "students are an integral part of effective teaching" (Rosenfeld & Rosenfeld, 2008, p. 245). This means that the teacher has a strong belief that all students can learn, all students' diverse needs can be addressed, and all students can be guided to improve their performance and self-esteem (Rosenfeld & Rosenfeld, 2008). Another type of teacher belief which is similarly important is teacher's thinking about the subject matter. Schmidt and Kennedy (1990) contended that "teachers' beliefs about subject matter influence what they choose to teach and how they choose to teach it" (p. iii). This statement indicates that teachers' beliefs about subject matter play an important role in the teaching and learning process. They affect teacher's curricular decisions. As stated by Davis and Andrzejewski (2009), teachers' beliefs about subject matter will determine the concepts they emphasise in teaching, the way they present the teaching material, the way they anticipate students' possible misunderstanding of the content, the way they teach the subject and the way they make assessments.

2.6.5 Student motivation and engagement

Motivation is another crucial aspect of EFL teaching through a CBI programme, as it is in all educational programmes. Dörnyei (1994, 1997, 2005) and Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) considered motivation as one of the most important factors that determine the rate and success in second language learning:

> It is easy to see why motivation is of great importance in SLA:
> It provides the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning and later
> the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning
> process; indeed, all the other factors involved in SLA
> presuppose motivation to some extent. (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 65)

In line with Dörnyei (1994, 1997, 2005) and Dörnyei and Csizér (1998), Gardner (1985), Richards and Schmidt (2010), and Winke (2005) similarly claimed that motivation is one of the driving factors leading to successful language learning. In brief, motivation is like a starting motor to provoke learning and later works as a continuous powerful energy to maintain the long and typically difficult process of second/foreign language acquisition (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007).

In 1985, Gardner outlined two types of motivation: integrative and instrumental. Gardner (1985) explained that "an integrative orientation, stressing the value of learning English to become truly part of both cultures, and an instrumental orientation which referred to the economic and practical advantages of learning English" (pp. 51-52). In other words, students who are integratively motivated learn a second/foreign language because of their curiosity or affinity for the people or culture of the target language. They want to know the people who speaking the target language or they are interested in the culture related to the target language. The students with instrumental motivation, on the other hand, learn a second/foreign language for practical reasons related to proficiency in the target language, such as getting better jobs, passing college entrance exams, or pursuing studies abroad (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1991). This classification has remained influential for some decades.

In the 1990s, new categories of motivation came to the fore, *intrinsic* and *extrinsic*. Intrinsic motivation deals with "behavior performed for its own sake, in

order to experience pleasure and satisfaction such as the joy of doing a particular activity or satisfying one's curiosity" (Dörnyei, 1998, p. 121), while extrinsic motivation deals with "performing a behavior as a means to an end, that is, to receive some extrinsic reward (e.g. good grades) or to avoid punishment" (Dörnyei, 1998, p. 121).

Later, Dörnyei (2005) introduced a new model of motivation, the "L2 motivational self system", for the purpose of re-conceptualising the theory of motivation, Gardner's (1985) integrative motivation, which had been the centre of motivation research in second language for several decades. There had been "growing concern with the theoretical content" of Gardner's (1985) theory of motivation (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 9). Z. Dörnyei (2009) critisised the label *integrative* in Gardner's (1985) integrative motivation which "reflects an interest in learning another language because of a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other language group" (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991, p. 58). Z. Dörnyei (2009) considered it was "rather limiting and … did not make too much sense in many language learning environments" (p. 10).

Dörnyei (2009) argued that the term *integrative* became ambiguous due to the fact that in recent years, English has become a global language. It is no longer associated with specific speakers of English or culture such as British English or American English. In reality, the motivation to learn English arise from a desire to communicate with other users of English who may not be native speakers (Kormos & Csizér, 2008).

Dörnyei's (2005; 2009) L2 motivational self-system is based on two theories, Markus and Nurius' (1986) theory of possible selves, a theory that describes how individuals' views of themselves in the future have impacts on their behaviour; and Higgins' (1987) theory of self-discrepancy, a theory that relates affect and motivation to discrepancies between selves and self-guides (Higgins, 1987). These two theories have some similarities on the concepts of self. Markus and Nurius' (1986) theory of possible selves represents the concepts of ideal selves, expected selves, and feared selves (Magid, 2014). Similarly, Higgin's (1987) theory of self-discrepancy consists of three domains of self: ideal self, ought to self, and actual self.

Dörnyei's (2005) L2 motivational self system also comprises three components. Two of his components were taken from Higgin's (1987) self-discrepancy theory. The three components of his L2 motivational theory are ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experience (Dörnyei, 2005). Dörnyei (2005) defined the ideal L2 self as "the L2-specific facet of one's ideal self" (p. 105). It is the future vision of oneself as a second language learner. "This visioning of a future time in which one will be able to use the language *in situ* can sustain motivation during difficult times" (MacIntyre, MacKinnon, & Clément, 2009, p. 48). Dörnyei (2005) defined the ought-to self as "the attributes that one believes one ought to possess (i.e., various duties, obligations, or responsibilities) in order to avoid possible negative outcomes" (pp. 105-106). It is the future vision of oneself as a second language learner how they would use the second language based on what other people believe they should or ought to do. The third component, L2 learning experience concerns "situation-specific motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 106). This means that learners' motivation in L2 learning depends on their current learning environment and previous language learning experience such as: "the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group, the experience of success" (Z. Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29)

Dörnyei's (2005) concept of L2 motivational self sytem seems appropriate to be applied in a foreign language teaching. The three components of the theory could function as attractors in language learning. Dörnyei (2005) claimed: "[I]f the person we would like to become speaks an L2, the ideal L2 self is a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves" (p. 105). The images produced with regard to the ideal self would provide motivation for action, and lead the learner to find strategies to reduce the discrepancy between their actual speaking self and ideal L2 speaking self. Similarly, the ought-to self can also be used to increase motivation of students who feel they should possess proficiency in a second/foreign language. The images produced with regard to the ought-to self would provide motivation for action, and guide students to find strategies they believe to reduce the discrepancy between their actual speaking self and ought to speaking self especially to "avoid possible negative outcomes" (Dörnyei, 2005, pp. 105-106). Finally, the L2 learning experience is also believed to lead to motivation in language learning. According to Dörnyei (2005), a positive immediate learning

environment (i.e. the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, and the peer group) and a positive prior second language learning experience will impact positively on students' motivation in second language learning.

Motivation in ESL/EFL learning cannot be separated from engagement. Liem and Martin (2012) defined motivation as "individuals' energy and drive to learn, work effectively, and achieve to their potential" (p. 3), and engagement as "the behaviours aligned with this energy and drive" (p. 3). Reschly and Christenson (2012) further distinguished engagement from motivation as follows:

> Motivation is considered to be intent and engagement as action.
> Thus, engagement is defined by an observable, action-oriented
> subtype (behavioral) and two internal ones (cognitive and
> affective engagement) but then is differentiated from motivation
> as engagement being action (observable behavior), motivation as
> intent (internal). (p. 14)

It can be concluded from the above explanation that student engagement in language learning is considered to be stimulated by motivation.

In relation to CBI, it seems that CBI will encourage students' motivation and engagement in ESL/EFL learning. Grabe and Stoller (1997) claimed that research conducted in a variety of CBI models showed that CBI programmes increase students' motivation and interest in content and language learning. They explained that maintaining of students' motivation and interest in what they are learning are two important factors underlying CBI. Once they feel motivated and interested in what they are learning, they will make connections between topics, elaborate the learning materials and recall more easily what they have learned. Iakovos et al. (2011) claimed that empirical research findings show that thematically organised learning materials and meaningful information, which is a principal feature of CBI, help students assimilate the learning materials more easily and thoroughly. They added that "content-based classes usually stimulate students' interest and engagement, leading to enhanced motivation" (p. 115). Like Custodio and Sutton (1998, cited in Shang, 2006), Iakovos et al. (2011) argued the effectiveness of a CBI programme in the EFL classroom. The combination of authentic teaching materials with authentic tasks helps language minority students

both to improve their motivation and explore their prior knowledge. In summary, the use of CBI programmes in second/foreign language learning appears to help students by increasing their motivation in language learning, which in turn stimulates their engagement in the teaching and learning activities.

2.7 Research on CBI in the Southeast Asian context

Since it first appeared on the scene of English teaching in Canada and the USA in the late 1970s, content-based instruction (CBI) has been implemented in ESL/EFL teaching worldwide. A number of studies have investigated its effectiveness in ESL/EFL teaching contexts. This section reviews six current research studies on CBI in tertiary education in Southeast Asian countries, including Indonesia, Malaysia, Vietnam, Thailand, and the Philippines. They focus on two main themes: the effectiveness of CBI in improving EFL students' language skills and factors affecting effective implementation of CBI in EFL programme.

2.7.1 Effectiveness of CBI in improving EFL students' language skills

Two studies (Ngan, 2011; Suwannoppharat & Kaewsa-ard, 2014) investigated the effectiveness of theme-based instruction as a teaching approach in tertiary education in two Southeast Asian countries. They investigated whether the theme-based instructional approach was an effective teaching approach in EFL teaching context. Research findings showed that after being intervened with the theme-based instructional approach, EFL students involved in the research made improvement in their language skills, vocabulary, grammar, interest, and motivation. They seemed to indicate that theme-based instructional approach was an effective teaching approach to be applied in EFL teaching context in Southeast Asia.

Research done by Ngan (2011) in Vietnam found that from the results of quasi-experimental stages (pre-test and post-test scores and levels of motivation gained from the questionnaires given before and after the treatment), students in the treatment group (TG) performed better in terms of reading comprehension and listening than those in the control group (CG). They also made progress in vocabulary, grammar, translation, and motivation better than their counterparts in

the control group. Those findings seemed to indicate that teaching English with a theme-based instructional approach was more effective than the one with a traditional approach. Another success story on the effectiveness of the theme-based approach in EFL teaching in Southeast Asia was reported by Suwannoppharat and Kaewsa-ard (2014). They investigated the effect of a theme-based approach in improving Thai-EFL students' academic reading and writing skills through quantitative data (pre-test and post-test) and qualitative data (semi-structured interview). Research findings from students' pre-test and post-test revealed that the integration of a theme-based approach in EFL teaching improved students' academic reading and writing skills and their academic knowledge. Findings from semi-structured interviews showed that the students were satisfied with the integration of content and language teaching and learning, and their self-confidence in language and content learning increased.

The two studies above could indicate that theme-based instructional approach has illustrated an alternative to the traditional approach in EFL teaching in Southeast Asia. The findings from those two research strengthened the claims made by proponents of CBI (Alptekin et al., 2007; Brinton et al., 1989; Davies, 2003) that theme-based instruction is an effective teaching approach to be applied in EFL teaching context.

2.7.2 Factors affecting effective implementation of CBI

Different from the two studies above which focused on the effectiveness of theme-based instructional approach as a teaching approach in EFL context, the following four studies (Ali, 2013; Ariffin & Husin, 2011; Djiwandono, Ginting, & Setyaningsih, 2010; Ha & Huong, 2009) focused their investigations on the factors affecting effective implementation of the CBI approach in EFL context.

Findings from the four studies showed that the implementation of CBI program did not run effectively. There were some factors that inhibited it from running successfully. Those factors among others were: mismatch between teachers and students' beliefs about CBI and the realities of CBI program in the EFL classroom; mismatch between Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE), university, and content teachers on the English-medium instruction (EMI) policy; content

teachers' low linguistic competence; and EFL teachers' lack of familiarity with CBI.

Ha and Huong (2009) who investigated a CBI program in a tertiary institution in Vietnam found that there was a mismatch between teachers' and students' belief about CBI and the realities of the CBI program in EFL reading classes. Both teachers and students had strong beliefs that CBI gave benefits to students. In practice, the students found themes in the readings to be broad and uninteresting, including the teachers' low provision of supportive learning conditions, and teachers' low use of CBI tasks. Work done in Indonesia by Djiwandono et al. (2010) showed that similar problems as the ones in Vietnam also occurred in Indonesia such as too broad coverage of the themes and difficult/uninteresting learning materials. Other problems that appeared were teachers' teaching style which was still teacher-centred and teachers' communication with students which was still less interactive. Research by Ali (2013) investigating the implementation of English-medium instruction (EMI) policy at the tertiary level in Malaysia found that the ineffective implementation of EMI was because of the mismatch between the Minister of Higher Education (MOHE), university, and content teachers. MOHE did not state explicitly about the EMI policy in their document sent to the university. The university still considered that Bahasa Melayu (Malay language) as the official language instruction. The content teachers were unsure the extent of English they could use. As a result of the implicit goal of EMI, the policy was not fully understood by the content teachers. Therefore, they did not really put the policy into practice. Another research investigating factors affecting effective implementation of CBI was done by Ariffin and Husin (2011) in Malaysia who found that code-switching (CS) and code-mixing (CM) still occurred in the class due to both instructors' and students' weak English competence. The teachers and students' lack of English competence was claimed to be the major cause of the CS/CM occurrence in the class.

The findings also indicated the need for English language training for content instructors because of their low proficiency of English. All instructors involved in the study were content teachers and they never had any English language training. Therefore, the training is believed to enable them to "teach effectively using

English as a medium of instruction" in CBI classes (Ariffin & Husin, 2011, p. 242).

All the research findings regarding the implementation of CBI in Southeast Asia, especially, the factors affecting effective implementation of CBI in the EFL context in Southeast Asia reflecting the real picture of EFL teaching problems in Southeast Asia. Those problems such as unqualified/inexperienced English teachers, students' low English competence, unengaging learning materials, and large classes (See Section 3.5 for detail) may have a significant effect on the implementation of a CBI program. One example from the above research was the teachers and students' low English competence which had caused a tendency to code-switch or code-mix between the first language and the second language during the teaching and learning process. This tendency may have a negative effect on a CBI program if the frequency of code-switching or code-mixing occurrence during the teaching and learning activities is high. In this kind of situation, the students might feel encouraged to rely on their first language instead of finding relevant words to cope with their communication problems especially when they are working collaboratively in groups (Cook, 2001). Another example was a large class. Jones (2007) emphasised that "the larger the class, the more necessary it is to have a student-centered class. The only way to give all the students time to speak is by having them work together" (p. 4). The problem that may appear with large class is the time needed to monitor students. With 30 students in the class, a teacher still has enough time to walk around the class to monitor the groups, listen to them, and make notes. If there are more than 50 students in the class, it is not as feasible for a teacher to monitor them closely. For this reason, the teacher may prefer to apply a teacher-centred approach to a student-centred approach.

2.8 Summary

This review of relevant literature has shown that content-based instruction (CBI) seems to promise a better language teaching approach than the traditional grammar-based approach. It gives double benefits to students; that is, it enables them to improve their language skills and content knowledge simultaneously. It is

also seen to increase students' higher order thinking skills and their motivation and engagement in teaching and learning activities.

The literature on CBI has documented a number of successful CBI implementations in ESL contexts. Although some scholars like Butler (2005), Davies (2003), and Kim (2005) have argued that CBI can be successfully implemented in EFL contexts, there is still limited information regarding the successful implementation of CBI programmes, especially the theme-based instructional approach, in the EFL contexts of Southeast Asia. To the best of my knowledge, there have been only two studies on the theme-based instructional approach in EFL contexts in Southeast Asia; Suwannoppharat and Kaewsa-ard (2014) from Thailand and Ngan (2011) from Vietnam. Although these two research studies show the success of CBI programmes, more research on CBI is needed, especially investigating the effectiveness of theme-based instruction in EFL teaching in other countries in Southeast Asia. Therefore, in this study, I set out to confirm the previous research on theme-based instruction and to extend it by examining this topic in the context of another Southeast Asian country, in this case, a tertiary education institution in Indonesia.

The next chapter, Chapter 3, will give an overview of EFL teaching in Indonesia, EFL teaching problems in Indonesian and Southeast Asian countries' higher education, and explore the relevance of the theme-based instructional approach as an alternative approach to the traditional grammar-based approach currently applied in EFL teaching, particularly in Indonesian higher education.

CHAPTER THREE: OVERVIEW OF ELT IN INDONESIA AND THE RELEVANCE OF CBI EFL TEACHING IN INDONESIAN HIGHER EDUCATION

3.1 Introduction

The history of English as a first foreign language in Indonesia is unique since the British controlled the country for only a very short time. Logically, Dutch should be the first foreign language since the Dutch colonised the country for about three and half centuries (Lauder, 2008). Dardjowidjojo (2000) explained that Dutch did not become the first foreign language for two reasons: "Dutch was the language of the colonialist, and it did not have international stature" (p. 23). The choice of English as the first foreign language in Indonesia will be discussed further in Section 3.2 below.

This chapter will describe the development of EFL teaching in Indonesia. It starts with the status of English as a foreign language and a third language in Indonesia. Then it examines mismatches found in EFL teaching curricula in secondary school and higher education, problems with students (anxiety, motivation, self-confidence), issues affecting EFL teachers, and structural and environmental constraints. This is followed by a discussion of EFL teaching issues in some countries in Southeast Asia. The chapter ends with a discussion of the relevance of implementing a theme-based instructional approach (TB) in EFL teaching in Indonesian higher education.

3.2 Status of English as a foreign language and a third language in Indonesia

In Indonesia, English is classified as a foreign language and a third language. English is classified as a foreign language because there are only three classifications of languages in Indonesia: local languages, the national language (Bahasa Indonesia), and foreign languages (Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Masduqi, 2014; Nababan, 1982). Dardjowidjojo (2000) claimed that most Indonesian people are bilingual; they use one of the local languages, of which there are about 500 (Musthafa, 2002), as their first language (mother tongue) and Bahasa Indonesia as

their national or second language. Masduqi (2014) emphasised that Bahasa Indonesia, despite being the national language, is actually the second language for most Indonesian people: "Most of them speak a local language before they learn Indonesian at schools" (p. 390).

English in Indonesia is thus classified as a foreign language. The choice of English as the first foreign language in Indonesia was not a simple process as other foreign languages such as Japanese, French, Chinese, Dutch, and German are recognised in Indonesia (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). In addition, the process involved government legislation.

As stated above, Dutch was not acknowledged as the first foreign language in Indonesia because of its status as the language of the colonizers. This lack of acknowledgement, then, was politically motivated. When the Indonesian government was deciding whether to choose Dutch or English as the first foreign language in 1955, the bilateral relationship between Indonesia and the Netherlands was at a low ebb. The Dutch did not recognise the independence of the Republic of Indonesia proclaimed in 1945, and had attacked Indonesia twice after its independence in order to overthrow the new republic. These attacks were known as the first military aggression of 1947 and the second military aggression of 1948. The Dutch also occupied one Indonesian province, Irian Jaya, also known as West Papua. As a result of these hostilities, Dutch was not considered acceptable as Indonesia's first foreign language. As Mistar (2005) explained, "Consequently, when the decision about which foreign language to choose was to be made, Indonesian leaders were not prepared to adopt the language of the enemy" (p. 72).

In contrast, the decision to choose English as the preferred foreign language was based on the advantages to be gained by doing so for the development of Indonesia. Musthafa (2002) argued that there were two reasons behind the decision to choose English as the foreign language:

> As early as 1950, when a foreign language was to be chosen for
> the school curriculum nationwide (either Dutch or English),
> policy makers in Indonesia were well aware that English could
> serve a very important role as a tool in the development of the

country, both for international relations and scientific-
technological advancement. (p. 26)

The status of English as a foreign language was formally declared through *The Regulation of Ministry of Education and Culture No. 096/196,* 12 December 1967 (Alwasilah, 1997). As a foreign language, English is not used as a means of communication in government offices, schools, local businesses, or any formal events. It is a subject learned at school only (Broughton, Brumfit, Pincas, & Wilde, 2002).

Besides being recognised as a foreign language, English in Indonesia is also considered as a third or additional language. The terms *third language* and *additional language* may well refer to the same idea. De Angelis (2007) explained that the two terms refer to "all languages beyond the L2 without giving preference to any particular language" (p. 11). The term *third language* in respect of English is preferred in Indonesia, since it really matches with the situation of English use in that country (Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Hammarberg, 2010; Jessner & Cenoz, 2007). As stated by Dardjowidjojo (2000) above, most Indonesian people are bilingual. Therefore, English, the foreign language they learn at school, becomes their third language. This situation is consistent with the definition formulated by Hammarberg (2010), who used the term *third language* to refer to "a non-native language which is currently being used or acquired in a situation where the person already has knowledge of one or more L2s in addition to one or more L1s" (p. 97).

The status of English as a third language in Indonesia is also acknowledged from the location of Indonesia on the world map. Jessner and Cenoz (2007) stated that: "English is also an L3 for many speakers in other parts of the world such as the Asia-Pacific region where a large number of languages are spoken but English is needed for wider communication" (p. 157). In other words, English is used as a third language in Indonesia because the country is located in the Asia-Pacific region, where a wide range of languages are spoken.

Learning English as a third language is viewed as benefitting from the prior linguistic competences of Indonesian learners. Since most Indonesians are bilingual, they have already experienced learning a second language. Jessner

(2006) and Thomas (1988) stated that when students are learning a third language, they will benefit from metalinguistic awareness – "the ability to think about and reflect upon the nature and functions of language" (Pratt & Grieve, 1984 cited in Rauch, Naumann, & Jude, 2012, pp. 402-403). This awareness enables students to analyse language more robustly by focusing on different levels of linguistic structure, such as words, phonemes, syntax, and semantics; and to use the language appropriately in social situations. Jessner (2006) further explained the benefits of being bilingual when learning a third language. She claimed:

> Considerable evidence shows that the development of competence in two languages can result in higher levels of metalinguistic awareness, creativity or divergent thinking, communicative sensitivity and the facilitation of additional language acquisition by exploiting the cognitive and linguistic mechanisms underlying these processes of transfer and enhancement. (p. 27)

Research on third language acquisition shows that students benefit from being bilingual (Andreou, 2007; Keshavarz & Astaneh, 2004; Park & Starr, 2016). Andreou (2007), who gave two tests of phonological awareness in English to investigate phonological awareness in the third language of bilingual school children and phonological awareness in the second language of monolingual school children, found the bilingual children performed better than the monolingual children. Park and Starr (2016), who compared early bilingual[3] students who had formal study experience of an L2 (EBLs+L2) with those without formal study experience of an L2 (EBLs) in acquiring Korean as a third language, found that the EBLs+L2 students outperformed the EBL students. They considered that being bilingual when learning a third language means that students have developed their metalinguistic awareness through their previous formal study of an L2. Another study into the effects of being bilingual on third language acquisition was carried out by Keshavarz and Astaneh (2004). Their study compared the performance of two groups of bilingual students (Turkish and

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[3] Early bilingualism refers to "young children's (ages 4 to 8 years old) ability to speak and repeatedly use two languages" Jensen, B. T. (2008). Metalinguistic awareness. In J. M. González (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of bilingual education*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications. .

Armenian students who spoke Persian as their L2 and a group of monolingual students who spoke Persian only). In an English vocabulary test the bilingual students performed better than the monolingual group. This finding indicates another positive effect of bilingualism on third language learning, that is, on vocabulary acquisition.

3.3 EFL teaching challenges in Indonesia

Although English has been taught in Indonesia as a compulsory subject from secondary school to university level since the 1950s and has also become a third language for most Indonesian people, the English proficiency of most Indonesian high-school or university graduates is widely regarded as unsatisfactory. This state of affairs is explicitly described in the rationale of the 2001 competence-based curriculum:

> The results of observations have indicated that the teaching of English in Indonesia is still far from the goal of the mastery of expected macro skills. The graduates of secondary schools are not yet able to use this language to communicate. Students of tertiary education are not yet capable of reading English textbooks. (Depdiknas, 2001, p. 2)

Some scholars such as Dardjowidjojo (2000), Kirkpatrick (2007), Lie (2007), and Madya (2002) have agreed that EFL teaching in Indonesia is commonly regarded as not fulfilling the expectation that students should be proficient in all four language skills. Kirkpatrick (2007) stated: "The teaching of English in schools in Indonesia … has not been successful. Graduates of secondary schools, despite many hours of learning English over several years, often have little English proficiency" (p. 212). Lie (2007) agreed with Kirkpatrick (2002) that the number of years spent learning English formally at school had not enabled students to communicate fluently in English. Madya (2002) too found that EFL teaching in Indonesia had not been successful in attaining its declared goals. Dardjowidjojo (2000) agreed with those three scholars about the failure of EFL teaching in Indonesia by highlighting the linguistic and non-linguistic factors that contributed to this failure. He related the linguistic factor to teachers' low proficiency in

English, and the non-linguistic factors to class size, low salaries, and unfamiliarity with the new curriculum (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). These factors will be discussed more fully in the next section.

3.4 EFL teaching problems in Indonesian tertiary education

As stated above, EFL teaching in Indonesia has not been successful in producing Indonesian students who are proficient in English. Four factors may have contributed to this failure: mismatches between curriculum objectives, teaching approaches/content and the focus of testing/assessment; student factors; teacher factors; and structural/environmental constraints. These problems affect not only secondary levels but also tertiary education level.

The following sections will describe the factors that contribute to the failure of EFL teaching in Indonesian tertiary education. The first sub-section will discuss mismatches in EFL teaching in secondary schools as they have contributed to the present situation in relation to high-school graduates' and tertiary students' EFL proficiency.

3.4.1 Mismatches in EFL teaching in secondary education curricula

Bire (2010) and Sugeng (2015) claimed that mismatches have been found in the EFL curriculum from the beginning of the Old Order era (1945-1965) up to the present time. As stated above, those mismatches are between the aims of the curriculum, teaching approaches/content, and the focus of evaluation. For example, the three curricula released during the Old Order era (the 1947, 1952, and 1964 curricula) were aimed at developing students' reading skills, while the teaching approach adopted was a grammar-translation method, and the focus of evaluation was on grammar (Bire, 2010; Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Nur, 2004). This situation produced a mismatch. Bire (2010) explained that the mismatch was between the teaching approach used and the aim of the curriculum: "While the objective of TEFL is the enhancement of reading ability, the method of TEFL applied and the evaluation process were all conducted on the basis of grammar translation approach" (Bire, 2010, p. 3). The mismatch above made the objective of the curriculum difficult to achieve.

The first two curricula during the New Order era (1968 and 1975) also had mismatches. Both curricula had the same EFL teaching objective as the 1964 curriculum, that is, to "provide sufficiently well-developed reading skills to read science-related texts written in English" (Renandya, 2004 cited in Cahyono & Widiati, 2006), but they employed an audio-lingual approach (Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Musthafa, 2010). The audio-lingual method was similar to the grammar translation method in that it also focused on grammar. Larson-Freeman (2008) stated that the audio-lingual method drilled students "in the use of grammatical sentence patterns" (p. 35). This meant that both the 1968 and 1975 curricula were still grammar/structure oriented. Hence Bire (2010) asserted that there was a continuing mismatch between the curriculum objectives, the learning content, and the focus of testing/assessment in those two curricula.

The last two curricula of the New Order era were rather similar to the previous ones. The EFL teaching objective of the 1984 curriculum was the development of students' communicative skills. This was difficult to achieve because there was still an inconsistency between the aim of the curriculum, its favoured approach, methods of TEFL used, and assessment methods (Bire, 2010). The learning content was still grammar and reading oriented, and assessment methods were focused on grammar and reading as well.

The inconsistencies persisted in the 1994 curriculum. Although the communicative approach favoured was relevant to the aim of EFL teaching, it was still inconsistent with the learning content and assessment methods which continued to be oriented to grammar and reading. This situation made the aim of the curriculum difficult to attain (Bire, 2010).

During the Reform era, two curricula have been launched, the 2004 curriculum and the 2006 curriculum. The 2004 curriculum was trialled from 2004 to 2006, but was not implemented in Indonesian schools. During the trial, several problems emerged. In relation to the EFL approach adopted, Bire (2010) noted that there was still an inconsistency between the EFL teaching objectives, learning content, teaching approach and methods of assessment. In response to these issues, the Indonesian National Education Department made a number of revisions and launched a new curriculum in 2006.

The 2006 curriculum, which is also called KTSP (Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan), is a school-based curriculum, that is, it can be developed and implemented in each school. However, this does not mean that schools can develop their own curriculum as they see fit. Depdiknas (2008) explained that in developing their curriculums, schools had to refer to the principles and operational standards developed by the government for graduation competency standards and for content standards. Although the government mandated the regulations to be followed, EFL teaching problems persisted. Lie (2007) emphasised that there was still a discrepancy between "the commitment to competence and the insistence of the Ministry of Education to sustain the national examination for junior and senior high school levels" (p. 9). While local teachers were authorised to develop competencies in their English curriculum, which might be different from one school to another, and/or from one city to another, they were expected to continue preparing their students to participate in national exams with a minimum pass grade. For this reason, local governments were not allowed to formally organise school exams for their local region. Students, especially those living in remote areas, experienced difficulties passing the national exam, because their English competence was directed at addressing local needs and contexts.

3.4.2 Mismatches in EFL teaching in the tertiary education curriculum

In Indonesian higher education's undergraduate degree programmes, for example, at the university where this study was conducted, English is classified as Mata Kuliah Dasar Keahlian (a subject basic to major fields of study). The credit requirement for students is four,[4] covering 100 minutes of class teaching time, 50 minutes of outside-class tasks, and 50 minutes of self-study time in one semester or an 18-week period. In practice, however, two credits of class teaching time is very common (Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Lie, 2007; Nur, 2004). No time is allocated for outside-class tasks and self-study. In addition, English is usually a compulsory subject for first-year students only and can be scheduled in any semester of the

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[4] One credit consists of 50 minutes.

academic year. Faculties or departments have the authority to determine an EFL programme. Musthafa (2002) explained:

> ELT in universities differs from ELT in secondary schools in various aspects, including its status, number of hours, instructional objectives, teaching methods, and instructional materials. Each higher learning institution enjoys autonomy in determining all these matters, making ELT at this educational level variable not only across institutions but also across departments in the same university. (p. 27)

A range of problems can arise in relation to ELT programmes at university level. All non-English departments expect that at the end of the EFL teaching programme students will have the ability to communicate in all four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). This expectation is incongruent with the time allocated to the subject. Having been allocated only two credits for English, EFL teachers assert that it is impossible for students to master the four language skills. Musthafa (2002) argued that the two credits allocated to English was insufficient to help university students improve their English proficiency. He compared this situation to high-school graduates who have spent 736 hours of English (about four credits of English class teaching per week in twelve semesters) in their junior and senior high schools and *still* have problems in reading. The question has to be asked, then, how a two-credit English class with limited teaching per week in one or two semesters can help university students improve their English proficiency.

Ahmad (2002) stated that "[t]he primary objective of our ELT endeavour is to serve the need of our students as effectively and efficiently as possible" (p. 66). In practice this means that the EFL teaching should support students' academic activities in what is known as English for specific purposes (ESP). This aim is also hard to achieve. As stated above, students' low English proficiency and minimum credits for English have become problems. Large class-size for English is also a problem (Ahmad, 2002; Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Larson, 2014). In practice, current EFL teaching is mainly focused on grammar, with an emphasis on sentence structure or syntax (Gustine, 2013; "Interview: On the importance of English language education for students," 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2007).

The problems of EFL teaching in higher education are not limited to the minimum number of teaching hours provided for English instruction. Other factors contribute to the challenges faced by EFL teaching in higher education in Indonesia. These factors may arise from the students themselves, teaching staff, and teaching and learning conditions.

3.4.3 Student factors

Research to date in the higher education sector in Indonesia has highlighted three student factors that affect success in student learning: anxiety, motivation and self-confidence. These factors are interrelated and have the potential to benefit students if they are positively oriented, as will be explained below.

3.4.3.1 Anxiety

Student anxiety seems to be an important factor in relation to the success of EFL teaching in tertiary education. Three Indonesian studies have been done regarding tertiary students' anxiety around learning English. The first was done by Marwan (2007), who investigated a sample of Indonesian university students learning English, and found that three factors caused students' anxiety, namely: "lack of confidence, lack of preparation and fear of failing the class" (p. 48). Of the three, lack of preparation dominated their anxiety about learning English. Research carried out by Prastiwi (2012) exploring factors causing students' anxiety in speaking in class at a university in Solo, Indonesia, found that fear of making grammatical mistakes, lack of preparation (i.e., unprepared learning materials or a lack of practice for class presentations), limited vocabulary, lack of confidence, and embarrassment were factors causing anxiety. The last study, by Katemba (2013), investigating the anxiety levels of Indonesian university students learning English, found that the students often experienced anxiety or were highly anxious when they were learning English regardless of whether they were male or female. The causes of their anxiety were unpreparedness, uncertainty about word meaning and pronunciation, and a need for clarification.

Overall, the studies above suggest that two major factors contributing to student anxiety in the tertiary Indonesian context are lack of confidence and unpreparedness.

3.4.3.2 Motivation

Indonesian students are generally highly motivated to learn English (Depdiknas, 2006; Lamb, 2007). Depdiknas (2006) stated that Indonesian students' motivation to learn English comes from the need to get better jobs or to support their study. In line with Depdiknas, Lamb (2007), who did a longitudinal study related to the motivation of Indonesian students beginning their formal study of English, found that students initially had a very positive attitude toward the language and had high expectations of success. After 20 months of study, it was found that their reported level of motivation remained the same.

Other studies suggest that Indonesian students' high motivation to learn English does not in fact remain constant. It depends on both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Some examples of extrinsic factors were revealed in a study by Beh (1997), who investigated English language instruction to third-year students of junior secondary schools in four provinces in Indonesia. She found that Indonesian students' low motivation in learning English was caused by "declining levels of teacher motivation, teachers' low levels of English proficiency, and the difficulties students have with affording the required text" (p. 3). She further added that the place where students lived also influenced their motivation in learning English. Those living in cities had a higher level of motivation than those living in rural areas (Beh, 1997).

Students' low motivation can also be caused by teachers' teaching strategies. Research by Marcellino (2005), who investigated the effectiveness of competency-based language instruction in a speaking class in the Indonesian context, found that students tended to be passive, unmotivated, and unchallenged during an English class, because the teacher still applied the lockstep approach, "a situation in which all students in a class are engaged in the same activity at the same time, all progressing through tasks at the same rate" (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 346). In addition, the grammar-based approach is still commonly used.

Panggabean (2015) emphasised that although the grammar-based approach is not deployed in the current curriculum, many EFL teachers at secondary and university level still use it. As a result, it is challenging for them to make teaching and learning activities interesting for the students and the students find that learning English is difficult, even more difficult than mathematics, biology, or chemistry. Such a situation clearly affects students' motivation to learn English.

Another cause of students' low motivation to learn English is large classes. According to Dardjowidjojo (2000), "English classes are not treated differently from other subjects. The number of students in a class is, therefore, large, with between 40-50 students per class" (p. 27). This state of affairs, along with the status of English as a foreign language, according to Adi (2012), reduces students' motivation to learn English. "English may be deemed irrelevant with students' needs because language is not part of their everyday life" (Adi, 2012, p. 82).

A number of Indonesian scholars (Basir, 2003; Mukminin, Muazza, Hustarna, & Sari, 2015; Salwa, 2014) agree that large class sizes affect students' motivation in learning English. According to Salwa (2014), large class size is one of the major factors affecting students' motivation in language learning. It makes the class noisy and limits students' opportunities for active learning (Basir, 2003). Mukminin et al. (2015), in their research on demotivating factors in EFL teaching, found that large number of students in the classroom is one of the factors that made the in-service EFL teachers less enthusiastic about teaching. Although the focus of Mukminin et al's (2015) research was on factors affecting EFL teachers' motivation in EFL teaching, in my opinion, the teacher's lack of enthusiasm brought about by large classes would in all likelihood have a negative impact on students' motivation as well. There is a causal relationship between teacher's enthusiasm and students' motivation. As Orosz et al. (2015) claims: "Teacher enthusiasm has positive effect on such outcomes as on-task behavior, recall, and test performance. Not only outcomes, but motivations are also affected by teacher enthusiasm" (p. 2). According to Lamb (2007) a lack of creativity in teachers also diminishes EFL students' enthusiasm for language learning.

3.4.3.3 Self-confidence

A number of studies (Gilbert, 2008; Juhana, 2012a, 2012b; Marwan, 2007) indicate that self-confidence is another barrier for Indonesian EFL students learning English. Marwan (2007), in his research report investigating Indonesian students' foreign language anxiety, stated that lack of confidence is a problem faced by many lower intermediate students, and probably stems from their low mastery of English. Lack of vocabulary and low proficiency in grammar and pronunciation may make students lack confidence in speaking in English. Related to students' low proficiency in pronunciation, Juhana (2012a) contended that students lack confidence in speaking because they do not know how to pronounce certain English words well, and do not want to be laughed at by their classmates because of their incorrect pronunciation. Gilbert (2008), too, considered that incorrect pronunciation of certain words in English made students uncomfortable. They lack confidence to speak, which, in turn, inhibits them from being proficient at the language. Gilbert (2008) further noted:

> [I]t is common for students to feel uneasy when they hear themselves speak with the rhythm of a second language (L2). They find that they "sound foreign" to themselves, and this is troubling for them. Although the uneasiness is usually unconscious, it can be a major barrier to improved intelligibility in the L2. (p. 1)

Psychological factors also hinder students from speaking confidently. Juhana (2012b) asserted that a "fear of making mistakes, shyness, anxiety, and the like" (p. 108) prevent students from speaking English in front of their classmates. When one student pronounces certain words incorrectly, for example, other students will immediately respond to him/her by correcting him/her or even laughing loudly at him/her. This makes the student feel shy and anxious. For this reason, many Indonesian students prefer to be passive and quiet during class (Tutyandari, 2005).

3.4.4 Teacher factors

For Indonesian teachers, especially EFL teachers, two factors that negatively impact on their professional work are low income and lack of qualifications.

3.4.4.1 Low income

Monthly income is a crucial issue for most Indonesian teachers and EFL university lecturers. They cannot focus fully on their jobs, because their low income as teachers forces them to find additional part-time work to meet their families' needs. An EFL lecturer from a state-owned university, for example, has to teach at private universities in order to meet his/her family's monthly needs. Madya (2002), in an article entitled "Developing standards for EFL in Indonesia as part of the EFL teaching reform", expressed the view that:

> Being underpaid, Indonesian EFL teachers hardly have time to think about setting the standards in EFL on their own initiatives since many of them have to find additional work to get more money to support their families. (p. 149)

Likewise, Lie (2007) has contended that most teachers have to have a second job, which makes it hard for them to put enough energy and time into preparing class materials, improving their own teaching and engaging in professional development.

3.4.4.2 Unqualified/inexperienced English teachers

Lack of qualified English teachers has become a serious problem, especially for EFL teaching in remote areas. Wati (2011), in a research article entitled "The effectiveness of Indonesian English teachers training programmes in improving confidence and motivation", stressed the need for qualified English teachers because of unsuccessful EFL teaching in Indonesia. She stated:

> Nowadays, the demand for a qualified English teacher has become a serious problem in educational sector since there is unsuccessful educational development. Teaching English as a foreign language still fails. Some teachers even do not know how to teach English well. (p. 82)

Inexperienced teachers seem to be another problem inhibiting the success of EFL teaching, especially in the university where this study took place. From my own experience and observation, this problem has been caused by the employment of

inexperienced EFL teachers. Many of them have been recent graduates with limited experience in EFL teaching. They were novice teachers. Roberts (1998) described five problems with novice teachers: limited ability to select information when planning lessons; a limited vocabulary to reflect on and talk about their teaching; a limited ability to deal with students and increase their motivation in language learning; limited knowledge of academic content; and a greater concentration on textbooks than on students' accomplishment. In line with Wati's (2011) call for more qualified teachers, some teacher professional development training is definitely needed for these novice teachers to develop their professional ability in EFL teaching and to provide them with more experience.

3.4.5 Structural/environment issues

There are two main structural/environment issues that affect the success of EFL teaching in Indonesian higher education: large class size and limited teaching hours allocated for English.

3.4.5.1 Large class sizes

As stated above, large class size is a problem for EFL teachers in Indonesia. This problem occurs not only in secondary schools but also at the tertiary education level. Since English is put in the same category as other content subjects at university level (Musthafa, 2002), there are typically forty to fifty students in one classroom in the Faculties of Education, Social and Political Sciences, and Medicine. This figure is likely to double in the faculties of Law and Engineering.

Several scholars concur that large class size has become an EFL teaching problem in Indonesian higher education and secondary levels. Dardjowidjojo (2000) said: "The class size is definitely one [problem]. It does not matter how good the curriculum is, an excellent teacher will not be able to perform well in an English class with 40-50 students in it" (p. 27). Lie (2007) added that the large number of students in one class meant there was great variety in terms of "their motivation level, intellectual capability, cultural backgrounds, and access to education resources" (p. 6). This situation makes it challenging for an EFL teacher to teach effectively. Bradford (2007) and Kirkpatrick (2007) agree that large classes,

together with teachers' lack of competence in English and low incomes, and students' low motivation, have contributed to unsuccessful EFL teaching in Indonesia.

3.4.5.2 Limited teaching hours

Limited teaching hours constitute another problem for EFL teaching in tertiary education, including in the university where this study was carried out. Most non-English departments in the latter allocate two credit-teaching hours for English per week. Only departments in the Faculties of Economics, Medicine, and Law allocate more hours to English. With a total of only two-credit teaching hours per week for a total of 18 weeks in only one semester and a high number of students in the class, it is very hard for EFL teachers to be creative in developing their own teaching materials. Musthafa (2002) argued that the insufficient allocation of teaching hours for English was one of the EFL teaching problems at university level (see Sub-section 3.4.2). The problems become complex because of the large number of students in the class and students' low English mastery (Ahmad, 2002; Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Larson, 2014). For those reasons, the focus of EFL teaching tends to be limited to reading comprehension and basic grammar (Dardjowidjojo, 2000).

3.5 EFL teaching problems in some Southeast Asian countries

English in the Southeast Asian context is used as either a second or foreign language. In countries like Malaysia, Singapore, Philippines and Brunei, English is used as a second language. Bautista and Gonzalez (2006) referred to such Englishes as new Englishes because English in those countries stemmed from their individual colonial histories. For example, English in Malaysia, Singapore and Brunei became established because the countries were colonised by Great Britain, while English in the Philippines emerged because the country was colonised by the USA. In countries like Indonesia, East Timor, Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar, Thailand, and Vietnam, English is spoken as a foreign language.

Similar to the state of EFL teaching in Indonesia, EFL teaching in a number of Southeast Asian countries is also considered unsuccessful. Thailand, which has a

similar education system[5] to Indonesia, also considers its EFL teaching to be unsuccessful. Some Thai scholars, such as Keyuravong (2015), Namwong (2012), and Wiriyachitra (2006), claim that although students have spent many years learning English at school, their proficiency in the four language skills is still poor. Keyuravong (2015) argues that, "Thai students learn English for 12 years, but the results are not promising. They still face difficulties and have insufficient confidence in using English for communication" (p. 63). From Keyurapong's (2015) explanation, it can be inferred that English is being taught from the first year of primary schooling, but the outcomes of this ELT are unsatisfactory. The three scholars above agreed that the lack of opportunities to use English outside the classroom is one of the causes of limited progress in EFL teaching at secondary level. Biayem (1997, cited in Wiriyachitra, 2006) added that contributors to inefficient EFL teaching in Thailand included difficulties faced by both teachers and students. For EFL teachers, problems include heavy teaching loads, large classes, lack of English language skills and knowledge of the native speaker culture, and inadequate classroom facilities. Problems faced by the students when learning English at school include interference from their first language, little opportunity to use English outside the classroom, uninteresting English lessons, their own passivity as learners, anxiety about speaking English, and exercising little responsibility for their own learning. As in Indonesia, all these difficulties affect students when they study at university.

Thai students studying English at university level experience a similar problem to Indonesian university students, where the EFL teaching is mainly grammar-based. Poonpon (2011) claimed that as students have an inadequate English background when they study at university, EFL teaching at university is mainly focused on reviewing English grammar:

> [O]ne of the most critical problems encountered by teachers especially at the university level is students' lack of adequate language background to complete tasks required in studying English. Therefore, it seems inevitable for many university

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[5] Students spend six years in elementary school, three years in junior high school, three years in senior high school, and four years in university

teachers that they have to review basic knowledge such as grammar usage over and over again before they can proceed to English for daily routines and academic purposes. (Poonpon, 2011, p. 1)

EFL teaching in Vietnam is characterised by problems that appear similar to those occurring in Indonesia and Thailand. Nguyen, Fehring, and Warren (2015) claim that EFL teaching problems at high-school level are caused by insufficient time for English, inadequate EFL teachers, students' low motivation and inadequate English competence, and large class size. In line with Nguyen et al. (2015), Vu and Burns (2014) add that "unplanned English [programme] and the unsystematic nature of the English programme" (p. 7) also contribute to unsuccessful EFL teaching in Vietnam's higher education. Vu and Burns (2014) further explain that the unplanned English development programme has resulted in a lack of qualified and proficient English teachers. In addition, the unsystematic nature of the English programme has caused various changes in the education system. English, which was intended only for high-school students, has now been taught at all levels of education from elementary to high-school levels. This situation has led to the development of many textbooks aimed at addressing these changes. The existence of so many textbooks, which are still available for use, makes the continuity of the English programme less effective and makes the sequencing of the programme across different levels confusing (Vu & Burns, 2014). This is because the development of the textbooks is merely to cover the need of English teaching materials in each level of schooling without integrating and sequencing them with other levels. As a result, the teaching materials that should be taught to students in elementary school are also used for students in junior high school. Likewise, teaching materials for students in senior high school are often used for students in junior high school. This situation makes the sequence of EFL teaching programme across levels confusing, and therefore, the availability of such textbooks becomes less effective in the context of the EFL teaching programme.

All these problems affect the success of EFL teaching at higher education levels. Nguyen (2013) claimed that although non-English department students have spent 200 hours learning English, the outcomes are still inadequate.

Regarding EFL teaching problems in higher education, Nguyen et al. (2015), who investigated EFL teaching at a Vietnamese university, identified negative aspects that became barriers to the success of EFL teaching. They were: insufficient time allocated for English teaching, students' unequal English levels, large classes, limited programmes for teachers' professional development, and students' attitudes and motivation for English study.

Myanmar, or Burma, also has problems in its EFL teaching programmes for higher education. Win (2015) claimed that higher education graduates in Myanmar do not have adequate proficiency in English, although they have spent a long time learning English. According to Fen (2005), and Ireland and Van Benthuysen (2014), English has been a compulsory subject from kindergarten since 1981. This means that when students graduate from high school they will have learned English for at least 12 years. However, this long period of time spent learning English does not appear to facilitate their study at university where they are required to study certain subjects in English. Students' low proficiency in English hinders them from developing expertise in their majors (Ireland & Van Benthuysen, 2014).

Regarding problems that may hinder students from making good progress in English, Sinhaneti and Kyaw (2012) blamed EFL teaching and learning styles which are still teacher-centred, book-centred, focused on the grammar translation method, and based on textbooks for exam purposes. They added that further problems contributing to bad outcomes in EFL teaching were inadequate time allocated to English, large class sizes and a lack of variety in teaching media.

From this brief overview of EFL teaching problems in four Southeast Asian countries, including Indonesia, it can be inferred that similar problems are being faced. It can be said that the limited time allocated for English teaching and learning, large English classes, students' low English proficiency, and grammar-based English teaching are common problems characterising EFL teaching in Southeast Asia.

Some Southeast Asian countries have taken steps to address the problem of low English proficiency in non-English department students in higher education. As stated in Chapter 2, Section 2.7, a number of research projects have focused on

the use of a content-based instructional (CBI) approach as a possible solution to the low English proficiency of university students in some countries. Since CBI, particularly theme-based instruction (TB), has proved effective in the EFL context (Alptekin et al., 2007; Brinton et al., 1989; Davies, 2003), there was clear justification for this study to investigate the potential positive impact of theme-based instruction (TB) in the tertiary education context of Indonesia.

3.6 Relevance of theme-based instruction (TB) in EFL teaching in Indonesian tertiary education

As stated in Section 3.3, low English proficiency has persistently characterised Indonesian non-English department students at university level, including university graduates. This problem is caused in part by the weaknesses in EFL teaching either in secondary school or in higher education itself. These weaknesses, as explained previously, include the inadequate allocation of time for English, grammar-based teaching, large classes, students' anxiety, low motivation and self-confidence. As stated in Section 2.2, the grammar-based approach currently used is not effective (Madya, 2002; Wati, 2011). A theme-based instructional approach can be proposed as a means of accelerating English language learning. Some researchers see this approach as having the potential to solve some of the above EFL teaching problems.

The research literature provides a number of arguments why theme-based instruction should be considered relevant to EFL teaching for non-English department students in Indonesian higher education.

As stated above, theme-based instruction has been regarded as being effective in the EFL context. Davies (2003) contended that theme-based instruction does well in EFL contexts, especially with EFL students whose TOEFL scores range from 350 to 500. Davies' (2003) statement regarding the typical TOEFL range for the effective implementation of theme-based instructional approach is relevant to Sofendi's (2012) research findings. Sofendi (2012), who investigated English mastery of 547 students in a state-owned university in Indonesia in the academic year 2009/2010, found that EFL students' TOEFL-like test scores were 253 to 450. The university where Sofendi (2012) performed the study is typical of other

state-owned universities in Indonesia, especially in term of recruiting new students. All state-owned universities in Indonesia recruit new students through one centralised entrance exam. Therefore, the students participating in this research were a typical cohort.

More importantly, a theme-based instructional approach is also believed to increase students' motivation and engagement. As stated in Sub-section 3.3.3 above, the motivation of Indonesian university students to learn English is categorised as high because they are aware of the importance of mastering English for their future careers. However, their motivation may decrease when they find that learning English is hard and boring. Panggabean (2015) states that: "If instruction is completely centered on grammar…it will be boring, difficult, and hard, for it will be taught just the way mathematics is taught, for instance" (p. 42). The situation is likely to change if the language instruction is used to discuss topics or themes related to the current content subject that students take. Custodio and Sutton (1998) reported research on CBI which shows how CBI was effectively used in their class. They used authentic literary materials to engage students. According to them, "literature can open horizons of possibility, allowing students to question, interpret, connect, and explore. In sum, literature provides students with an incomparably rich source of authentic material over a wide range of registers" (Custodio & Sutton, 1998, p. 20). Haley and Austin (2013) agreed with Custodio and Sutton (1998) regarding the use of authentic literary materials. According to Haley and Austin (2013), there are three important advantages students may gain. They are "(1) promoting higher-level thinking, (2) allowing for meaningful discussion of students' cultures as reflected in the literature, and (3) reinforcing thinking through manageable amounts of reading, writing, listening, and speaking" (p. 9). All the three advantages show how students are engaged during the learning activities with a CBI approach including a theme-based instructional approach.

A further relevance of theme-based instructional approaches in EFL teaching is that they do not change the status of the EFL teacher. The EFL teacher is still responsible for all teaching and learning activities, including designing the syllabus and teaching the content. Davies (2003) and Duenas (2003) both contend that in a theme-based instructional programme, although an EFL teacher

collaborates with a content specialist, he/she is still the one who is responsible for designing the syllabus, choosing content material, and teaching English in the content class. Duenas (2004) explains further:

> In the theme-based model, courses are autonomous, i.e. they are not parallel to other discipline courses as in the adjunct model, offer a strong language-oriented projection, and allow a high degree of flexibility in terms of content selection, curricular organization and procedural application. This leads to a lack of complexity for implementation that is viewed as highly positive, since teachers – who are language teaching specialists rather than subject lecturers – operate independently, and no organizational or institutional adjustments are required. (p. 84)

From Davies' (2003) and Duenas' (2003, 2004) accounts above, it can be inferred that in a theme-based class an EFL teacher has significant responsibility for designing the course syllabus, determining the teaching content, and developing students' communication skills during teaching and learning activities. This responsibility is much more challenging than current EFL teachers' responsibilities, which relate to teaching English to non-English department students through the grammatical approach and evaluating students' progress by grading them based on their attendance, mid-term test scores, and final semester test scores. They are not involved in designing the teaching syllabus and teaching content.

The last and the most important point of all is (as stated in Chapter 2, Section 2.4) that the theme-based instructional approach has the potential to be an appropriate replacement for the traditional grammar-based approach which has been considered unsuccessful in improving students' English proficiency (Lie, 2007; Madya, 2002). The theme-based instructional approach, which draws on the principles of communicative language teaching (CLT) (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, 2014), focuses on real communication and exchange of information. The subject matter being learned is not grammatical rules but the topics or themes derived from the respective content area. In addition, this approach is student-centred. Nunan (2004) explained: "[I]n CBI classrooms, students learn through doing and are actively engaged in the learning process; they do not depend on the

teacher to direct all learning or to be the source of all information" (p. 132). As this approach has been commonly used in EFL contexts, the hypothesis underpinning this practitioner inquiry was that it would be suitable for EFL teaching in the Indonesian tertiary context.

3.7. Conclusion

Although English has been taught as a foreign language in Indonesia since the 1950s and was formally mandated as the first foreign language in 1967, EFL teaching in Indonesia has never achieved satisfactory outcomes. Many high-school and university graduates have low English proficiency.

Several factors were identified in relation to these unsuccessful EFL outcomes in secondary schools. These were inconsistencies between the aims of EFL teaching, the EFL teaching approaches adopted, the content of learning materials, and models of assessment. These were found in most curricula from the first curriculum in 1947 to the 2006 curriculum (Bire, 2010). The teacher-centred approach applied in curricula before the 1984 curriculum was also believed to undermine the success of EFL teaching in Indonesia (Madya, 2002).

EFL teaching at university level does not seem to be successful, either. The limited teaching hours allocated for English was considered to be one of the factors hindering success. For students, factors such as anxiety, lack of confidence, and low motivation in English learning also tend to negatively influence the success of EFL teaching. In addition, teacher factors such as low income and lack of experience, and structural constraints such as large English class sizes and limited teaching hours, make it difficult for EFL teaching to be effective.

This state of affairs regarding EFL teaching at the tertiary education level in Indonesia, which is still largely focused on grammar and reading comprehension, together with students' low motivation, lack of self-confidence, and the high levels of anxiety when learning English, inspired me as a teacher-researcher to find an appropriate EFL teaching approach to address the problems mentioned. The similarities in EFL teaching problems among some Southeast Asian countries

and some empirical studies on the use of content-based instruction (CBI) as a way of addressing these problems, became the main reason for my investigating the effectiveness of a theme-based instructional approach in improving non-English department students' English proficiency in my own context. My study set out to improve EFL students' communicative skills as well as increase their motivation and confidence and reduce their anxiety about learning English. As stated by Musthafa (2002), "The biggest challenge... is to design a relatively brief but focused skills-based English course that can help students directly with their studies in their major" (p. 28).

CHAPTER FOUR: TEACHING AND LEARNING ACTIVITIES IN THE INTERVENTION AND NON-INTERVENTION CLASS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the learning activities, especially in the intervention class, where I trialled a theme-based instructional approach in an EFL context in an Indonesian tertiary education. As stated in the introductory chapter, this investigation took the form of practitioner inquiry because I conducted an intervention with my own class. As stated by Allwright (2005) and Ellis (2012), practitioner research is research done by practitioners (usually teachers) in order to reflect critically on their own classroom practices. I had previously engaged in practitioner inquiry informally during my EFL teaching for non-English departments at Sumatra University (pseudonym). In this instance, I investigated the problems faced by EFL students in learning English and adopted some teaching approaches to solve them. A teaching approach that really drew me was the theme-based instructional approach. Every time I used this approach in my class, I found students responded positively. They looked enthusiastic and engaged when we were discussing topics based on content drawn from subjects they were studying. For example, when I asked my previous History Education students to tell the class what they knew about the history of Sriwijaya Kingdom, one of the earliest and biggest kingdoms in Indonesian history, I found they looked attentive, serious, and eager to share their opinions. Those students were also active when I asked them to work in groups, they could perform group discussion well (discussing the questions, finding answers, and sharing answers with others). I also noticed that students who used to be quiet felt encouraged to express their opinions as best as they could although in very limited English. All these positive responses encouraged me to investigate the effectiveness of this teaching approach more deeply in the investigation reported on here.

This chapter starts with the reasons behind the decision to apply the theme-based instructional approach in this study. Next, it will describe the research setting, research participants, and sampling procedure. Then I will offer a reasonably detailed account of the teaching programs designed to cover the requirements of

the university's teaching syllabus, both for the intervention (IC) which I taught and non-intervention class (NIC) which was taught by my colleague. I will also explain the assessment procedures related to the formal grading system in the university department which I was obliged to follow and also those related to the study itself, which I was at liberty to develop. Next, I will offer an account of the teaching and learning activities in the two parallel classes. Finally, I will discuss a number of ethical issues pertinent to the construction of the intervention, before concluding the chapter.

4.2 Research setting

This study was undertaken between 28th September and 6th November 2009 at Sumatra University (pseudonym), a state-owned university in Indonesia. The intervention described in this chapter occupied six weeks and involved the first-year students of the History Education Study Program in the Social Science Education Department, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Sumatra University as its study participants.

The History Education Study Program offers a four-year undergraduate degree program with a major in history education. Similar to other study programs in the university, all students enrolled in this program had successfully completed their twelve years of formal education. They were accepted into the study program after they had successfully passed the national university entrance test or USM (Ujian Saringan Masuk) which is administered nationally once a year.

There were three reasons I decided to undertake a practitioner research in the context of the History Education Study Program. First, having taught in the same Faculty for over a decade, I expected that I would be able to access the research site, which would ensure the feasibility of the study. The practitioner research could be carried out naturally, since in my role as teacher-researcher, I could perform the teaching and researching activities at the same time. The research participants would not feel awkward, since they would be taught by teacher(s) from the same Faculty.

The second reason related to the number of students involved. Unlike other faculties in the university, the number of students in each classroom in the undergraduate programs delivered by departments in this particular faculty ranged from 35 to 40. This was a manageable number for the purpose of this study. For this study, 40 students was a manageable number, which would be then divided into two groups, one of which would become the intervention class (IC) and the other one the non-intervention class (NIC). With 40 students as research participants, the number of students in each separate class would not be more than 20. A total number of 20 students or less is generally considered appropriate, especially if the goal of teaching is to develop students' communicative skills (Shin, 2011).

The third reason was related to the research topic, theme-based instruction. The intervention program given to the intervention class in the form of EFL teaching derived themes from one of the content subjects offered to the students. I was familiar with the content subject, the History of Southeast Asian Nations. Being familiar with this content enabled me to selected topics and design an appropriate syllabus (after consulting with the appropriate content-subject lecturer) and to teach the students confidently.

4.3 Research participants and sampling procedures

The 37 research participants involved in this study were the first-year students of the History Education Study Program in the Social Science Education Department in the academic year 2009/2010. They were suitable for this study since they all took English, a compulsory subject offered in the odd semester, i.e. a period in the university academic calendar from the beginning of September to the beginning of December. The study intervention focused on topics related to the History of Southeast Asian Nations, a compulsory subject which was also offered to first-semester students in the History Education Study Program.

The student participants involved in this study were between 18 and19 years of age and had recently graduated from high school. Most of them had come to university from various districts in the South Sumatra province. Two of them

were from two other provinces, Babel and Bengkulu. Most of the students spoke Palembangnese[6] as their mother tongue and Indonesian language or Bahasa Indonesia as their second language. English or other foreign languages were regarded as their third or foreign language. They had studied English for at least six years. Most of them had learned English formally at school, but some of them also learned English at language centres – private, English learning centres which offer training to students to improve their communicative skills.

As stated above, the student participants were divided between an intervention class (IC) and a non-intervention class (NIC). I taught the intervention class and Harris (pseudonym), a colleague from the same study program, the English Education Study Program, taught the non-intervention class (See Chapter 5, Section 5.2). A second colleague, Wati (pseudonym) observed the intervention class during video sessions and a third colleague, Lina (pseudonym) observed the intervention class through watching the videos. More detail about these observers can be found in Chapter 5, Sub-section 5.3.2.

Since my practitioner inquiry took the form of a case study, the selection of the research participants was not initially done by means of random sampling. Instead, two stages of sampling were employed. The first stage was convenience sampling. The reason for this sampling method was that I had access to first-year students of the History Education Study Program, and these students were available as research participants in this study. This is in line with Fraenkel and Wallen's (2005) explanation of convenience sampling as referring to "a group of individuals who (conveniently) are available for study" (p. 75). These students were available for this study because they took English, a compulsory subject offered in the first semester of the academic year 2009/2010. At the same time, they also took History of Southeast Asian Nations, the content subject which became a focus of investigation in this study. Based on these two reasons, these students were ideal suited as a sample of this study.

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[6] Palembangnese is a local language spoken by most South Sumatran people

The second stage of sampling employed in this study was stratified random sampling, because this study also applied a quasi-experimental design (as further discussed in Chapter 5). The research participants who were originally allocated to one class were then divided into two homogenous groups. Best and Kahn (2006) contend that stratified random sampling makes it possible to divide a population into "smaller homogeneous groups to get more accurate representation" (p. 17). Through this sampling method, the research participants were divided into equivalent subgroups based on their gender and level of proficiency (Tharenou, Donohue, & Cooper, 2007).

Two tests, an ITP-TOEFL-like test and an oral test, were used in the process of dividing research participants into two groups, IC and NIC. The scores from the ITP-TOEFL-like test were converted into a standard score format by using two types of standard score converter, z scores and T scores. More about the conversion of the ITP-TOEFL-like test scores into standard scores can be found in Section 5.4.1.

Once all students' ITP-TOEFL-like test scores had been converted, they were combined with their oral test scores. The oral test scores used were the mean of the three items of the oral test (fluency, complexity, accuracy), using criteria for oral testing adopted from Wen (2006). Details of the criteria for the oral test can be seen in Appendix 12.

In determining whether to allocate a student to the intervention class or non-intervention class, all individual students' ITP TOEFL-like test converted scores and their average oral test scores were combined, with a proportion of 60% allocated to the ITP-TOEFL-like test scores and 40% to the oral test scores. The higher proportion was given to the ITP-TOEFL-like test scores in order to avoid too much weight be attributed to the subjective oral test scores. The total scores were divided by ten. This gave an average score for each individual student. Then, I grouped the scores into two groups based on their genders, a male group and a female group. I ranked the scores in each group in order from highest to lowest. Finally, I selected the students with odd cardinal numbers in each group for the intervention class and those with even cardinal numbers for the non-intervention

class. In this way, the students were allocated to the intervention class (IC) and non-intervention class (NIC) based on their language proficiency and gender.

4.4 Teaching Syllabi

As stated above, the students participating in this study were allocated to an intervention class and non-intervention class. Each class was taught using an EFL teaching syllabus; that is, a theme-based syllabus for the intervention class and grammar-based syllabus for the non-intervention class. Structurally, each syllabus contained the same components, i.e. a general learning objective (GLO) and specific learning objectives (SLOs), an attendance policy, grading system, course schedule and activities, and resources/equipment used. But they were different in terms of GLO/SLOs, learning materials and activities, and types of resources/equipment used. Details of these syllabuses can be found in sections 4.4.1 and 4.4.2 below.

4.4.1 Theme-based syllabus for the intervention class

As stated in section 2.4.4, the syllabus for the theme-based instructional programme was organised around themes or topics which became the contexts for the teaching and learning activities (Alptekin et al., 2007; Chanie, 2013; Stoller & Grabe, 1997). That is, the themes or topics, which were based on the students' academic content, played an important role in determining the teaching materials and types of teaching and learning activities. They were the main source for my syllabus planning using a theme-based approach (Chanie, 2013; Stoller & Grabe, 1997).

There were two main themes used in the theme-based syllabus I designed for the intervention class, i.e. Southeast Asia in its golden history and the fight against Western colonisation in Southeast Asia. A number of relevant teaching materials were collected in the form of reading passages, movies, audiotapes and powerpoint presentations which were related to these themes. Based on these teaching materials, five topics were defined. Three topics (the classical era of Cambodian history, the great history of Mallaca, and the golden era of Thai history) were derived from the first theme and two topics were developed from

the second theme, i.e. the fall of Mallaca and the arrival of the Spanish in the Phillipines. From those topics, specific tasks were designed in accordance with the specific learning objectives (SLOs) spelled out in the syllabus.

The theme-based syllabus had two kinds of objective, a general learning objective and three specific learning objectives (SLOs). The general objective of the theme-based teaching in the intervention class was that at the end of the programme, the IC students would be able to communicate their thoughts about their academic content in English both orally and in writing. To achieve the general learning objective, three specific learning objectives were formulated, namely:

(1) students are able to communicate topics in their academic content using four language skills, i.e. listening, speaking, reading, and writing,

(2) students develop their knowledge of the academic content related to the two topics of the History course,

(3) students become increasingly motivated and engaged, and develop self-confidence in learning English as a foreign language.

As can be seen, one SLO was related to students communicative skills, a second related to History-related topic knowledge and the third was attitudinal. After the general and specific learning objectives had been defined, the teaching materials were developed and the teaching and learning activities were designed for the purpose of helping students achieve the specific learning objectives (SLOs). More about the syllabus for the intervention class can be seen in appendix 14.

4.4.2 Grammar-based syllabus for the non-intervention class

EFL teaching for non-English departments at Sumatran University (pseudonym) is aimed at helping students comprehend their academic textbooks which are written in English. This objective is reflected in Sofendi's (2008) statement which emphasised that the aim of EFL teaching for non-English departments is:

> untuk membantu para mahasiswa di bidang akademis, yaitu
> untuk membaca buku teks yang ditulis dalam bahasa Inggris atau

secara insidental untuk memahami perkuliahan dalam bahasa
Inggris, dan/atau gabungan dari keduanya (p. 5).

I have translated this as follows:

to help students in their academic fields, i.e. to understand
textbooks written in English or to understand lectures delivered
in English, and/or a combination of both.

From the statement above, it is obvious that EFL teaching at the university is
intended to support students with their academic activities, not to develop their
language proficiency.

In line with the explanation above, the general learning objective of the EFL
teaching for the non-intervention class (NIC) was that at the end of this program,
students would have basic knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary to
assist them in reading and understanding the English written textbooks related to
their study major. To achieve this general learning objective, two specific
learning objectives were formulated by Harris:

(1) Students are able to apply basic English grammar (syntax) for the purpose of
    understanding a range of English sentences.

(2) Students are able to scan and skim in order to locate specific information in a
    reading passage.

More detail on the syllabus for the non-intervention class (NIC) can be found in
Appendix 15.

4.5 Teaching and learning activities

As stated above, the intervention program occupied six weeks and entailed
eighteen classroom meetings. Of the eighteen meetings, one meeting was used for
the introduction of the course, pre-test, and survey; one meeting was used for the
mid-term test; one meeting was allocated to the final-semester test and a further
meeting was allocated to the post-test. That left fourteen meetings for teaching
and learning activities to take place (See Appendix 14).

In each of these 14 class meetings, I applied the same procedure, that is, the sessions had the following stages: a warm-up activity, introductory activity, developmental activity, guided activity, independent activity, and closure.

4.5.1 Teaching and learning activities in the intervention class

A range of learning activities (i.e. reading passages, listening to song, watching movies, sharing ideas, and writing discussion summaries) were designed to successfully meet the main objectives of the intervention program. To improve students' communicative competence, especially speaking skills, I used pair discussion. In a reading lesson, for example, once students finished reading the passage, I asked them in a group of two to discuss what the passage was about. Then, one group was asked to offer a summary of the reading passage orally and have other groups to agree or disagree with them. All the groups were expected to express their views on the discussed presented summary. The discussion ended when all the groups agreed with the summary. The students followed a similar learning procedure when answering the video comprehension questions. One group answered the first question and had other groups agree or disagree. They would continue with answering the next question when all groups agreed with the answer to the previous question.

In general, I found that pair work group discussion through the agree/disagree pattern prompted a positive response from the students. Working with peers and sharing their summary or answers with other groups motivated students to speak. This response gradually influenced their speaking competence. For that reason, I considered this teaching method a good method to develop students' communicative skills, especially speaking skills. Some scholars (Lightbown & Spada, 1993; Storch & Aldosari, 2013) support the use of pair work in language teaching. For example, Lightbown and Spada (1993) stated:

> There is evidence that opportunities for learners to engage in
> conversational interactions in group and paired activities can lead
> to increased fluency and the ability to manage conversations more
> effectively in a second language because these programs

emphasize meaning and attempt to simulate 'natural'
communication in conversational interaction. (p. 104)

Storch and Aldosari (2013) claimed that pair work facilitates interaction between students and promotes language learning.

> Studies have shown that when learners work in small groups or
> pairs, they are more likely to use the L2 for a range of functions
> normally reserved for the teacher, such as making suggestions,
> asking questions and providing feedback. Thus group and pair
> work may provide learners with an improved quantity and quality
> of L2 practice. (p. 32)

Based on the literature I read and my previous teaching experience, I used pair-work group discussion in a number of learning activities in the intervention class.

The following are some procedures I used to improve students' communicative skills in the target language and to strengthen their knowledge of the content subject.

a. Reading comprehension skills

To improve students' reading comprehension skills, I initially introduced students to two reading skills, skimming and scanning. From my observations and notes in my reflective journal, I found that students seemed to benefit from the reading strategies (skimming and scanning) they learned. Skimming a passage helped them to locate where the main idea in each paragraph was located. It helped them understand what was being discussed, particularly in each paragraph, and in the passage in general. Scanning the passage helped students to locate the specific information they need, especially, when they needed to answer reading comprehension questions. As discussed previously, I integrated reading learning activities with speaking activities through the pair-work group discussion.

As will be seen in Chapter 8, a number of students reported finding this activity helpful to them in developing their reading comprehension.

b. Speaking skills

There were four tasks I used to improve students' speaking skills: pair-work discussion (discussed above), watching movies, role-playing, and group presentations. The last three learning activities are described below.

To improve students' understanding of the topics discussed, I played short movies. I was confident that students would be interested in watching movies related to their content. They would be attentive watching the movies and engaged during the discussions of the topics. Watching movies was expected to strengthen students' knowledge about the content. In addition, after their watching the events in the story, I could ask them to recall these events when they were asked to retell the story in their own words spontaneously. As explained by Scott and Beadle (2014) in their report on CLIL and ICT,

> Learning with video clips enables a different approach to the
> target language that is fun and spontaneous, because it provides
> the student with the ability and incentive to express his/her
> emotions, imagination, experience, and knowledge. (pp. 22-23)

From my observations during learning activities based on the viewing of short movies, students seemed to have better understanding of the topics being discussed. As will be discussed in Chapter 8, when I watched the video recordings of my lessons, I could see that students were engaged and attentive when they were watching the short movies and they could access important information much more easily when they were asked to retell the story. They were able to express their opinions orally and spontaneously. Findings related to the benefits of playing short movies in the intervention class will be reported in Chapter 8.

I also used role-playing to improve students' communicative skills in speaking. I included role-playing as one of the learning activities in the intervention because I believed it to be really effective in stimulating students' attention and ensuring

that the learning activities had an impact on the students. According to Dorathy and Mahalakshmi (2011),

> Role play is very important in teaching English because it gives students an opportunity to practice communicating in different social contexts and in different social roles. In addition, it also allows students to be creative and to put themselves in another person's place for a while. (p. 2)

As will be reported in Chapter 8, I found role-play an effective way of engaging students' attention and helping improve their speaking skills.

Group presentation was the last learning activity I designed to improve students' communicative skills, especially speaking skill. To perform this activity, students were divided in groups of two. They were asked to present their summary of topics related to content that had previously been discussed. Each group was given a maximum of 30 minutes to prepare for a group presentation made up of 10 to 15 minutes for the presentation itself and another 10 to 15 minutes for a question and answer session.

c. Listening skills

Students' listening skills were not developed independently but rather integrated with other language skills. In the main, I integrated this activity with watching movies where students were asked not only to watch what events were happening, but they also had to listen and understand what the characters in the movie were talking about. The aim was for them to be able to retell what they had watched orally. I used this teaching method because I wanted students to hear how the language was used naturally by native speakers in their daily activities and authentic contexts. Herron, Morris, Secules, and Curtis (1995) stated:

> Video [movie] is lauded for contextualizing language (i.e., linking language form to meaning) and depicting the foreign culture more effectively than other instructional materials. Videotapes permit students to hear native speakers interacting in everyday

conversational situations and to practice important linguistic structures. (p. 775)

To focus students on what they had to listen for in their viewing of the movies, I asked them to read questions related to the movies they were going to watch. I told them to find answers to the questions by listening carefully to what the characters in the movie were saying. To ensure students got the correct answers, I played the movies twice or three times. Once finished, I asked students in groups of two to discuss and share their answers. When they had answered all the questions, one student from each group would take turns answering the questions. For each answer given, other groups would agree or disagree. For any contested answers, the concerned group(s) had to explain the reasons for their disagreement and put forward their own versions. The discussion continued until all the groups agreed with a particular set of answers.

I also used a song about Magellan, the first Spaniard to travel to the Philippines, as another way of developing students' listening skills. I used the same procedure as when I asked students to watch movies. Students were asked to read the questions, find the answers by listening to the song, discuss the answers in groups of two, share their answers with other groups, and invite other groups to agree or disagree with their answers. As reported in Chapter 8, I found listening to a song an interesting activity to engage students' attention in language learning.

d. Writing skills

To help students develop their writing skills, especially paragraph writing, I made use of three meetings in my intervention class to focus on paragraph writing. I introduced students to the components of a good paragraph and guided them through the steps of writing a good paragraph, starting with brainstorming ideas, writing a topic sentence, supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence. I also advised them to be aware of the need for unity and coherence in a paragraph. The topics that students developed in their paragraph writing were related to their history content especially content we had discussed in previous meetings.

Before I taught students paragraph writing, I always asked them to write what they had learned from the discussions in one short paragraph. I checked each student's paragraph writing and gave some feedback to improve it. After teaching students how to write a good paragraph, I guided them on how to improve paragraph writing by analysing a number of paragraphs written by the students themselves (anonymously). For example, I retyped some paragraphs written by the students and projected them on a screen. I asked students in groups of two to identify weaknesses in the paragraphs, and share their answers with other groups. I kept guiding them by asking them to check if the paragraphs had all the components of a good paragraph, i.e. topic sentence, supporting sentences, concluding sentence, unity and coherence. As will be seen in Chapter 8, some students found such activities useful in improving their writing skills.

4.5.2 Teaching and learning activities in the non-intervention class

The teaching and learning activities in the non-intervention class were different from those in the intervention class. Harris (pseudonym), the EFL lecturer teaching the class, used a grammar-based, EFL teaching approach, where he focused his teaching and learning activities more on grammar and reading comprehension. He varied his teaching media with pictures, slides, and photocopiable English games in order to gain students' interest in what he was teaching. He also developed additional learning exercises, since the learning exercises provided in the textbook were limited.

As listed in the course syllabus (See Appendix 15), the grammar teaching was focused on basic English grammar, such as: countable/uncountable nouns, tenses, degrees of comparisons, gerunds and infinitives, and passive voice. Meanwhile, reading comprehension was focused on general themes. The term *general themes* means that all the reading comprehension materials were based on common themes that could be utilised by all social sciences departments regardless of the faculties they belonged to. For example, one of the themes in the reading passages related to the economy, where the topics of the reading passages were about "investment" and "economics for the citizen". These two topics, although they appear relevant to economic students, were viewed as acceptable as topics of

discussion for social sciences students regardless of whether they were from Faculties of Law, Economy or Social Political Sciences.

As stated above, Harris used the textbook provided by the Sumatran University Language Institute. The book was entitled "English for general purposes for the students of social sciences" and published in 2009. This English textbook was intended for internal use only by all social science students taking English in the first semester. As the book was a compulsory book for EFL teaching, the course syllabus was based on the content of this book.

In teaching grammar, Harris would start his teaching by using pictures or slides on the OHP. He would only use pictures if the focus of grammar teaching for the day was able to be introduced by pictures, for example, countable or uncountable nouns and degrees of comparisons. He asked students to describe anything they noticed in the pictures. Then he directed them to focus on certain aspects of grammar that arose in their responses to the pictures. At the end of this pre-learning activity, he would tell students the focus of grammar teaching for the day.

During the learning activities, Harris asked students to learn the information related to the grammatical topic provided in their textbook. He asked the students to focus their attention on the grammatical rules that were spelled out. For example, when they were learning about countable/uncountable nouns, he asked students to learn how changes from singular nouns to plural nouns were made. He used the same approach when students were learning other grammatical topics such as tenses, conditional sentences, or gerunds and infinitives. Once students understood the rules and had no more questions regarding them, he asked them to do the exercises related to the grammar topic discussed on that particular day.

In working on the grammar exercises, Harris asked students to work in groups of two. Once students were ready with their answers, he asked each student in turn to read their answers. If one answer was wrong, he usually asked another student to give their correct answer. He proceeded in this fashion until all the questions were answered orally by the students.

As follow-up activities, Harris usually asked students to make up their own sentence using the grammatical point discussed on that day. Once students were ready, he asked some of them to read aloud their sentences and let other students decide whether the sentence was grammatically right or wrong. He sometimes selected students to write their sentences on the white board, so it would be easy for other students to identify whether the sentences were grammatically right or wrong.

For reading comprehension activities, Harris usually started the lesson by asking students to open their textbooks and silently read the comprehension passage which was the focus of learning for the day. He asked students to read the whole passage twice or three times and then asked students voluntarily to retell what the passage was about. When one student finished giving a summary of a reading passage, he gave other students the opportunity to agree or disagree with the summary. If one student disagreed, he/she had to present his/her own version.

In the following session, Harris would ask students to work with their peer answering the reading comprehension questions. As most of the questions based on the reading passages were in the form of true-false, matching words with definitions or synonyms, and "Wh" questions with short answers, it did not take long for students to finish the reading comprehension learning activities. Harris usually spent the available time left by giving students extra learning activities. At times, he provided short reading passages on slides and put them on a screen. He asked students to identify the main topics of these reading passages. At other times, he provided students with English games taken from photocopiable learning materials. He provided extra learning materials for both grammar and reading comprehension.

4.5.3 Formative assessment in the intervention program

In measuring students' progress in both intervention and non-intervention classes, two types of assessment were used, formative and summative. The use of assessment for learning is important since "[e]very model of the teaching-learning process requires that teachers base their decisions – instructional, grading, and reporting – on some knowledge of student attainment of and progress towards

desired learning outcomes" (Cheng, Rogers, & Hu, 2004, p. 361). During teaching and learning activities, I used formative assessment to measure students' progress and plan any actions to improve students' English competence. As explained by Bell and Cowie (2002), formative assessment is a test that is done during the learning for the purpose of improving the learning since the teacher uses the test result to interpret and decide what to do next to improve the learning. Black and Wiliam (1998) discuss formative assessment as follows:

> [A]ssessment refers to all those activities undertaken by teachers, and by their students in assessing themselves, which provide information to be used as feedback to modify the teaching and learning activities in which they are engaged. Such assessment becomes 'formative assessment' when the evidence is actually used to adapt the teaching work to meet the needs. (p. 2)

There were four types of formative assessment I used during teaching and learning: observation, group assessment, paragraph writing, and pre-test and post-test.

Through observation, I could see what students were doing during the learning (which students were active, which ones were quiet, which ones had better oral English skills, and which ones were still weak in speaking). From my observations, I found that a small group of students dominated the class when I asked them to retell the stories from the reading passages or short movies. To solve this problem, I not only asked students to retell the stories voluntarily, I also asked students who looked quiet or shy to retell the stories. In the beginning, they refused to do it because they did not have a sufficient English vocabulary. I kept encouraging them and advised them that they could code-switch to Indonesian when they did not know appropriate English words. Gradually, I found these students developed the courage to express their opinions in English.

I used classroom group assessment to find out how deep students' understanding was of the topic discussed. I asked students in groups of two to find the answers to questions pertaining to a reading passage or short movie. Once they were ready, each group would take turns answering the questions. When one group answered the first question, for example, the other group would decide whether the answer

was correct or incorrect. If all the groups agreed with the answer, the next group would go on to answer the second question, but if there was a group which disagreed with the answer, that group had to give their answer and let the other groups agree or disagree. This discussion continued until all questions had been answered correctly. I found this kind of activity increased both students' understanding of the content discussed and their oral communication skills.

Another formative assessment strategy I used was paragraph writing. This was another way I used to measure students' understanding of the topic discussed and to help them improve their writing skill. At the end of certain class sessions, I asked students to retell again what they had learned on that day in one short paragraph. Once they finished, I collected their work, analysed the content, gave feedback on any grammatical errors they had made, returned the paragraphs to the students in the following class session, and asked students to check all the comments I made so that they could take them on board in subsequent paragraph writing. I found this kind of assessment helped students' writing skills especially in developing their paragraph writing.

The last assessment I did for the students in the intervention class was to give them a post-test in the form of an Institutional-TOEFL-like test and oral test. This assessment was done at the end of programme, that is, in the 18th meeting. The purpose of this assessment was to compare students' English proficiency levels before and after they were given the intervention program.

4.5.4 Formative assessment in the non-intervention class

In the non-IC class, Harris did not use as many forms of formative assessment as I did in my intervention class. As mentioned previously, Harris undertook to teach his students in the same way as he always taught his other non-English department students. The sorts of formative assessment done in the non-intervention class were group assessment, sentence writing, and pre-test and post-test.

Harris used group assessment when the students did grammar and reading exercises in order to evaluate students' understanding of the particular grammar topic. He asked students to do the exercise in groups of two and share their

answers with other students. He also used the same assessment practice in evaluating students' understanding of a reading passage. In addition to grammar assessment, he used sentence writing to evaluate students' understanding of the related grammar topic. He asked students to write their own sentence using the pattern of grammar discussed on that day. Once students were ready, he asked volunteers to write their sentences on the white board and had the class identify grammatical problems with the sentences, and helped them correct the sentences together. The last type of formative assessment was pre-test and post-test. The pre-test, which was done in the first meeting before the students were divided into two different classes, and the post-test, which was administered at the end of the programme, were used to compare students' English proficiency levels before and after they participated in the non-intervention class.

4.5.5 Summative assessment for formal grades required by the university

As the English class involved in this study was a compulsory English subject, I followed the university rule that demanded that I provide formal grades for all students participating in this study. The final grade for each student was based on the total score of their attendance (10%), quizzes (10%), mid-term test (35%), and final semester test (45%).

Both I and Harris administered two quizzes to our students. The quiz was administered in the fifth meeting and twelfth meeting. Each of us was responsible for our own quizzes. For this reason, the types of quizzes given in the two classes were different. I constructed my own quizzes and so did Harris. In my own class, I asked students to write a paragraph retelling the topic they discussed during the fifth and twelfth meetings as their quizzes. I told them that they had to write their paragraph carefully as it was considered as quiz for formal grading purposes. In the non-intervention class, Harris gave his students a brief test containing a short reading passage with comprehension questions and grammar test.

For the mid-term test and final semester test, both I and Harris used the test materials provided by the university language institute. It was a rule of EFL teaching at the university that for the purpose of uniformity, all mid-term and final semester test materials were prepared by the university language institute as the

provider of EFL teaching at the university. The test materials for both tests were focused on grammar and reading comprehension taken from the students' English textbook.

4.6 Ethical issues

There are three ethical issues arising from this study that I would like to discuss here. The first one was related to the oral test scoring system. When I and Harris performed the oral test, we did not involve other people in analysing students' test performance in terms of fluency, complexity, accuracy. We ourselves analysed those items during the test, but only for our own students. As will be discussed in the limitations section of this thesis (see Chapter 9) it would have been better had we video-taped the oral tests for both classes and used check-marking procedures to ensure consistency between our respective marking.

The second ethical issue related to the lack of opportunities for students in the non-intervention class to gain experience of learning English through the CBI approach. A more detailed discussion of this ethical issue/dilemma can be found in Chapter 5, Section 5.6.4.

The last ethical issue related to the mid-term and final semester test which were based on the English textbook and focused on grammar and reading comprehension. I found myself feeling that this was unfair for students in the intervention class, since they did not learn grammar formally in the same ways as the non-intervention class. As will be seen in Chapter 7, students in the non-intervention class actually achieved a higher mean score of the mid-term test than those in the intervention class, suggesting that the NIC students were advantaged by Harris's English teaching, which was focused on grammar and reading comprehension. However, as will be seen, these mid-term results were reversed when it came to final, summative, semester test.

4.7 Conclusion

As discussed above, it can be seen that the students in both intervention and non-intervention classes were taught using contrasting programmes and approaches.

As the teacher of the intervention class, I designed teaching and learning activities following a theme-based instructional approach where the students were enabled to improve both their content knowledge and their English communicative skills. Harris, who taught the non-intervention class, also performed his job well, but used a traditional approach he was well trained in. He taught his class by using an approach which focused more on grammar and reading comprehension. He taught the class exactly the same way as he taught other non-English department students at the university.

Although we had tried our best to conduct teaching and learning activities as well as possible, there were certain ethical concerns that were unable to address given the constraints of the situation, such as the impossibility of providing the NIC students with the opportunity to experience learning English through a CBI approach. Sadly, there were limitations of time, available rooms, and human resources, in the latter case, the availability of another colleague who was trained to teach English through the CBI approach. Another ethical concern was that intervention class students were disadvantaged during the mid-term and semester tests because the test material was dissimilar to what they engaged with in the intervention class.

The following chapter, Chapter 5, will focus on the research design methodology applied in this study.

CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH DESIGN METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the research methods and procedures used in order to address the research questions. It begins with a discussion of the research design, research strategy and framework applied. The second section focuses on data collection procedures. The third section describes how the various datasets were analysed and how research findings from the data analysis were triangulated. The fourth section addresses issues related to the validity of the study. And finally, the last section discusses the ethical considerations operating in collecting data from the research participants.

5.2 Design: Strategy and framework

As described in Chapter 4, this study was a practitioner enquiry investigating the researcher's development and implementation of a content-based instructional approach, in this case, a theme-based instructional approach, with a view to improving EFL students' communicative skills at a tertiary education institution in Indonesia.

Doing a practitioner inquiry in this study was considered beneficial since it was a kind of research where I as an EFL lecturer investigated my own teaching practice for the purpose of improving it. The research findings I believed can contribute "knowledge about teaching and learning that is useful to teachers, policy makers, academic researchers, and teacher educators" (Coombe & Sheetz, 2015, p. 6).

Since this study involved my own classroom with consideration for easy access, understanding of the contextual factors, and the availability of the research participants, a case study was chosen as the research design in this study. As a matter of fact, case study design was deemed to be appropriate in this study. According to Creswell (2007),

> Case study research is a qualitative approach in which the
> investigator explores a bounded system (case) or multiple

bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information (for example, observations, interviews, audio-visual material, and documents and reports), and reports a case description and case-based themes. (p. 97)

From the explanation above, it can be concluded that a case study is a bounded system. Therefore, it is important to define the boundaries of a case study, "especially when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident" (Yin, 2003, p. 13). This principle applies to this case study, which was bounded in three ways: research participants, setting, and time.

This case study was focused on developing EFL students' communication skills in the context of a practitioner inquiry. The theme-based instructional approach applied in this study determined that the teaching syllabus should be a core-thematic syllabus (Järvinen, 2005). This syllabus was derived from one of the content-subjects offered in the semester, in this case, the Southeast Asian history, a content subject offered to the first year students of the History Education Study Program at Sumatran University. As a result, the participants available for this study were a particular group of students, restricted to those taking the content-subject.

This study was also bounded by setting or place. As stated above, this case study was conducted as part of the History Education Study Program, one of the study programs under the auspices of the Social Science Education Department of the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Sumatra University. Details about the research setting were explained in Chapter 4, Section 4.2.

This case study was also bounded by time. As stated in Chapter 4, Section 4.4, this study was conducted from 28 September 2009 to 6 November 2009. That period of time was the first semester for the first-year students involved in this study in the academic years 2009/2010. The reason for conducting the study within that period of time was because the syllabus of the intervention program was structured around curricular topics derived from the content subject, and both the language and content subject were to be taught in the same semester (Banegas, 2012; Satilmis, Yakup, Selim, & Aybarsha, 2015).

The degree of boundedness made it impossible to apply random sampling in this study. For this reason, convenience sampling was used. In fact, convenience sampling is relevant to be used in a case study research. It can be used in a case study or series of case studies (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2005). Cohen et al. (2005) further explained:

> Convenience sampling or as it is sometimes called, accidental or opportunity sampling involves choosing the nearest individuals to serve as respondents and continuing that process until the required sample size has been obtained or those who happen to be available and accessible at the time. (pp. 113-114)

In addition, the limited number of research participants (only one class), ease of contact and the willingness to participate in the study were the other factors that encouraged me using convenience sampling in this case study (Graves, 2008).

This study also employed a quasi-experimental design in relation to the two classes (intervention and non-intervention). As Matthews and Ross (2010) explain, this is "a research design used in situations where two or more 'naturally' different groups of participants or data can be identified, and one used as the control and the other as the experimental group" (p. 119). This research method was deemed appropriate for this case study, though I will not be applying the terms 'control' and 'intervention'. In fact, this research method is commonly used in a case study research. Gerring (2007) affirmed:

> I believe that, in those instances where case study research is warranted, the strongest methodological defence for this research design often derives from its quasi-experimental qualities. All case study research is quasi-experimental. But some case studies are more experimental than others. (p. 152)

The purpose of using a quasi-experimental method was to enable a comparison in respect of communicative skills performance between what I am terming the intervention class (IC) and the group which I am terming a non-intervention class

(NIC). For this reason, as explained in Chapter 4, the research participants, who were originally from one class, were grouped into two small classes (IC and NIC).

To divide the students into IC and NIC, stratified random sampling was applied. The purpose of using this sampling was to make the two groups as homogenous as possible in terms of their performance and gender. Cohen et al. (2005) stated: "Stratified sampling involves dividing the population into homogenous groups, each group containing subjects with similar characteristics" (p. 101). The research participants were firstly ranked based on the mean of their pre-test scores, which were a combination of the ITP-TOEFL-like and oral tests. Then, they were selected based on their performance and gender. Consequently, the two groups had similar characteristics in terms of performance and gender. Details about this procedure can be seen in Chapter 4, Section 4.3.

As explained in Chapter 4, I taught the IC students utilising the intervention programme I had developed. For the NIC students, who were not given the intervention, I ensured that the teacher teaching the class had the same qualifications as I did. Among the limited number of teachers available in the English Education Study Program, I found that Harris (pseudonym) met the criteria I set. He was a male teacher, was about the same age as me, had the same level of education as me, and had considerable experience in teaching English to non-English department students. I asked Harris' willingness to teach the NIC students through a traditional approach focusing on grammar and reading comprehension.

Finally, this study applied a mixed methods approach to the gathering of evidence. The term 'mixed method' as used here, was defined by Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (1995), as "the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study" (p. 17). At its simplest, the research data are collected and analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively. My use of mixed methods approach in this study was aimed at enhancing the validity of findings, since, findings emerging from one dataset were able to be compared and contrasted with research findings based on another dataset (Denscombe, 2007). Denscombe (2007) stated that the use of both quantitative and qualitative data becomes "a means of seeing things from alternative perspectives and, thereby,

getting a more complete overview of the subject" (p. 110). It was anticipated that the findings from these different methods would be complementary in enhancing the validity of the overall findings.

The choice of research instruments for collecting data depends on the research questions. In this study, the research instruments used for gathering quantitative data were pre-tests, post-tests and questionnaires. The instruments used for collecting qualitative data were reflective journals, video-tape recordings, interviews, and observations. After all data had been collected and analysed, findings were compared, interpreted and triangulated. The relationship of research questions to types of instruments used to collect data can be seen in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Research questions and types of instruments used

Research Question	Data Collection Instruments	
	Intervention class (IC)	Non-intervention class (NIC)
1. What are the attitudes of some EFL students of non-English departments towards current EFL teaching in the tertiary context?	Questionnaire	Questionnaire
2. Are there any differences in the intervention class EFL students' pre-test and post-test scores measuring verbal communication performance (actual and self-reported)?	Pre-test and post-test Audio-taped speaking test	Pre-test and post-test Audio-taped speaking test
3. What factors identified in a theme-based instructional program appear to contribute to an improvement in EFL students' communication skills?	Reflective journals Videotape Interview Observations	
4. Are there self-reported differences in intervention class EFL students' motivation and attitudes following the intervention program and what reasons do they offer for this improvement?	Questionnaire	

5.3 Data collection procedures

Before describing data collection procedures for this study, the epistemological assumptions underpinning the research methodology will be explained. As explained in section 5.2 above, this study used a mixed methods approach involving quantitative and qualitative methods.

As a teacher researcher who decided to trial an intervention, I viewed as desirable the collection of quantitative data in the forms of pre-test and post-test and questionnaires. The pre-test and post-test were used to ascertain "objectively" the levels of students' English language proficiency especially those in the intervention class who experienced the intervention. I also used these quantitative data to compare the English language performance between the two groups of students (IC and NIC). Through the distribution of the questionnaires only to the IC students, I sought to obtain self-reported data related to their views of their English proficiency before and after they experienced the intervention, their experience of the intervention program in terms of motivation, their sense of improvement, and their response to various activities built into the intervention. Although these questionnaires were analysed quantitatively, I saw them as basically as an instrument to obtain a window into their subjective experience of the course I had designed.

I also collected qualitative data in the forms of interviews, reflective journals, video recordings, and observations as a way of gaining insights into the students' experience of the intervention program. In analysing the data, I positioned myself as occupying an interpretivist paradigm, that is, I interpreted the evidence collected from the qualitative data instruments subjectively. Again, I was most interested in obtaining insights into these students' experience of the course. As explained by Lopez and Willis (2004), qualitative data are inevitably interpreted subjectively since researchers bring their own lenses to bear (e.g. value orientations, cultural understandings, and so on) was they make sense of these data. I had a genuine interest in the nature of students' experience during the intervention program, and brought my own discursive and cultural lenses to the analysis of the data as I attempted to make sense of it. However, I did not view this as a weakness, but rather a strength. In particular, I believe that my cultural knowledge as a Sumatran enabled me to understand where my participants were "coming from" in the ways they articulated their responses to the intervention.

As will be discussed in more detail below, there were two types of instruments used in collecting quantitative data in this study: tests (pre-test and post-test) and surveys. The use of pre-test and post-test instrumentation was intended to answer the second research question, which sought evidence for differences in the EFL students' scores measuring their verbal communication performance in both the intervention class and non-intervention class. All research participants in both classes were involved in pre-test and post-test events.

Questionnaires were also used to collect quantitative data. There were two types of questionnaires used. The first was intended to answer the first research questions that focused on investigating EFL students' attitudes toward the current implementation of the EFL teaching program run by Sumatra University. This questionnaire was given to all research participants at the beginning of the intervention program before they were grouped into intervention and non-intervention classes. The second questionnaire was given only to the intervention class at the beginning and at the end of the intervention program. This questionnaire was intended to answer the last research question focused on investigating EFL students' motivation and attitudes before and after the intervention program. As will be discussed in the limitations section of this thesis (9.5) I now believe it was a shortcoming in my research design that the questionnaire was not given to the non-intervention class.

The research instruments used for collecting qualitative data in this study were interviews, video recordings, observations and reflective journals. These were all drawn on to answer the third research question.

5.3.1 Quantitative data collection methods

Quantitative data collection methods are described in more detail below.

a. Pre-test and Post-test

As stated above, this case study also applied a quasi-experimental design where the students were allocated to IC and NIC classes. Pre-test and post-test were conducted to group students into IC and NIC, to compare the IC students' English

proficiency level before and after the intervention, and to compare the NIC students' proficiency levels without any intervention (Henn, Weinstein, & Foard, 2006). The types of tests used in the pre-test and post-test were an ITP-TOEFL-like test and an oral test. The ITP-TOEFL-like test was adapted from the Longman preparation course for the TOEFL, developed by Deborah Philips (2003). There were 140 items in the test, covering 50 items for listening comprehension, 40 items for structure and written expressions, and 50 items for reading comprehension.

The ITP-TOEFL-like test was administered only for the post-test since all respondents had taken a comparable ITP-TOEFL-like test before the academic year began. The latter was conducted by the Language Institute, an institution which is responsible for EFL teaching of non-English department students at Sumatra University. In other words, for the pre-test scores from the ITP-TOEFL-like test, I used the research participants' ITP-TOEFL-like test scores which were generated by their previous ITP-TOEFL-like test[7] held by the Language Institute of Sumatra University before the academic year 2009/2010 began.

The oral test, on the other hand, was administered before and after the intervention program. As stated above, an oral test was administered as a pre-test to determine students' levels of oral English mastery before they were grouped into intervention and non-intervention classes. The test took the form of an interview where I and my colleague Harris interviewed students on daily conversation related to their family, hometown, prospective job, unforgettable experiences, etc. I chose the interview as the oral test strategy because it was "the most common format for the testing of oral interaction" (Hughes, 2003, p. 119), even though I was aware that this kind of interview test tends to make students give brief answers. To encourage students to talk more, we avoided yes/no questions but focused more on requests for elaboration (Hughes, 2003). While the students were answering, explaining, or describing what was being requested, their performance in terms of fluency, complexity and accuracy were evaluated.

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[7] It is the rule at Sumatra University that a student can only take another ITP-TOEFL-like test after three months.

Criteria for scoring the oral test items were adapted from Wen (2006). We followed the same procedure for the oral post-test.

The oral test materials were designed by me (See Appendix 7). There were five oral test questions used in the pre-test and a further five questions used in the post-test. Students were asked to respond to the questions orally. Consequently, the questions we used were focused on topics that were easy for the students to talk about.

b. Questionnaires

Questionnaires were an important data collection method used in this study. Zoltan Dörnyei (2009) and Matthews and Ross (2010) claimed that it is the most commonly used data collection method used in social science research including second language research. The ease of its construction and the ease of its data analysis using computer programs such as SPSS or Microsoft Excel make it the preferred method of quantitative data collection (Zoltan Dörnyei, 2009). For such reasons, questionnaires were a method of data collection in this study.

I used it to collect data regarding students' attitudes toward the EFL teaching program that was running. This questionnaire was distributed to all students before they were grouped into IC and NIC. Another type of questionnaire, distributed to the IC students only, was used to collect self-report data regarding their English proficiency and motivation to learn English before and after they experienced the intervention.

To deliver and collect the questionnaires, a group-administered questionnaire was used, as this method was considered to be the most appropriate one. It was anticipated that the response rate would be higher than a mail survey or household drop-off survey. According to Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003), groups of respondents are "often assembled specifically for the purpose of assisting with the research and the respondents feel personally involved with the work by being handed the questionnaire by a member of the research team" (p. 10). Consequently, I and Harris distributed the questionnaire sheets to the participants, asked them to answer all the questions, clarified any queries that had, and asked them to hand them back to us when finished.

The types of questions used in each questionnaire were different. The first questionnaire, which was administered to all students before they were divided into IC and NIC groups, collected information about students' EFL learning experiences and attitudes toward the current implementation of EFL teaching at the university. In order to collect data covering a broad range of subjects, subtly different questions and approaches were used to access the information needed (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). For this reason, this questionnaire used closed questions, multiple-choice questions and a scale question. There were six multiple choice questions, three yes/no questions and one scale question in the first section of the first questionnaire. In the second section of the first questionnaire, there were six multiple choice questions, eight yes/no questions, and one scale question. See Appendix 5 for details.

In contrast, the second questionnaire, which was administered only for the IC students before and after the intervention program, used only scale items. Scale items were used because of the information required was in the form of students' self-reports on their English proficiency and motivation levels for learning English. The use of scales enabled "transferring these qualities into a quantitative measure for data analysis purposes" (Boone & Boone, 2012, p. 1). The first section of the questionnaire, which asked students to self-report their levels of English proficiency used a frequency scale from 'always' to 'never' while the second section of the questionnaire, which asked students to self-report their levels of motivation before and after the intervention, used Likert-scale questions. The students were provided with "a scale of possible responses [in my case 5] to the question – ranging from the attitude measure 'strongly agree' to the exact opposite measure of 'strongly disagree'" (Tsai & Shang, 2010, p. 12). See Appendix 6 for details. Unfortunately, I did not distribute this questionnaire to the NIC students, which I now acknowledge to be a limitation of this study.

5.3.2 Qualitative data collection methods

The qualitative data instruments used in this study included interviews, video recordings, observations and reflective journals. These research instruments were given only to students in the intervention class, since these were the qualitative data instruments intended to answer my third research question, which aimed to

identify factors in a theme-based instructional program that appear to contribute to an improvement in EFL students' communication skills.

a. Interviews

The interviews, which were conducted with the students in the intervention class only, sought to obtain in-depth information on what students thought about the course, what they liked and what they did not like, what they thought about the use of a theme-based instructional approach in EFL teaching, which activities in the program they liked best, factors that made them confident in speaking, positive and negative aspects of learning in that way, and so on. As Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003) state: "While other instruments focus on the surface elements of what is happening, interviews give the researcher more of an insight into the meaning and significance of what is happening" (p. 44). By means of these interviews, I hoped that more detailed information might be gathered about their perceptions.

The interviews were conducted after the intervention program concluded. Volunteer participants were interviewed to obtain an in-depth understanding of their experiences during the intervention. Each interview took about fifteen to twenty minutes. Eleven of the seventeen students in the intervention class were interviewed, six male and five female students. They were selected solely based on their willingness to be interviewed. To encourage participants to be interviewed, I distributed letters of invitation to all students in the intervention class, asking them for their preferences in respect of a convenient time (See Appendix 4).

The interviews also aimed to elicit detailed information on the effects of the theme-based instructional approach in improving these students' communicative skills. I knew this aim would only be achieved if the conversations with students were conducted at a suitable time and built on trusting relationships − "the forms of talking one finds among close friends" (Johnson, 2001, p. 104). The types of questions used in the interviews were open-ended. This is in line with what Legard, Keegan and Ward (2003) stated, that "certainly, in-depth interviewing

does not involve a series of yes/no questions, and researchers have to work hard to ask questions which encourage a fulsome response" (p. 153).

The interview session with the participants explored in an open-ended way what the participants believed they had learned and gained from a range of CBI activities. The medium used was Indonesian language, and the interviews were audio-taped in order to get a detailed and accurate account of what participants experienced and felt before, during, and after the intervention program. The use of note-taking was avoided since it would change the form of the data (Legard et al., 2003). The recorded interviews were transcribed and the transcripts were sent to the interviewees confidentially for confirmation and, if necessary, correction/amendment. The questions asked during the interviews are listed in Appendix 8.

For a range of reasons, I had to conduct the interviews myself which on reflection indicates another limitation on this study. I would have preferred to have had another colleague do the interviews but problems of unavailability forced me to assume that role. Our English Education Study Program was short of teaching staff. Five lecturers (including me) of the seventeen teaching staff were pursuing doctoral study. Consequently, other staff had to take over teaching their colleagues' papers. I was not in a position to ask other teaching staff from another study program or department. I was concerned that they would not have a good grasp of the study objectives and of the information to be collected. To reduce bias, then, I tried to control the halo effect, where "interviewees pick up cues from the researcher related to what they think the researcher wants them to say, thus potentially influencing their responses" (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 174) by creating an honest and candid atmosphere. I ensured that participants knew that the interviews were done solely to obtain information useful in improving EFL teaching in the university. In addition, I used the semi-structured interview format to allow participants to describe their experiences freely, and to prepare for unanticipated issues to be raised (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007).

b. Video recordings

In order to capture aspects of the teaching and learning episodes than made up the intervention, a video camera was used. As a teacher-researcher, I did not have much time to take extensive field notes of related to the events happening in the class. With video recording, I could observe events that I may have missed completely. Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003) stated: "Doing this [video recording] will provide you with a recording of those people in their natural setting, going about their daily business, interacting with one another, and saying and doing a variety of things" (p. 144). In addition, I viewed the data from the video recordings as helping me to reflect on and analyse the strengths and weaknesses of my programme in greater depth. I could also involve colleagues in watching the recordings and sharing their ideas and opinions with me regarding the what was happening in the intervention class (Mackey & Gass, 2005)

I recorded the implementation of five learning activities in the intervention EFL class, the use of teaching media and retelling (2x), role-playing (1x), and class presentations (2x). I recorded the learning activities where short movies were used as teaching media for the purpose of studying students' responses, especially evidence of their engagement when the teaching media were used in language learning. I also wanted to view and reflect on the levels of students' difficulties in retelling the story from a reading passage with or without the help of short movies as the teaching media. I recorded the role-playing in order to ascertain students' understanding of the history of the arrival of Europeans in the Philippines, how they assumed the characters of the people involved in the story, and how they role-played them in class. Most importantly, I wanted to obtain a sense of how engaged the students were during the learning activities. Class presentations were recorded for the purpose of observing students' speaking skills, especially their ability to deliver content material and answer questions orally. Information gained from the video recordings was also used as prompts to help me remember what happened during the teaching and learning process.

c. Observations

Observation was another instrument for collecting qualitative data in this study. Bogdan (1972 cited in Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003), defined the term *observation* as a research method characterised by "a prolonged period of intense

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social interaction between the researcher and the subjects, in the milieu of the latter, during which time data, in the forms of field notes, are unobtrusively and systematically collected" (p. 116). Creswell (2002) stated that "observation is the process of gathering first-hand information by observing people and places at a research site" (p. 199). Observation can be done in the form of audio and video recordings and field notes. Abbuhl and Mackey (2008) explained:

> Field notes record the researcher's impression or questions
> during the observation. Audio or visual recordings allow
> researchers to revise and refine their original thoughts, to
> analyse language use in greater depth, and to make the research
> available to other researchers who may want to examine or
> analyse the data. (p. 3307)

I used observations to record any important events that drew my attention during the teaching and learning activities. The observations in this study were also conducted in the forms of video recordings and field notes. It was impossible for me to conduct observations in a comprehensive manner. For this reason, I involved two colleagues, Wati and Lina (pseudonyms) to help me.

As teacher-researcher, I acted as a participant observer conducting the intervention and collecting data at the same time. Being a participant observer gave me an opportunity to both understand the teaching and learning process using a theme-based instructional approach, and to reflect on participants' experiences as affected by the approach. Patton (1990 cited in Agyepong & Adjei, 2008) explained the benefits of being a participant observer as follows:

> Experiencing the program as an insider is what necessitates the
> participant part of participant observation. At the same time,
> however, there is clearly an observation side to this process.
> The challenge is to combine participant and observation so as to
> become capable of understanding the program as an insider
> while describing the program for outsiders. (p.153)

In making observations as a participant researcher, I observed and wrote down in my reflective journal any important events I observed during the fourteen

meetings that constituted my teaching programme. Reflective journaling is further explained under the sub-section of *Reflective journal* below.

Wati and Lina acted as non-participant researchers. They observed and recorded or took notes of certain observed activities (Seliger & Shohamy, 2001). Wati carried out direct observation of the teaching and learning process. She recorded the events happening in the class on observation sheets in terms of four categories. These were: (1) interesting events happening in the class; (2) important events happening when students were doing certain learning activities; (3) students' performance in terms of speaking, apparent engagement, and confidence: (4) and problems students faced during the teaching and learning activities. Another colleague, Lina, carried out observations indirectly by watching the six video recordings. She used the same observation sheets (See Appendix 11) as Wati. Through professional dialogue, we discussed how to conduct the observation and what aspects of teaching and learning activities to observe. Based on the dialogue we had, I was confident that both observers were competent in respect of their ability to conduct the planned observations, and were willing to respect participants' confidentiality.

d. Reflective journal

Wellington (2000) defines a reflective journal as an "annotated chronological record or a 'log' of experiences and events" (p. 118). Reflective journals in research are beneficial because they provide additional evidence to enable the investigation of participants' subjective experience of or response to an event (S. Borg, 2001; Goodson & Sikes, 2001). From his experience during a study of language teaching, Borg (2001) claimed that journal writing can make a "significant contribution… to deepening researchers' understanding of all facets of the research processes" (p. 156). Goodson and Sikes (2001) shared a similar idea about the benefits of reflective journals:

> Not only is a document of this kind useful for providing factual
> information, it can also help with analysis and interpretation, in
> that it can jog memory and indicate patterns and trends which
> might have been lost if confined to the mind. (p. 32)

Using a reflective journal, I was able to evaluate participants' experiences and record thoughts, observations, feelings and ideas that came up during the data collection period. Subsequently, these assisted my making generalizations about the impact of the intervention once the project had ended.

The research participants in the intervention class were also asked to write their personal responses to various aspects of the programme I delivered. They were provided with reflective journal sheets that they could fill in to express their responses. When the teaching and learning activities were over, all students in the intervention class were asked to record their experiences in their journals. I designed the reflective journal sheets both for me and students. The sheets, particularly those for students, were accompanied by guided questions and statements to help them reflect on whatever they experienced and felt before, during and after the teaching and learning activities (See Appendix 10).

5.4 Data Analysis procedures

As this study employed a mixed-method design, two broad approaches (quantitative and qualitative) were used in analysing the research data. The quantitative data were the results of the pre- and post-tests and questionnaires, while the qualitative data were interview transcriptions, video-recordings, observation sheets and reflective journals. The procedures for analysing those data are described in the following sections.

5.4.1 Quantitative data analysis methods

The quantitative data collected from pre- and post-tests and questionnaires were analysed using a computer statistics program, PASW Statistics 18. All data from the tests and questionnaires were coded before they were processed by the program. The research findings and discussion deriving from these quantitative data analyses will be reported in Chapters 6 and 7.

a. Pre-test and post-test

As stated in Section 5.3.1 above, there were two types of tests used as pre- and post-tests, an ITP-TOEFL-like test and an oral test. Since TOEFL scores and oral test scores were recorded in two different formats, they had to be converted into a similar format before they were combined. The ITP-TOEFL-like scores used a score format ranging from 216 to 677, while the oral test score used a standard score format ranging from 1 to 10. In converting the TOEFL scores into a standard score format, two types of standard scores were used, z scores and T scores.

Students' z scores were calculated by subtracting the mean score from each student's score and the result divided by the standard deviation for the test (Brown, 1990). The formula is as follows:

$$z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}$$

z = z-score
x = raw score to be standardized
μ = mean
σ = standard deviation
Z scores were converted into T scores using the following formula.

$$T = 10(z) + 50$$

$T = T$ scores

z = z scores

Once all students' z scores were obtained, they were combined with students' oral test scores. Finally, the total of the two scores was divided by ten. The resulting scores were the pre-test scores. The same procedures were also applied to calculate the post-test scores.

The null hypothesis adopted in analysing the pre-test and post-test scores from the two groups was that there would be no difference in EFL proficiency between the two groups. To test the null hypothesis, the pre-test scores and post-test scores were analysed quantitatively using a computer statistics program, PASW Statistics 18. Two types of t-tests were used, a dependent (paired) sample t-test

and an independent sample *t*-test. The paired *t*-test was used to compare the means of pre-test and post-test results of students in the intervention class. Brown (1988) explains that in a situation where both sets of scores belong to the same group, a *t*-test for paired means can be used. Conversely, the independent *t*-test was used to compare the means of post-test results of students in the intervention and non-intervention classes. Coakes, Steed, & Price (2008) claimed:

> The independent-groups t-test is appropriate when different participants have performed in each of the different conditions; in other words, when the participants in one condition are different from the participants in the other condition. This is commonly referred to as a between subjects design. (p. 67)

The results of the two *t*-tests would indicate whether the students in the intervention class performed better than those in the non-intervention class.

b. Questionnaires

The two questionnaires used in this study, as explained in sub-section 5.3.1, were aimed at collecting information about (1) EFL students' learning experience and their attitudes toward the current implementation of EFL teaching at the university, and (2) the self-reported views of their English mastery and motivation levels toward English before and after the treatment program using scaled Likert items. Questionnaire data were analysed quantitatively using the same computer program as for pre- and post-test data analysis.

The data analysis of the first questionnaire focused on percentages. By identifying percentage trends, EFL students' learning experiences and their attitudes toward the current implementation of EFL teaching at Sumatra University could be ascertained. The other questionnaire, which compared students' English self-reported competence data and their motivation levels in learning English before and after the treatment, was analysed using a paired *t*-test. I anticipated that results of the paired *t*-test would provide evidence, albeit self-reported, indicating whether there had been improvement in certain English language competences and levels of motivation in students in the intervention class as a result of the

intervention. In other words, it was designed to test the null hypothesis that there would be no difference in students' English proficiency and their levels of motivation and attitudes in learning English before and after the intervention.

5.4.2 Qualitative data analysis methods

Thematic analysis was used to analyse the qualitative data collected in this study. Daly, Kellehear and Gliksman (1997 cited in Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006), describe thematic analysis as "a search of themes that emerge as being important to the description of the phenomenon" (p. 82). Braun and Clarke (2006) stated that: "Thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data" (p. 79). According to Braun and Clarke (2006), there are six phases of thematic analysis. These phases were utilised in my own study.

Table 2: Phases of thematic analysis

No	Phase	Descriptions
1	Familiarise with data	Transcribing data (if necessary), reading and re-reading the data, noting down initial ideas.
2	Generate initial codes	Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each code.
3	Search for themes	Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.
4	Review themes	Checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts (Level 1) and the entire data set (Level 2), generating a thematic 'map' of the analysis.
5	Define and name themes	Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme.
6	Produce the report	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis

(Adapted from Braun & Clarke, 2006)

The above phases characterised my analysis of the data from interviews, observation notes, video recordings and reflective journals. The approach applied in identifying themes derived from those data was an inductive or data-driven approach, that is, the themes identified were "strongly linked to the data themselves" (Patton, 1990 cited in Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 84). As Braun and Clarke (2006) explained, an inductive analysis is "a process of coding the data without trying to fit it into a pre-existing coding frame, or the researcher's analytic

preconceptions" (p. 83). This inductive approach aimed to answer the third research question of the study, "What factors identified in a theme-based instructional program appear to contribute to an improvement in EFL students' communication skills?" Below are some samples of my coding procedures. The superscript numbers in the left-hand column align with the numbered codes in the right-hand column. Findings from these qualitative data analyses will be described in Chapter 8 of this thesis.

[1]Uhhh…it's hard to say. Although I have a lot of ideas in my mind but it's hard to express them in English. I could not express them because I was afraid my expression would be wrongly interpreted. [2]I had very limited vocabulary.	1. Lack of confidence in speaking English 2. Low vocabulary
Like yesterday, we had a video about Mallaca. At the end of watching the video, we were encouraged to retell the story in our own words. [3]Witnessing what happened ourselves through the movies, I found it easy to recall what I had seen in the video and express them orally in my own words.	3. Improvement in English speaking because of the use of teaching media.
In the beginning, I found myself bored when I knew that most of the topics discussed in this lecture were about history. Although I am a student of History Education Department, my knowledge about history is very little. [4]But the more I joined this class, the better I found my English. I found my knowledge about history developed as I watch the movies. [5]I like watching than reading. I also like to learn grammar. These all motivated me to learn English more in this lecture.	4. Feeling of improvement in both English and content 5. Feeling of motivation improvement

5.4.3 Triangulation

As stated in Section 4.1, this study employed a mixed methods approach as its research paradigm, leading to findings based on both quantitative and qualitative data. Findings from various data sets were subsequently triangulated. In this case, the type of triangulation used was methodological triangulation. Methodological triangulation, as explained by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007), is the use of "either the same method on different occasions, or different methods on the same object of study" (p. 142). In this study, two research methods, quantitative and qualitative, were used on the same object of study. This methodological triangulation allowed for the utilisation of two methods concurrently so that they could complement each other and enhance the overall validity of the findings. In this study, triangulation was achieved by comparing research findings resulting from the two research methods and relating them to the aims and objectives of the study.

5.5 Validity

Validity plays an important role in determining whether research findings are to be trusted. Cohen et al. (2005) stated: "Validity is an important key to effective research. If a piece of research is invalid then it is worthless. Validity is thus a requirement for both quantitative and qualitative/naturalistic research" (p. 105). This study design took into account issues of validity, especially internal validity, in order to ensure that a case could be made that changes in the dependent variable were attributable, at least in part, to the independent variable, i.e. whether changes in students' motivation levels in learning English and improvements in their English test scores were plausibly attributable to aspects of the intervention.

5.5.1 Internal validity

"Internal validity refers to the extent to which the claim of the changes in the independent variable causing changes in the dependent variable is accurate" (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009, pp. 105-106). Therefore, to maximise the warrant for a claim of internal validity in this study, a number of internal validity threats were controlled for, namely history, maturation, testing, and instrumentation.

The characteristics of these threats must be known in order to attempt to ensure internal validity. Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009) explained that history is any historical event, not related to the independent variable, experienced by the participants that have the potential to influence study results. Maturation, for example, is a situation where participants experience changes in their "ability, physical strengths, vision, and intellectual growth or decline" (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009, p. 148) that may impact on study results. Testing refers to the improvement in study test data, for example, post-test scores, which may or may not be attributable to the intervention. For example, a test improvement may be attributable to improved skill in knowing *how* to perform in a particular type of test. Instrumentation refers to improvements in the study test data which are

caused by the changes in the measure (survey or performance measure) used, not the intervention proper (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009).

The history threat to internal validity was not relevant to this study. To the best of my knowledge, it was most unlikely that events occurred that would have affected participating students. Moreover, the time lapse between pre-test and post-test was quite short – around six weeks. The maturation threat did not exist either. Wallen and Fraenkel (1991) stated: "Maturation is a serious threat in studies which use only pre-test and post-test data for the intervention group, or in studies which span a number of years" (p. 174). Such a threat did not apply to this study because of the short time lapse between pre-test and post-test. In addition, this study used a survey as well as the pre-test and post-test. I was confident that these measures would reduce the possibility of this threat arising. In relation to testing, although I used the same material for surveys measuring participants' motivation before and after the intervention, I tried to lessen the testing threat to internal validity by using different testing materials for pre-test and post-test. Although the two sets of testing materials were different, they were equivalent in terms of their levels of difficulty (Rubin & Babbie, 2009). Finally, the instrument threat, was safeguarded against in this study. I anticipated this threat by using standard and valid test material for the ITP-TOEFL-like test used for pre-test and post-test measures. They were the ones used by the Sumatra University Language Institute to test undergraduate and postgraduate students' English proficiency before they were accepted as students at the university. In scoring the ITP-TOEFL-like test results, I used the scoring system provided by the Longman preparation course for TOEFL written by Philips (2003). I used different test materials for oral tests used in pre-test and post-test. In analysing the oral test results, I and Harris, the teacher at the NIC, used Wen's criteria for oral testing (Wen, 2006). By controlling these internal validity threats that might arise in this study, I hoped that internal validity would be enhanced if not ensured.

5.5.2 External validity

Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009) stated that: "External validity refers to the extent to which the findings from one investigation will generalise to other samples, populations, or settings" (p. 106). In a simple example proposed by Yin

(2003, p. 37), external validity exists if, in a study of neighbourhood change situated in one neighbourhood, the results are applicable to another neighbourhood. Such an explanation stresses that in order to maintain external validity, a study must show that its findings can be generalised or are applicable to other samples or populations. If it cannot, there must be threats to its external validity.

Establishing external validity was a challenge in my investigation since it was a single case study with a single case. As Yin (2003) explained: "The external validity problem has been a major barrier in doing case studies. Critics typically state that single cases offer a poor basis for generalizing" (p. 37). The lack of external validity in case study research is further explained by De Vaus (2003) as follows:

> While case studies may achieve excellent internal validity by providing a profound understanding of a case, they have been widely criticized as lacking external validity. A profound understanding of a case, it is argued, provides no basis for generalizing to a wider population beyond that case. A case is just that – a case – and cannot be representative of a larger universe of cases. (p. 237)

Having said that, there are two types of generalisations – statistical and theoretical – that can be used in order to argue a case for external validity (De Vaus, 2003). The study's findings, resulting from a single case study, cannot be generalised to a broader population on the basis of statistical considerations. However, a case can be made that they can be generalised via theoretical considerations. "Rather than asking what a study tells us about the wider population (statistical generalization), we ask 'What does this case tell us about the specific theory (or theoretical proposition)?'" (De Vaus, 2003, p. 237).

From De Vaus' (2003) explanation above, it is apparent that the way to generalise findings from a case study is to focus on their illuminative value in terms of a theoretical claim, in this case, that CBI has the potential to enhance student motivation and performance in the EFL setting. A case study can be used to argue

that a theory which has been applied successfully in one situation might well be applied successfully in another. Such an argument will be mounted in the concluding chapter of this thesis.

My own case study was based on the core principle of CBI that "People learn a second language more successfully when they use the language as a mean of acquiring information, rather than as an end in itself" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 207). Research studies on CBI, especially those conducted in EFL contexts in Southeast Asia such as Ngan (2011) from Vietnam and Suwannoppharat and Kaewsa-ard (2014) from Thailand, have showed that the use of theme-based instructional approach improved EFL students' communication skills. I set out to investigate whether a theme-based instructional approach could also improve EFL students' communication skills in the Indonesian context, which is another context of EFL teaching.

5.6 Ethical issues

As this study involved research participants as the object of investigation, ethical guidelines and regulations set out by the University of Waikato were strictly adhered to. However, ethics is not just about following ethical guidelines and regulations, but is also being "aware and sensitive to the ethical issues involved in the proposed project and to think about them during the planning stage of the project" (Punch, 2001, p. 282). I viewed this awareness and sensitivity as important in avoiding a detrimental impact on the research participants involved. Ethical issues included access to participants, informed consent, confidentiality, anonymity, potential harm, the right to decline to participate and to withdraw, and rights to know about program activities.

5.6.1 Access to participants

As this research involved students from the History Education Study Program of the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Sumatra University in Indonesia, official permission was sought to undertake this research from the Dean of the Faculty. I initially contacted the Head of the Study Program, who assigned students taking the English subject prior to the commencement of the research

(see Appendix 1). Subsequently, the Dean was sent a formal letter requesting permission and informing him of the nature of the study. Access to the participants was requested in writing, and agreement from the participants was also sought in written form.

5.6.2 Informed consent

At the first meeting with the participants, they were briefed on the aims and procedures of the research. The participants were also informed of the benefits and risks of involving themselves in this research. A covering letter stating the nature of the study (see Appendix 2) was provided together with the consent form (see Appendix 3). The consent form informed participants of the procedures they would be involved in, the protections that were in place for their own security, interests and confidentiality, and their entitlements in terms of withdrawing their participation.

Participants were also informed that the sessions would be videotaped and the interview sessions would be audio-taped. The participants were asked to sign a consent form stating their willingness to take part in this study. Voluntary participation was requested for the intervention, as well as the interview sessions. If the participants did not wish to be involved in the study, they could move to another class on the same subject (as non-research subjects) without their interests being affected. This entitlement was spelled out in the consent form.

5.6.3 Confidentiality

Students' confidentiality was protected and they were assured of this in the consent form. Students' confidentiality was maximised as the participants were assured that their identity would not be revealed or reported in written form. The information on individual participants was kept anonymous, and pseudonyms would be used when they were referred to in the thesis itself or in the context of conference presentations and journal writing.

5.6.4 Potential harm to participants

Since this was a 6-week intervention study that was developed by the teacher-researcher, classroom activity was not disrupted. Interview sessions were done outside class time, depending on the availability of the participants.

There were some potential risks that constituted a threat to the research. The first potential risk was that the participants were divided into two groups, intervention and non-intervention. Since the two groups were derived from the same class, the teaching and learning process for the two groups were scheduled at the same time. Availability of rooms became a problem because in the academic year 2009/2010, English was scheduled in the even semester, not in the odd semester as had occurred in the previous three academic years. Although English was finally returned to the odd semester for the sake of my Ph.D. research, there was no room reserved for the subject. This condition had the potential to threaten the effectiveness of this study since without the availability of two rooms, this study would not have been able to proceed. The students would be disadvantaged because they had added the second semester subject in their registration for first semester papers. To solve the problem, I asked the Head of History Education Study Program to ensure the availability of rooms for the two classes before the teaching activities in the academic year commenced. After consulting with the Vice-Dean for Academic Affair, two rooms were reserved for my research for a limited time only. I was able to use two rooms which were reserved for the seventh-semester students who were doing teaching practice at high school. The two rooms were available for my research classes from Monday, 28 September to Friday, 6 November 2009. By Monday, 9 November 2009, the two rooms had become occupied by the seventh-semester students who returned from their teaching practice. Within the designated period of time provided to us, my colleague Harris and I were able to teach a maximum of fourteen sessions, excluding the introduction session, mid-term test, and final semester test sessions.

The second potential risk seen as a threat was the grading system that I was obliged to use with my students. As this class was also a university subject, participants were graded according to the standard specified by the Department. Indeed, not to do so would be detrimental to the interests of participants. However,

because this research was about using process strategies to enhance learning, it was predicted that the impact on grades, if any, would be to the students' benefit.

The next potential harm to research participants was the teacher factor. As the two classes (IC and NIC) were taught by two different lecturers, the differing quality of the teachers was a potential threat. Rowe (2003) argued that teacher quality affects "students' experiences and outcomes of schooling" (p. 2). Had the NIC students been taught by me, their performance might have improved significantly (or not) by virtue of this factor. To minimise this threat, I chose a colleague from my own department to help teach the non-intervention class. Since my colleague was of the same gender, and had the same educational background of a Masters degree in Applied Linguistics, and the same length of teaching experience with non-English department students, I felt confident that he was a qualified lecturer for these NIC students, albeit using a traditional approach in his teaching of them.

The last potential threat in terms of potential harm related to the non-intervention class students. Since they were taught using a standard, typical EFL teaching program, it might be argued that they were disadvantaged relative to their classmates in the intervention class. This threat was beyond my control, however, because soon after the end of the research program, there was no room available for me to teach English through a theme-based instructional approach to the non-intervention group. The rooms used during the research were not available anymore. As mentioned above, they were reserved for content subjects offered for the seventh-semester students. In short, I could not teach the NIC students at the same time nor after the intervention program. I had no opportunity to train my colleague to teach using the CBI approach, even were he willing for this to happen. As it eventuated, I utilised the opportunity provided by this potential harm to treat the NIC class as a kind of control class in this study.

5.6.5 The right to decline to participate and the right to withdraw

In this study, each participant had the right to decline to participate before the research was conducted. If they were already involved in the intervention and felt that they were at risk, they were permitted to withdraw before the fourth week of

the semester. This was the standard procedure for withdrawing from subjects at Sumatra University. If students needed to withdraw, they could inform me of their decision, and the Coordinator of the EFL teaching program for non-English departments would move them to an English class that was not being used for research purposes. This could be done between the second and third week of the semester. As specified by the university regulations, students were not allowed to change sections or to withdraw from subjects after the fourth week of the semester. In accordance with this procedure, after the fourth week, participants were unable to withdraw from the intervention program.

5.6.6 The right to know about intervention program activities

Participants were invited to participate in the intervention program using a content-based instructional approach throughout the 6-week program. They were told that there were three phases of CBI activities to be used in the intervention program. The intervention started by developing students' basic communication skills through listening comprehension, video comprehension, and reading comprehension. This phase was aimed at developing students' receptive skills. The next phase was focused on developing students' communication skills in writing. Students learned about grammatical structures and paragraph writing formats. The final phase was focused on developing students' communication skills in speaking through role-plays, debates and oral presentations.

Later chapters will explain how the collected data were analysed and how the findings were triangulated. Chapter 6 will focus on the analysis of quantitative data to answer the first research question, Chapter 7 will focus further analyses of quantitative data to address the second and fourth research questions, Chapter 8 will focus on the analysis of qualitative data to address the third and fourth research questions, and Chapter 9 will report on how the findings from both quantitative and qualitative analyses were triangulated.

CHAPTER SIX: STUDENTS' EFL PROFICIENCY, PREVIOUS EFL LEARNING EXPERIENCE AND ATTITUDES TOWARD THE CURRENT EFL TEACHING PROGRAM

6.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses findings from the pre-test and a questionnaire given to all students involved in this study. It focuses specifically on answering the first research question, "What are the attitudes of some EFL students of non-English departments towards current EFL teaching in the tertiary context?"

Two research instruments were used to answer the research question, the pre-test and questionnaire. As the pre-test collected information on students' English proficiency before the intervention program and the questionnaire collected information about students' EFL learning experience and their attitudes toward the current implementation of EFL teaching at a tertiary education in Indonesia, this chapter focuses on three topics: students' English proficiency before the intervention program; their previous English learning experiences; and their attitudes toward the current EFL teaching program offered by the university. Section 6.2 will focus on findings from the pre-test; Section 6.3 will focus on findings from the first section of the questionnaire; and Section 6.4 will focus on findings from the second section of the questionnaire, which were mainly used to answer the first research question. Findings from the pre-test and the first section of the questionnaire will provide background information to support findings or give additional information related to main findings from the second section of the questionnaire.

6.2 Students' EFL proficiency before the intervention program

All students involved in this study were given both a pre-test and post-test. The pre-test was given to determine their English proficiency level before participating in the EFL teaching programs, i.e. the intervention program for the IC students and the non-intervention program for the NIC students. It was also used as the basis to allocate the students to two classes, the intervention class (IC) and the

non-intervention class (NIC) so that they were as similar as possible in terms of their English proficiency and gender. The post-test was given to students in both classes. For the students in the IC, the post-test was used to determine their English achievement after the intervention program with a theme-based instructional approach, while for the students in the NIC, it was used to determine their achievement after the non-intervention program with a traditional grammatical approach. Both the pre-test and post-test consisted of two types of tests, the ITP-TOEFL-like test, a standard English proficiency test (Britt, 2009), and an oral test (see Chapter 4, Section 4.3).

The procedures used to allocate students to the intervention class and non-intervention class followed the procedures described in detail in Chapter 4, Section 4.3. Following those procedures, nineteen students were placed in the intervention class and eighteen students were placed in the non-intervention class. But during the first two weeks of the teaching program, two students in the intervention class dropped out. As a result, there were seventeen students in the intervention class and eighteen students in the non- intervention class. Table 3 below shows the range of scores and distribution of genders in the two groups.

Table 3: Composition of intervention class and non- intervention class

	Average Pre-test Score Range				Male students	Female students	Total number
	2.0-2.99	3.0-3.99	4.0-4.99	5.0-5.99			
Intervention class (IC)	0	7	8	2	6	11	17
Non-intervention class (NIC)	1	7	10	0	6	12	18

Students' levels of English proficiency were identified by comparing their ITP-TOEFL-like test scores with the Vancouver English Centre (VEC)'s English language test score conversion table (see Appendix 13). The VEC's language test score conversion table was used to determine students' language proficiency level (CEFR) based on their TOEFL-like-test scores. This table was chosen because it provided a list of some international English proficiency test scores (TOEIC, ITP-TOEFL, TOEFL CBT, TOEFL IBT, and IELTS), their equivalent conversions, and students' approximate proficiency levels (CEFR). Another reason for its use was that it was published online by an accredited learning centre, The Vancouver English Centre. I was convinced that the conversion scores were a valid means of

converting students' ITP-TOEFL test scores into their CEFR levels. Since the ITP-TOEFL-like test was used in this study, the conversion of students' scores into their CEFR levels was viewed as an approximation.

Table 4: ITP-TOEFL-like test scores

Score	0-310	310-343	347-393	397-433
Number of students	0	12	24	1

Of the 37 students' ITP-TOEFL-like test scores, there were 12 students (32.43%) whose scores were between 310 and 343, 24 students (64.86%) whose scores were between 347 and 393, and 1 student (2.7%) whose score was over 400, that is, 410. The percentages showed that there were a large proportion of students' ITP-TOEFL-like test scores between 347 and 393. When those scores were converted into the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages) in the VEC's score conversion table, it was found that the level of students' language proficiency was categorised as A1, the lowest level of CEFR levels. According to the *Introductory guide to the CEFR for English language teachers* (2013), students at an A1 level are those who:

> Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very
> basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete
> type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and
> answer questions about personal details such as where he/she
> lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in
> a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly
> and is prepared to help. (p. 5)

Regarding students' oral test scores, although the scores could not be used to determine the level of students' English proficiency, the explanations accompanying the scores suggest that most students' oral English proficiency was around the A1 level as well (see Table 5 below).

Table 5: Oral test scores

Test components	Fluency			Complexity			Accuracy		
Score	1-2	3-4	5-6	1-2	3-4	5-6	1-2	3-4	5-6
Number of students	1	22	14	1	22	14	0	20	17

Based on students' oral test scores in relation to the criteria for the oral test adapted from Wen (2006) (See Appendix 12), in terms of fluency, 14 students (37.84%) achieved scores of 5 and 6, which means that they were able to express prepared answers and get ideas across quickly; but they were hesitant and brief for unprepared questions. Meanwhile, 22 students (59.46%) achieved scores of 3 and 4, which meant that they were able to use a few words to answer unprepared questions, but were hesitant to express longer utterances even in short turns. One student (2.7%) got scores of 1 and 2, which meant that his/her speech was halting, fragmentary and incoherent. He/she would be categorised as unable to communicate for unprepared questions.

In terms of complexity, 14 students (37.84%) got scores of 5 and 6, which suggests that they were able to combine two or more phrases or comprehensible sentences. Meanwhile, 22 students (59.46%) got scores of 3 and 4, indicating that they were able to use words in some common phrases – even simple sentences. 1 student (2.7%), managed scores of 1 and 2, which meant that he/she was able to use single words only.

Finally, in terms of accuracy, 17 students (45.95%) got scores of 5 and 6, which suggested that they were able to use some grammatical concepts correctly (basically correct sentence patterns but unstable grammatical usage). Meanwhile, 20 students (54.05%) got scores of 3 and 4, indicating that they persisted in making errors in their sentences. They had some awareness of grammatical concepts but their mother tongue accent affected them in pronouncing English words correctly.

Altogether, these oral test findings showed that over half of the students' oral test scores ranged from 3 to 4. Based on Wen's (2006) score criteria for the oral test,

the students' oral scores, which were between 3 and 4, were categorised as at a low level. This low level, when compared with the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages), could be assumed as at an A1 level, which is the lowest level of CEFR levels (Introductory guide to the CEFR for English language teachers, 2013).

6.3 Students' previous EFL learning experience

The data regarding students' previous EFL learning experience were obtained from a questionnaire given to all students participating in this study (See Appendix 5). The first section of the questionnaire was focused on collecting information regarding students' EFL learning experience. There were fourteen items in this section. During the analysis phase, these 14 items were grouped into seven categories, that is, length of EFL learning at schools, need for additional English outside schools, EFL teaching focus at schools, teaching techniques and media used in EFL teaching, English resources used by students, students' motivation in learning English at schools and students' levels of English proficiency. Each of these categories is expanded upon below.

6.3.1 Length of EFL learning at school

Table 6: Length of EFL learning at school

Number of years	6 years	9 years	More than 9 years
Number of students	9	17	11

Based on an analysis of the first category, length of EFL learning at schools, 9 students (24.32%) reported that they spent six years of learning English; 17 students (45.95%) revealed that they spent nine years of learning English; and 11 students (29.73) explained that they spent more than nine years of learning English.

The results indicate that nearly half of the students spent nine years learning English before they studied at the university, meaning that they had learned

English since they were fourth-graders in primary school. As stated in the Decree of the Minister of Education and Culture of the Republic Indonesia No. 060/U/1993, English was to be introduced to fourth-graders in primary school as local content[8] (Lestari, 2003). Secondly, 11 students claimed they had studied English for more than nine years, that is, they had studied English since they were the first-graders in primary school. Some primary schools, especially private ones, already provide English as a subject to their first graders (Zein, 2012). Finally, there were a small number of students (24.32%), who reported that they had learned English for six years, that is, they started learning English when they were the seventh-graders, during their first year of junior high school.

6.3.2 Additional English outside school

Table 7: Additional English outside school

	Place of learning English		Reasons to take additional English outside school		
	School only	School and language centre	Learning English at school was not enough	Parental wishes	Like English very much
Number of students	22	15	13	1	1

Based on an analysis of data in the second category, the need for additional English outside school hours, 22 students (59.46%) reported that they learned English at school only, while 15 students (40.54%) revealed that they learned English at both school and English learning centres.

From the number of students who took additional English at English learning centres, 13 students (86.67%) considered that learning English at school was not enough, 1 student (6.67%) noted that their parents asked them to do so, and 1

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[8] The term "local content" means the content of the English subject was designed by the EFL teachers, who are authorised to develop an English curriculum in which its content is adjusted to local needs.

student (6.67%) claimed that he/she liked English very much. It might be inferred from such findings that the majority of the students took additional English outside of school hours because of the limited time that was allocated for them to study English at school. They appeared to believe that their English proficiency development could not rely merely on language learning in the school environment.

6.3.3 EFL teaching focus at high school

Table 8: EFL teaching focus at high school

EFL teaching focus	Grammar	Grammar & reading comprehension	communication skills development
Number of students	2	14	21

Based on an analysis of data in the third category, EFL teaching focus at schools, 2 students (5.41%) considered that the EFL teaching in their schools was focused on grammar only; 14 students (37.84%) thought that the EFL teaching was focused on both grammar and reading comprehension; and 21 students (56.76%) believed that the EFL teaching at their schools was focused on developing communication skills. Such findings may be taken as suggesting that a communicative language teaching (CLT) approach was being applied in EFL teaching in the Indonesian context, at least where these students received their schooling. Such a finding is not unexpected, because (as discussed in Chapter 3) CLT was mandated in the 1984 English curriculum. By the time this study was conducted, the EFL teaching curriculum was the 2006 version, which also called for CLT as the preferred EFL teaching approach. In practice, as can be seen in Table 8 above, there may still have been some EFL teachers who applied a grammar-based approach in their EFL teaching (Sahiruddin, 2013).

6.3.4 EFL teaching techniques and media at high school

Table 9: EFL teaching techniques and media at high school

	Teaching techniques		Teaching media	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Number of students	16	21	19	18

In the fourth category analysed, EFL teaching techniques and media, 16 students (43.24%) indicated that their previous EFL teachers used different kinds of EFL teaching techniques (for example, role-play, games, pair-work, etc.), while 21 students (56.76%) believed that their EFL teachers at schools had little variety in their teaching techniques. In terms of the use of teaching media in EFL teaching, 19 students (51.35%) considered that their EFL teachers used different types of teaching media (for example audio tapes, video, photographs, computers, slides, etc.), while 18 students (48.65%) believed that their EFL teachers used a limited range of teaching media. In both aspects then, these students in reflecting back on their previous EFL instruction, were fairly evenly split.

6.3.5 Learning resources to learn English

Table 10: Learning resources to learn English

Learning resource	Textbooks	TV/video	tape/CDs	internet	newspapers
Number of students	24	18	16	9	2

Based on an analysis of data related to the fifth category, English learning resources, 24 students (64.86%) reported that they used textbooks, 18 students (48.65%) indicated that they used TV/video, 16 students (43.24%) stated that they used tapes or CDs, 9 students (24.32%) indicated that they used the internet, and 1 student (2.7%) noted that he/she used newspapers. Based on students' self-reports above, textbooks seemed to be the most common learning resource used to learn

English. However, audio-visual resources were also prominent among the resources reported on.

6.3.6 Motivation to learn English

Table 11: Motivation to learn English

	Motivated	Unmotivated
Number of students	24	9

Based on findings from an analysis of sixth category data, students' motivation in learning English at school, 28 students (75.68%) claimed that they were motivated to learn English at school. Only 9 students (24.32%) reported that they were not motivated.

6.3.7 Levels of English proficiency

Table 12: Levels of English proficiency

	Very poor	Poor	Average	Good	Very good
Number of students	6	10	20	1	0

Based on an analysis of data in the last category, students' levels of English proficiency, 6 students (16.22%) rated that their English as very poor, 10 students (27.03%) rated their English as poor, 20 students (54.05%) considered that their English was of moderate quality; and only 1 student (2.7%) thought that his/her English was good. Overall, then more than half of the students rated themselves as average or moderate, while the rest considered their English as poor and very poor. This finding appears to be inconsistent with their ITP-TOEFL-like test results, where their English proficiency level was categorised as at the A1 level, the lowest level of CEFR. However, the difference in the two findings should not be viewed as totally surprising, since a subjective self-report is likely to diverge

from the result of a standardised measurement instrument. This situation is relevant to the claim made by Jensen, Denver, Mees, and Werther (2011) below:

> Obviously, self-report questionnaires of this type may suffer from the drawbacks which are well known in fields such as psychology, sociology and criminology, namely that the subjects may not always provide truthful or reliable answers (whether this is intentional or not). (p. 21)

As will be discussed in the limitations section of this thesis (Chapter 9), findings from self-reported data need to be treated with a real degree of caution, but can provide insights into participants' subjective realities.

6.4 Students' attitudes toward the current university EFL program

The data regarding students' attitudes toward the EFL program offered by the university were provided by the second section of the questionnaire given to all participants in this study. There were 15 questions in this part. Similar to the fourteen items in the first section of the questionnaire, each of these fifteen items appeared to fall into eight categories, namely: support for studying English, ideal number of credits for English as a subject, ideal number of students in the class, fear or anxiety when learning English, English activities outside class, focus of EFL teaching, preferred EFL teaching approach, and preferred EFL instructional approach.

6.4.1 Support for and degree of importance for studying English

Table 13: Support for and degree of importance for studying English

	Preference		Degree of importance		
	Like	Dislike	Very important	Quite important	Not important
Number of students	30	7	32	4	1

From an analysis of data in the first category, support for studying English, 30 students (81.08%) indicated that they liked to study English. When asked how important English was, 32 students (86.49%) considered that English was very important.

6.4.2 Agreement with the current 2 credits and ideal credits for English

Table 14: Agreement with the current 2 credits and ideal credits for English

	2 credits for English		Ideal credits for English		
	Agree	Disagree	4	6	8
Number of students	3	34	18	12	4

Based on an analysis of data in the second category, ideal credit units for English per week, 34 students (91.89%) reported that they disagreed with the current two credit units[9] allocated for English. When those who disagreed with the 2 credits for English were asked about the ideal number of credit units for English, 18 students (52.94%) considered that four credit units were ideal; 12 students (35.29%) thought that six credit units were ideal; and 4 students (11.77%) believed that eight credit units were ideal. The students' various responses indicated that there was no consensus re the ideal number of credit units for English. What they did appear to believe was that the two credits allocated to learn English, i.e. only one class meeting a week, was not enough to improve their English proficiency.

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[9] One credit unit is equal to a 50 minute teaching hour/week.

6.4.3 Support for large class sizes and ideal number of students in English class

Table 15: Support for large class and ideal number of students in English class

	Large class		Ideal number of students in English class			
	Agree	Disagree	10	15	20	> 20
Number of students	2	35	8	20	8	1

Based on an analysis of data in the third category, the ideal number of students in a class, 35 students (94.59%) reported that they did not like large classes for English. When asked the ideal number of students in the class, 8 students (21.62%) noted that the ideal number of students in an EFL class was 10; 20 students (54.05%) recommended 15; 8 students (21.62%) thought 20; and only one student (2.71%) opted for an ideal number that was more than 20. While these findings indicated a range of perspectives regarding the ideal number of students in an EFL class, more than half of the students considered that 15 would be ideal.

6.4.4 Fear or anxiety when learning English

Table 16: Fear or feeling of anxiety when learning English

	Emotion associated with learning English		Causes of fear of learning English			
	anxious	calm	inaccurate pronunciation	Examinations	grammatical errors	language instruction
Number of students	17	20	7	8	7	2

Based on a data analysis in the fourth category, fear or feelings of anxiety when learning English, 17 students (45.95%) admitted that they were anxious when learning English while 20 students (54.05%) reported that they felt relaxed about learning English, in other words anxiety was reported by a significant number of students.

Of the seventeen students who felt anxious about learning English, 7 students (18.92%) reported that inappropriate pronunciation was the cause of their fear, 8 students (21.62%) stated that mid-term and final semester exams made them anxious, a further 7 students (18.92%) said that grammatical errors made them anxious, and 2 students (5.41%) noted that English language instruction in the class made them nervous. As noted above, it would appear that there was widespread anxiety among students in relation to learning English. The findings confirm that a range of factors had the potential to contribute to this. It should be noted that some students indicated more than one factor as causing them to feel anxious.

6.4.5 Activities to improve English

Table 17: Activities to improve English

	Doing extra activities to improve English	Not doing extra activities to improve English	Activities to improve English			
			Reading English novels/ magazines	Listening to an English radio station	Speaking English with friends	Writing letters/emails to pen pals abroad
Number of students	12	25	4	4	2	2

Based on a data analysis of items in the fifth category, English activities outside school, only 12 students (32.43%) indicated that they had participated in activities outside the school to improve their English competence. From these limited data, it appeared that the majority of the students relied only on in-classroom teaching and learning activities for their English development.

When this percentage (32.43%) was compared with the 15 students (40.54%) who took additional English outside (See section 6.3.2 above), it might be inferred that not all students who took additional English outside school engaged in extra English activities to improve their English.

6.4.6 Preferred focus of EFL teaching

Table 18: Preferred EFL teaching focus

	EFL teaching focus	
	Language skills	Grammar & reading comprehension
Number of students	19	18

Based on a data analysis of items in the sixth category, preferred focus of EFL teaching, 19 students (51.35%) preferred university EFL teaching focus on developing students' language skills; while 18 students (48.62%) preferred that it focus on developing grammar and reading comprehension. There was only a slight difference between the number of students who preferred the focus to be on developing language skills and the number who preferred the focus to be on developing grammar and reading comprehension. As will be discussed in the limitations section of this thesis (Chapter 9), it may be that students were unclear on what was meant by "Language skills".

6.4.7 Preferred model of EFL learning activities

Table 19: Preference for models of EFL learning activities

	Models of EFL learning activities	
	Teacher-centred	Student-centred
Number of students	7	23

Based on data analysed in relation to the seventh category, preferred models of EFL learning activities, 23 students (62.16%) expressed a preference for student-centred learning, 7 students (18.92%) reported a liking for teacher-centred approaches, while the remaining 7 students (18.92%) did not offer any response. Almost two-thirds of these students, then, appeared to prefer a student-centred approach to EFL learning activities. However, it must be conceded that students may have been unclear what "student-centred" actually meant.

6.4.8 Preferred EFL teaching instructional approach

Table 20: Preference for instructional approach

	Instructional approach	
	Themes on their own major	General themes
Number of students	24	13

Finally, from an analysis of data in the last category about preference for an EFL instructional approach, 24 students (64.86%) indicated that they preferred an instructional approach focused on their major area of study while remaining 13 students (35.14%), reported that they preferred an instructional approach focused on general themes.

6.5 Discussion

As stated at the outset, this chapter addresses the first research question of this study, "What are the attitudes of some EFL students of non-English departments towards current EFL teaching in the tertiary context?" To understand students' attitudes toward the EFL teaching program, the findings presented in Section 6.4 are discussed. In addition, findings in Sections 6.2 and 6.3, on proficiency and learning experiences, are used to illuminate findings on attitudes in Section 6.4.

Based on students' responses in relation to their attitudes toward the EFL program offered by the university, it appears that students had a strong interest in learning English. Thirty students or 81.08% of the total indicated that they liked to study English. Although their English proficiency level was categorised as A1 level (see findings in Section 6.2), they still considered that English proficiency was very important. Their positive attitude toward the importance of English may have been a result their considerable history of learning English and their current perception of the importance of English proficiency. First, the majority of them noted that they had studied English for nine years before they studied at university (see Section 6.3). English, as a compulsory subject that they studied at every level of schooling from primary to high school, and even at university level, may have

opened their minds to how important it was to be proficient in English. Second, they would have been aware of the importance of English language in their environment. In Indonesia, they would have been exposed to English in almost every part of their life, from simple household goods (such as the instruction manuals of TV, fridges, microwaves, vacuum cleaners, etc.) to advanced technologies (such as computers, smartphones, internet, means of transportation, etc.). The ASEAN-China Free Trade Agreement, signed by the governments of the ASEAN countries and China and implemented on January 1, 2010, may have contributed to this positive attitude toward English as well. They were possibly aware that there would be more products from those participating countries traded in Indonesia, and more people coming to Indonesia to open businesses or look for better jobs. English has become the most commonly used foreign language in Indonesia. Those with the ability to participate actively in this new English-oriented environment and compete with people from other countries for better jobs would be advantaged. Any of these factors may have influenced these students' views about the importance of English.

Conversely, it is undeniable that a small number of students were not particularly disposed to learning English. Low proficiency in English, less awareness of the importance of having English competence and less support from parents might have made them unmotivated to learn it. But, in comparison to such students, the findings showed that a large percentage (>80%) reported that they liked English and thought that English was very important to learn.

In terms of appropriate credit units allocated for English, the students had diverging views. While they had positive attitudes towards English, they had a range of ideas about how many credit units were needed for English study at university level. Almost half of the students viewed the ideal number of credits for English to be 6 or 8. Their views more or less mirrored research finding by the Language Centre of Bandung Institute of Technology in Indonesia in 2001. The Language Centre of Bandung Institute of Technology (2001, as cited in Trisakti University, 2011), which investigated the ideal number of credit units for English at non-English departments from 1980 to 2000, concluded that the ideal credit units for non-English department students should be from six to eight. If the credit units for English in one semester were 6, students would have three formal

meetings on campus each week, because each meeting generally constitutes two credit units. Such frequency would offer students more time to practise English and give them more opportunities to improve their language understanding as well. In contrast, if the credit units offered were only 2, students would have only one formal meeting a week. This limited frequency of meetings was, in fact, less than the frequency of meetings that students experienced at senior or junior high school, i.e. two meetings per week based on four credit units per semester. In fact, the allocation of four credit units to English during secondary education has been considered ineffective to improve students' English proficiency (see Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Mistar, 2005). The two credit units for English at the university level, therefore, is unlikely to provide many benefits to students.

EFL classes in Indonesian higher education are also known for their large class sizes. The number of students in an EFL class can be between 40 and 50 and sometimes more (Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Marcellino, 2005). The number of students in EFL classes in Sumatra University, where this study took place, ranges from 40 to 70 students. From my own experience as an EFL lecturer for non-English departments in the university, there are generally around 50 to 70 students attending EFL classes in the Faculties of Engineering, Agriculture, Law, and Economy. Teaching rooms are usually multipurpose rooms, a combination of two lecture rooms. Owing to the large numbers of students in class and the limited number of contact hours, the EFL teaching and learning approach used is typically teacher-centred or lecture-like. Such conditions are likely to be widespread across a range of contexts. One example is described by Meng (2009), an English lecturer from China:

> Owing to the widely acknowledged difficulty of managing a
> large class, most teachers naturally adopt a traditional teacher-
> centered or lecture-like approach for large class teaching, that
> is, students sit in straight rows facing the teacher, who does
> most of the talking. (p. 219)

The high number of students in EFL classes equates with the likelihood that students will have less opportunity to develop their communication skills. It is understandable, then, that almost all the students (94.59%) in this study

disapproved of large classes for English. The majority of them seemed to prefer small EFL classes, based on the number of students (54.05%) who considered that the EFL class size should be 15, with others (21.62%) considering that EFL classes should be around 10 students.

In line with these students' responses, a number of scholars (e.g. Brown, 2001; Madya, 2002; Marcellino, 2005) advocate small EFL class sizes. They consider that the ideal number of students in a class should be between 10 and 20 students. Brown (2001) believed that the ideal number of students in the class should be no more than twelve students. Marcellino (2005) concluded that the number of the students should be "approximately ten to fifteen learners so as to make teaching-learning activities more effective" (p. 36). Finally, Madya (2002) stressed that a class size around 20 or less would provide students with "as ample opportunity as possible to practise using EFL to ensure the development of their communicative skills" (p. 148).

As reported earlier, nearly half of the students (45.95%) reported that they were fearful or anxious when learning English. They reported that inaccurate pronunciation, incorrect grammar, and the nature of English instruction in the class were causes of anxiety. It appears then, that a significant number of students lacked self-confidence in the English language class. Two factors may be contributing to this lack of self-confidence. The first are negative beliefs about English learning. As explained by Bernat and Gvozdenko (2005) in Section 2.6.1, students' negative beliefs about language learning can contribute to their "decreased motivation, frustration and anxiety" (p. 7). Similarly, Erlenawati (2002) contend that students' negative beliefs can lead to their "lack of self-confidence and satisfaction with the language class" (p. 327).

Another factor that may also reduce students' confidence to use English in class relates to their culture, that is, certain feelings of embarrassment. Nadar (2000) stated that "many [Indonesian] students are ashamed of making mistakes" (p. 234). A propensity for feeling shame is considered to be one of the characteristics of Indonesian people. In my own view, Indonesians do not want to be laughed in front of other people because of mistakes in pronunciation or grammar. This shame factor is likely to affect students' confidence in practicing English in class.

The majority of the students did not report participating in extra activities to improve their English. In all probability, the majority of students (67.6%) relied on their English development only through in-class meetings.

In relation to EFL teaching focus, findings indicate that there was only a slight difference between the number of students who preferred the focus of EFL teaching at the university to be on developing students' language skills and those who preferred the focus to be on grammar and reading comprehension. These findings indicate two explanatory possibilities. Firstly, the students may not have understood the term *language skills* used in the questionnaire. Their response might have been different had the term *communication skills* been used instead of *language skills*. The term *communication* might have suggested more clearly that the EFL teaching focus was to develop students' competence in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Secondly, they may have been affected by their previous EFL teaching which was still focused on grammar and reading comprehension (see Table 8). As explained in Chapter 3, although the communicative approach had been introduced in the 1984 curriculum, the traditional approach focused on grammar and reading comprehension was likely to be practised by some EFL teachers. This situation exists not only in junior or senior high school but also in higher education. Being exposed to grammar-based English teaching at all levels of their education may have caused students to consider that grammar-based teaching was the preferred teaching approach for English.

That EFL teaching at university level was still focused on grammar and reading comprehension was evidenced by the current textbook used for non-English department students of Sumatra University, *English for general purposes* published in 2009, which was focused on grammar and reading comprehension. There are three factors which have been conducive to this state of affairs. Kirkpatrick (2007) claimed that the EFL teaching focus on developing students' reading skills and grammar in Indonesian universities has arisen because of students' low English proficiency. Students' low English proficiency, as explained by Madya (2002), is the effect of unsuccessful EFL teaching in Indonesia in the secondary school.

Unfortunately, the teaching of English in Indonesia has so far been unable to achieve its declared goals despite the many efforts made to improve its quality. A layman's observation has indicated that secondary school leavers who have learned this language for 6 years, with almost 900 hours of school teaching, are unable to use this language for communication purposes. (p. 142)

The second factor that leads to a focus of EFL teaching at university level on grammar and reading comprehension is the limited credits allocated for English. Kirkpatrick (2007) stated that students of non-English majors in Indonesian universities are required to take two or three credits of English. This limited number, as argued by Musthafa (2002), is insufficient for the development of students' communicative skills (See Chapter 3, Section 3.4.2). These factors may have led to the EFL teaching in university focusing on developing students' reading comprehension and grammar, with the aim of supporting students in their academic fields, i.e. understanding English textbooks written in English or lectures delivered in English (Sofendi, 2008).

The third factor influencing the EFL teaching focus at university level is likely to be large class sizes. A high number of students in non-English majors, which is one of the EFL teaching problems in Indonesian universities (Ahmad, 2002; Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Kirkpatrick, 2007), makes it almost impossible, practically, to develop students' communicative skills .

As reported above, it was found that a majority of students preferred a student-centred approach to a teacher-centred one. This finding appears to be inconsistent with the finding in the previous category, where the number of students who liked grammar and reading comprehension and the number of students who liked language skills was almost the same. As stated in Section 6.4.7, the students may not have had a clear idea of what *student-centred* meant. However, they may have been open to this approach which they might have thought would offer them contrasting and perhaps novel ways of learning English. Being taught dominantly through a teacher-centred approach can make "students become passive, apathetic, and bored" (Nagaraju, Madhavaiah, & Peter, 2013, p. 126). Therefore,

they may have wanted to opt for something new in language teaching. As stated by Jones (2007):

> In a student-centered class, students don't depend on their teacher all the time, waiting for instructions, words of approval, correction, advice, or praise. They don't ignore each other, but look at each other and communicate with each other. … The emphasis is on working together, in pairs, in groups, and as a whole class. Their teacher helps them to develop their language skills. (p. 2)

Some students may, of course, have experienced learning English through a student-centred approach. Although there was no indicative data from the questionnaire regarding students' familiarity with the student-centred approach, some may have been familiar with it from their previous EFL classes. This approach had already been introduced to Indonesian EFL teachers through the PKG[10] Project as early as 1985 and would have been practiced in at least some EFL classes (Aleixo, 2003). Either or both of these two explanations might apply to these participants stated preference for a student-centred approach over a teacher-centred one.

A large number of the students (64.86%) preferred EFL teaching materials focused on themes taken from their own content to those focused on general themes. Students gave three reasons regarding their preference for discussions of themes from their own content. Some said that learning based on their own subject content made it easier to understand what was being discussed. Others said that it strengthened their knowledge about their chosen subject content. Some others said that it would improve their English as well as strengthen their understanding of the content.

This last line of reasoning can be related to the two benefits of the theme-based instructional approach as explained by Pessoa et al. (2007). Pessoa et al. (2007)

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[10] PKG is the acronym of 'Pemantapan Kerja Guru' or in English it can be said as 'Strengthening of Teachers' Work Tomlinson, B. (1990). Managing change in Indonesian high schools. *ELT Journal, 44*(1), 25-37..

maintained that through discussions of themes from students' subject areas instructed in English, classroom tasks can be more cognitively demanding, thus fostering their academic growth, while their second or foreign language competence would develop as well. In addition, having background knowledge of what they were learning in an EFL class might motivate students to be actively involved in the teaching and learning activities, where along with the improvement of their content knowledge, their English language competence is also enhanced.

6.6 Conclusion

Based on findings reported in sections 6.3 and 6.4 and the discussion section presented in section 6.5 above, it can be concluded that a majority of students involved in this study spent nine years learning English and their level of English proficiency was A1 level. Although they were characterised by a low level of proficiency, they had a strong motivation to learn English. The majority considered that English was very important to learn. Most disagreed with the two credit units currently allocated by the university for English and did not like large EFL classes. They were evenly divided regarding the ideal EFL teaching focus, but a majority preferred a student-centred approach to be applied in the EFL teaching at the university. In addition, most liked EFL teaching that discussed topics taken from their own content subjects.

Aside from the positive attitudes students had, there were some negative attitudes exhibited in relation to English and English learning. Many of the students still had fear or anxiety when learning English. Almost half of them still preferred EFL teaching focused on grammar and reading comprehension. And finally, the majority of them still relied for their English development on in-class lectures, which were held only once a week. They did not generally engage in additional learning activities to improve their English proficiency.

In summary, most students expressed positive attitudes toward the EFL teaching program they were currently attending. They were aware of the importance of English and were motivated to learn it; they disagreed with the limited credits

allocated for English and large English classes; and they preferred EFL teaching materials focused on discussions of themes taken from their own content subject.

The following chapter, Chapter 7, will discuss the findings from the pre-test and post-test for both IC and NIC students and the second questionnaire for IC students only. These are the remaining quantitative findings about EFL students' performance, attitudes, and motivation levels before and after the intervention.

CHAPTER SEVEN: EFL STUDENTS' PERFORMANCE, ATTITUDES AND MOTIVATION LEVELs BEFORE AND AFTER THE INTERVENTION

7.1 Introduction

This chapter reports findings addressing the second research question in this study, "Are there any differences in the intervention class EFL students' pre-test and post-test scores measuring verbal communication performance (actual and self-reported)?" and the fourth research question in this study, "Are there self-reported differences in intervention class EFL students' motivation and attitudes following the intervention program and what reasons do they offer for this improvement?"

Findings related to the third research question were derived from students' pre-test and post-test scores, while findings for the fourth research question were derived from the second questionnaire used in this study. Additional findings from students' summative tests (mid-test and final semester-test) were used as supporting evidence to support the main findings. All the data were analysed quantitatively by using PASW Statistics 18, a computer program that is used to process research data statistically.

7.2 Findings related to the second research question

There were two tests administered for the research participants of this study (IC and NIC), a pre-test and a post-test. Each pre-test and post-test consisted of two distinct tests, an ITP-TOEFL-like test and an oral test.

As stated in chapter 5, thirty-five students in this program participated until the completion of the intervention. Seventeen students were in the intervention class and eighteen students in the non-intervention class.

7.2.1 Findings from pre-test and post-test data analyses

The data derived from the pre-test and post-test scores were collected from both the intervention and non-intervention class students. As stated in the beginning of this section, there were two types of tests used, i.e. an ITP-TOEFL-like test and an oral test. Since both tests used different scoring formats, the ITP-TOEFL-like test scores were converted to the same format as the oral test scores (see Chapter 4, Section 4.3 for details).

The purpose of using a pre-test and post-test was to measure EFL proficiency levels of the intervention and non-intervention classes EFL proficiency levels before and after the intervention and to compare the results between the two classes. Consequently, there were two types of test analyses used, a paired-sample t-test and an independent-sample t-test.

As explained in Chapter 5, a paired-sample t-test is used to compare changes in the mean scores of participants from the same group who are tested before and after an intervention (Pallant, 2011). In this study, the paired-sample t-tests were used to compare the mean scores from the pre-test and post-test of the participants from both the intervention and non-intervention classes. Another t-test used was an independent-sample t-test, which was used to compare the mean scores from pre-test and post-test of the participants from different groups (Pallant, 2011). In relation to this study, the independent-sample *t*-tests were used to compare the mean scores of the pre-test and post-test between the two groups (the intervention and non-intervention).

7.2.1.1 Findings from the paired-samples t-tests

Tables 21 and 22 below summarise the results of an analysis of two mean scores, the mean score of the pre-test and the mean score of the post-test for both the IC and NIC classes respectively. The first section of each table compares the mean scores of the pre-test and post-test. The second section shows the paired-samples correlation – the correlation between the two mean scores. The value of the correlation coefficient (*r*) is generally between -1 and +1. The higher the *r* value, the stronger the correlation is deemed to be. The third section of each table presents results for the paired-samples t-test, the t-test and its statistical

significance. Statistical significance is the most important result in the paired-samples t-test, since this value determines whether the increase or decrease of the mean scores is significant or non-significant.

Table 21: Paired-samples t-test comparing the IC's pre-test and post-test mean scores

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Post-test	5.54	17	.91	.22
	Pre-test	4.73	17	.89	.22

Paired Samples Correlation

		N	Correlation (r)	Sig.
Pair 1	Post-test & Pre-test	17	.99	.00

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Post-test– Pre-test	.82	.14	.03	.74	.89	24.33	16	.00

In terms of the paired-samples t-tests for the intervention class' EFL performance, there was a statistically significant difference between the IC students' pre-test mean score of (M=4.73, SD=0.89) and their post-test mean score of (M=5.54, SD=0.91), t(16)=24.33, p < 0.00 (two-tailed). The mean increase in the post-test was 0.82 with a 95% confidence interval ranging from 0.74 to 0.89. On the basis of this result, it might be inferred that the theme-based instructional program applied in the intervention class made a significant impact on the IC students' EFL performance.

Table 22: Paired-samples t-test comparing the NIC's pre-test and post-test mean scores

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Post-test	4.76	18	.91	.22
	Pre-test	4.70	18	.84	.20

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation (*r*)	Sig.
Pair 1	Post-test & Pre-test	18	.98	.000

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Post-test – Pre-test	.05	.21	.05	-.05	.16	1.05	17	.31

Table 22 reports the results of a paired-samples t-test analysis conducted to evaluate the impact of a traditional EFL approach on the non-intervention class' EFL performance. As can be seen, there was statistically no significant difference between the NIC's pre-test mean score of (M=4.70, SD=0.84) and post-test mean score of (M=4.76=, SD=0.91), t(17) = 1.05, p < 0.31 (two-tailed). The mean increase in the post-test was 0.05 with a 95% confidence interval ranging from 0.5 to 0.16. On the basis of this result, it appears that the traditional approach applied in the non-intervention class made no significant impact on the NIC students' EFL performance.

7.2.1.2 Findings from the independent-samples t-test

In relation to the independent-samples *t*-tests, there are two tables of results presented below. The first of these (Table 23) records results arising from the independent-samples t-test for the pre-test, while the second (Table 24) records results from the t-test for the post-test. Each of these two tables has two segments. The first itemises the two groups' mean scores separately. The second segment

presents the results of two statistical tests, the Levene test for the equality of the variances and the independent *t*-test for equality of means. There are two lines at the bottom of this table segment, *equal variance assumed* and *equal variance not assumed*. If the F test score is not significant (p >0.05), the *equal variances assumed line* is used to describe the independent-samples *t*-test. In contrast, if the F test is significant (p <0.05), the *equal variances not assumed line* is used to describe the independent-samples *t*-test (Morgan, Leech, Gloeckner, & Barrett, 2004). To measure the effect of the difference between the two means, Cohen's *d* formula, $d=2t/(\sqrt{df})$, is used where $d=0.2$ is small, $d=0.5$ is medium, and $d=0.8$ is large (Cohen, 1988).

Table 23: Independent-samples t-test comparing the IC and NIC's pre-test mean scores

Group Statistics

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	Intervention	17	4.73	.89	.22
	Non-intervention	18	4.70	.84	.20

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Pre-test	Equal variances assumed	.046	.832	.079	33	.94	.02	.29	-.57	.62
	Equal variances not assumed			.079	33	.94	.02	.29	-.57	.62

In relation to the independent samples *t*-test conducted to compare the pre-test mean scores between the intervention class (IC) and non-intervention class (NIC), there was no significant difference in scores for the IC of (M=4.73, SD=0.89) and the NIC of (M=4.70, SD=0.84; t (33) = 0.079, p=0.94, 2 tailed). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = 0.02, with a 95% confidence interval ranging from -0.57 to 0.62) was very small (*d*=0.03). On the basis of this

result, it can be suggested that both the intervention and non-intervention classes had similar levels of EFL performance prior to the intervention.

Table 24: Independent-samples t-test comparing the IC and NIC's post-test mean scores

Group Statistics

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Post-test	Intervention	17	5.54	.91	.22
	Non-intervention	18	4.76	.91	.22

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Post-test	Equal variances assumed	.053	.820	2.55	33	.02	.79	.31	.16	1.41
	Equal variances not assumed			2.55	32.91	.02	.79	.31	.16	1.41

In relation to the independent samples *t*-test conducted to compare the post-test mean scores between the intervention class (IC) and non-intervention class (NIC), there was a significant difference in scores between the IC (M = 5.54, SD = 0.91) and the NIC (M = 4.76, SD = 0.91; t (33) = 2.55, p = 0.02, 2 tailed). The magnitude of the difference in the means (mean difference = 0.79, with a 95% confidence interval ranging from 0.16 to 1.41) was large (*d*=0.89). On the basis of this result, it can be suggested that the intervention class achieved a significant improvement in their EFL proficiency levels in comparison with the non-intervention class.

7.2.2 Findings from-mid test and final semester-test

As explained in Chapter 4, the English classes (IC and non-IC) involved in this study were both enrolled in a compulsory subject offered for first-semester students. Therefore, I was obliged to follow university procedures in obtaining

formal grades for all students involved in this study. There were two components of these formal grades: grades from a mid-test which was held during the 9th meeting, and grades from a final semester-test, which was held during the 17th meeting. The materials for both tests were provided by the Sumatran University Language Institute and were focused on grammar and reading comprehension.

The following tables report results from the independent t-tests, which were performed to compare the mid-test and final semester-test mean scores of the students in the two groups (IC and NIC) on the basis of a 0-10 scale.

Table 25: Independent-samples t-test comparing the IC and NIC's mid-test results

Group Statistics					
	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
MIDTEST	Intervention	17	4.18	.77	.19
	Non-intervention	18	4.82	1.30	.31

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
MIDTEST	Equal variances assumed	4.71	.037	-1.78	33	.085	-.65	.36	-1.39	.09
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.80	28	.082	-.65	.36	-1.38	.09

As Table 25 shows, there was no statistically significant difference in scores between the IC (M = 4.18, SD = 0.77) and the NIC (M = 4.82, SD = 1.30; t (28) = -1.80, p = 0.08, 2 tailed). The magnitude of the difference in the means (mean difference = -0.65, with a 95% confidence interval ranging from -1.38 to 0.09), was medium (*d*=0.68). Findings from the independent t-test above showed that there was a large difference of 0.64 between the IC students' mid-test mean score and the NIC students' mid-test mean score, with the NIC students' mean score being higher. This difference may indicate that the NIC students were advantaged

by the traditional grammar-based approach applied in the class, a topic I will return to in my discussion chapter.

By the end of the semester, the situation had reversed. The mean score of IC students in the final semester test was somewhat higher than the mean score of students in the non-intervention class (see Table 26).

Table 26: Independent-samples t-test comparing the IC and NIC's final semester-test results

Group Statistics					
SEMESTER TEST	GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
	Intervention Class	17	4.87	.51	.12
	Non-intervention Class	18	4.58	1.01	.24

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
SEMESTER TEST	Equal variances assumed	8.43	.007	1.07	33	.29	.29	.27	-.26	.85
	Equal variances not assumed			1.09	26	.29	.29	.27	-.26	.85

An independent samples *t*-test was conducted to compare the final semester-test mean scores between the intervention class (IC) and non-intervention class (NIC). The finding showed that there was no significant difference in scores between the IC (M = 4.87, SD = 0.51) and the NIC (M = 4.58, SD = 1.01; t (26) = 1.09, p = 0.29, 2 tailed). The magnitude of the difference in the means (mean difference = 0.29, with a 95% confidence interval ranging from -0.26 to 0.85) was small (0.43).

The findings above may indicate that although the NIC students were taught through the traditional grammar-based approach, there was little difference in their progress in terms of grammar and reading comprehension compared to the

IC students who were taught English through a theme-based instructional approach. Conversely, the IC students did not appear to be penalised by having been taught using a theme-based instructional approach, even though the final semester-test was not tailored to the mode of their instruction. Indeed, they performed better than the NIC students, if only by a small margin.

7.2.3 Overview of the results

Based on the findings from the paired-samples *t*-tests and independent-samples *t*-tests above, two interpretations can be made as follows: First, students in both groups (IC and NIC) seemed to have almost the same EFL proficiency level prior to the commencement of the intervention. This finding was based on the results of the independent-samples t-test comparing the IC and NIC's pre-test mean scores which showed that there was no significant difference in terms of English proficiency between the two groups (see Table 23).

Second, the IC students made a significant improvement in their English proficiency on the completion of the intervention. This finding can be seen from the results of the paired samples t-test measuring their pre-test and post-test mean scores, where their post-test mean score was significantly higher than their pre-test mean score (see Table 21), and the results of the independent samples t-test measuring their post-test mean scores and the NIC students' post-test mean scores, where their post-test mean score was also significantly higher than the NIC's post-test mean score (see Table 24).

Additional findings from the independent samples t-test measuring the IC and NIC students' semester test seem to strengthen the above findings, where the IC students' mean score for the semester test was somewhat higher than the NIC students' mean score (see Table 26), even though the summative test was focused on grammar and reading comprehension, which should, one would think, have advantaged the NIC students.

The above findings, in relation to the third research (Are there any differences in the intervention class EFL students' pre-test and post-test scores measuring verbal communication performance (actual and self-reported)?) suggest a positive improvement with respect to the IC class. It will be recalled that these tests (pre-

test and post-test) were designed to measure the EFL proficiency levels of the two groups of students before and after the intervention program. The significant difference shown in relation to the students in the intervention class (IC) suggests that the instructional approach given to them, that is, theme-based instruction, at least contributed to positive improvements in their English proficiency.

Despite the above overall findings based on an analysis of means, there were some curious findings in the raw scores of the non-intervention students, especially their ITP-TOEFL-like test and oral test scores, which indicated that some students in the non-intervention class achieved substantial increases in their post-test scores. From Appendix 17, it can be seen that there were three indicators that some NIC students made substantial progress with their ITP-TOEFL-like test. Firstly, no students in the non-intervention class got a score of 400 in their Pre-test of the ITP-TOEFL-like test, but in their post-test, eight students (44.4% of the 18 students in the class) got scores from 400 to 450. One student got 400 in the pre-test in the intervention class. This number increased to eight in the post-test, i.e. an increase of seven students. So, overall, IC and NIC students were on par on the completion of the intervention in terms of these high grades.

Secondly, the highest NIC ITP-TOEFL-like score in the pre-test was 387, while in the post-test, this increased to 450. Although the increase in the highest score (450-387=63) was not as large as the increase in the intervention class (497-410=87), it still indicated that some students in the non-intervention class achieved significant improvements in their English proficiency.

Lastly, the mean NIC score of the ITP-TOEFL-like test in the pre-test, which was 355.72, increased to 390.50 with an increase of 34.78. Although this increase was not as large as the result in the intervention class which was 46, from 353.65 in the pre-test to 399.65 in the post-test (see Appendix 17), it still indicates a worthwhile improvement in their English proficiency.

Some NIC students also achieved progress in terms of the oral test. However, their oral test progress was not as substantial as for the intervention class. In terms of the mean score for the oral test, the increase was only 0.13, from 4.26 in the pre-test to 4.39 in the post-test. This increase was small compared to the increase of 2.03 in the intervention class, from 4.31 in the pre-test to 6.35 in the post-test.

Collectively, these results suggest that there were gains made by students in the non-intervention class on the completion of the intervention program, but it was not as substantial as those in the intervention class. Reasons for these results will be discussed in Chapter 9.

7.3 Findings for the fourth research question

This section discusses findings based on the second questionnaire given to the students in the intervention class only. The questionnaire consisted of two sections, a. students' self-evaluation about their levels of EFL performance before and after the intervention and b. their attitude and motivation before and after the intervention. The first section of the questionnaire focused specifically on obtaining quantitative evidence regarding the IC students' English proficiency levels for the purpose of supporting RQ3 findings. In contrast, the second section of the questionnaire was focused specifically on addressing the last research question, "Are there self-reported differences in intervention class EFL students' motivation and attitudes following the intervention program and what reasons do they offer for this improvement?"

The following sub-sections will focus separately on the findings obtained from the two sections of the questionnaires.

Since the questionnaire compared self-reported data of EFL performance and attitude and motivation levels for the same group of students (the intervention class or IC) before and after the intervention, findings were analysed using a paired sample t-test, an application of PASW Statistics 18, a software program suited to process research data statistically.

7.3.1 Findings from the IC students' self-report on EFL performance before and after the intervention program

There were twelve items probing the IC students' self-reported views on their levels of EFL performance (see Appendix 6). From an analysis of these items, it was found that there were four that needed to be removed from the list. Items 1 and 8 had to be dropped. Item 1 (I cannot speak English at all) is an absolute

statement which falls into a double negative trap if students ticked "always" or "never". Item 8 (I always make grammatical mistakes when speaking in English) became nonsensical when the students ticked "always". The other two items, 10 and 11, were transferred to the second section of the questionnaire since they were related to students' learning motivation and attitude before and after the intervention.

Seventeen students (n=17) answered the first section of the questionnaire using frequency scales from 'always' (equivalent to '5') to 'never' (equivalent to '1'). (see Tables 27 and 28 below.) Table 27 below shows the results of an SPSS analysis of data from the questionnaire exploring the IC students' self-evaluation of their EFL performance. The presentation of the data has been organised so that the results from pre-intervention and post-intervention questionnaires are placed on the same line to make them easy to read and comprehend.

Table 27: IC students' self-evaluation of EFL performance before and after the intervention

Paired samples statistics (N-17)

		Pre-intervention			Post-intervention		
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 2	I can speak English but use short phrases only	3.76	.90	.22	3.65	.86	.21
Pair 3	I can hold a conversation in everyday English	1.71	.69	.17	2.65	.93	.23
Pair 4	I have to use the native language to explain something that is not clear when speaking in English	3.29	1.36	.33	2.94	1.20	.29
Pair 5	I can express my ideas fluently in English	2.18	.81	.20	2.65	.86	.21
Pair 6	I cannot use the right words in English	3.71	.77	.19	3.29	.77	.19
Pair 7	I have difficulty expressing ideas in English	4.18	.81	.20	3.65	.93	.23
Pair 9	I recognise the mistakes I make when speaking in English	3.88	.93	.23	4.29	.686	.17
Pair 12	When attending an English language subject, I prefer my teacher to explain everything in Indonesian	3.53	1.18	.29	3.00	.94	.23

Results tabulated in Table 28 below were also derived from an SPSS analysis of the IC students' EFL performance self-evaluation. The data are here arranged in order of their levels of significance, from most significant to least significant.

Of the 8 items related to IC students' self-evaluation of their EFL performance levels before and after the intervention program, there were 3 items with increased mean scores and 5 items with decreased mean scores before and after the intervention periods (see Table 27). For some items increased scores indicated improvement; conversely, in others, decreased scores indicated improvement. In Table 28 items are grouped into particular categories: oral communication performance, grammatical competence, and confidence in using vocabulary. Results for each of these categories are described more fully in the sections that follow.

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 3	I can hold a conversation in everyday English (Pre-Post)	-0.94	1.09	0.26	-1.50	-0.38	-3.57	16	0.00
Pair 6	I cannot use the right words in English (Pre-Post)	0.41	0.62	0.15	0.09	0.73	2.75	16	0.01
Pair 5	I can express my ideas fluently in English (Pre-Post)	-0.47	0.72	0.17	-0.84	-0.10	-2.70	16	0.02
Pair 7	I have difficulty expressing ideas in English (Pre-Post)	0.53	0.87	0.21	0.08	0.98	2.50	16	0.02
Pair 12	When attending an English language subject, I prefer my teacher to explain everything in Indonesian (Pre-Post)	0.53	1.01	0.24	0.01	1.05	2.17	16	0.05
Pair 9	I recognise the mistakes I make when speaking in English (Pre-Post)	-0.41	0.87	0.21	-0.86	0.04	-1.95	16	0.07
Pair 4	I have to use my native language to explain something that is not clear when speaking in English (Pre-Post)	0.35	1.62	0.39	-0.48	1.18	0.90	16	0.38
Pair 2	I can speak English but use short phrases only (Pre-Post)	0.12	0.78	0.19	-0.28	0.52	0.62	16	0.54

Paired Samples Test

a. Oral communication performance

Three of the 8 items were grouped as the IC students' self-reported views of their oral communication performance. The first of these was item number three, "I can hold a conversation in everyday English". There was a significant increase in the mean scores (1.71 → 2.65, p=0.00), which suggest that students' self-reported ability in holding daily conversations increased significantly after participating in the intervention program. The second item, item number five, "I can express my ideas fluently in English" also showed a significant increase in mean scores (2.18 → 2.65, p=0.02), suggesting that students' self-reported ability to express opinions fluently in English increased significantly after participating in the intervention program. Finally, item number seven, "I have difficulty expressing ideas in English" showed a significant decrease in the mean scores (4.14 → 3.65, p=0.02). The decrease indicated a positive result suggesting that students' problems in expressing ideas in English, as viewed by them, decreased significantly.

b. Grammatical competence

The item nine result indicated a self-reported enhanced performance for grammatical competence. Item number nine, "I recognise the mistakes I make when speaking in English", showed a non-significant increase in the mean scores (3.88 → 4.29, p=0.07). This result suggests that after participating in the intervention program, students' self-reported ability to recognise the mistakes they made when speaking increased but not significantly.

c. Confidence in vocabulary use

There were 4 items which were grouped under confidence in vocabulary use. Among them, two items (items number six and twelve) generated significant shifts and the other two were non-significant (items number two and four).

Item number six, "I cannot use the right words in English", showed a significant decrease in mean scores (3.71 → 3.29, p=0.01), with this decrease indicating a positive result, suggesting that students' self-reported inability to choose the right

word decreased significantly after participating in the intervention program. In a similar way, item number twelve, "When attending an English language subject, I prefer my teacher to explain everything in Indonesian", also showed a positively significant decrease in the mean scores (3.53 → 3.00, p=0.05), suggesting that after participating in the intervention program, students' self-reported willingness to receive instruction in English had improved, that is their preference for the Indonesian language as the language of instruction in the class decreased significantly.

The remaining two items had non-significant results. Item number four, "I have to use my native language to explain something that is not clear when speaking in English", showed a non-significant decrease in the mean scores (3.29 → 2.94, p=0.38). Similarly, item number two, "I can speak English but use short phrases only" also indicated a non-significant decrease in the mean scores (3.76 → 3.65, p=0.54), suggesting self-reported positive but non-significant progress in relation to a reliance on using short phrases only when speaking English.

On the basis of these results, it can be inferred that the IC students' self-reported views on increased competence in EFL performance were mainly related to oral communication skills. This conclusion is based on the scaled column of significant values ranging from highest to the lowest levels of significance. Results in Table 28 indicate that the six highest scores for significance (from 0.00 to 0.07) were in the category of oral communication performance and confidence in using vocabulary.

7.3.2 Findings from students' self-reported views on their attitudes and motivation before and after the intervention

In this part of the questionnaire, the IC students self-reported their attitudes and levels of motivation by comparing their previous EFL learning in secondary schools with the EFL learning they received in the context of the study intervention.

There were twenty-five items inviting the IC students to reflect on their levels of attitude and motivation before and after the intervention program. Seventeen students answered them (n=17) using Likert-scales from 'strongly agree'

(equivalent to 5) to 'strongly disagree' (equivalent to 1). A summary of findings can be seen in Tables 29 and 30 below.

Table 29 below reports on the results of an analysis of data derived from the questionnaire on the IC students' attitudes and motivation levels before and after the intervention program. Questionnaire data were analysed using the SPSS program. IC students' mean scores before and after the intervention are reported on.

Table 29: IC students' self-evaluation of attitudes and levels of motivation before and after the intervention

Paired samples statistics (N-17)

		Pre-intervention			Post-intervention		
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
1	Learning English is important because it is an international language	4.71	0.47	.114	5.00	0.00	.000
2	I am satisfied with my overall English performance	2.24	0.56	.136	2.53	0.80	.194
3	I am confident I can learn English well in this class	3.82	1.13	.274	4.12	0.93	.225
4	I am confident I can pass English well	4.06	0.90	.218	3.59	1.28	.310
5	I am confident I can get a better grade than other students	2.88	1.45	.352	3.18	1.29	.312
6	The EFL teaching techniques used by my teacher are motivating	4.29	0.99	.239	4.65	0.49	.119
7	The EFL teaching materials used by my teacher are interesting	4.12	0.93	.225	4.47	0.51	.125
8	The EFL teaching materials used by my English teacher are highly relevant to my major	3.94	1.25	.303	4.76	0.44	.106
9	The EFL teaching media used by my English teacher help me to understand EFL materials better	4.12	0.70	.169	4.65	0.49	.119
10	My English teacher is friendly	4.53	0.51	.125	4.65	0.49	.119
10a	I am afraid to speak in English in front of classmates	3.41	1.18	.29	3.00	1.37	.33
11	My English teacher always encourages me to speak in English	4.18	0.73	.176	4.76	0.44	.106

11a	I am embarrassed to speak in English with other friends	3.59	1.12	.27	3.06	1.25	.30
12	My English teacher gives me opportunities to practice English	4.59	0.51	.123	4.65	0.49	.119
13	My English teacher applies the four language skills in our English class	4.71	0.47	.114	4.71	0.47	.114
14	My English teacher gives me opportunities to practice the language skills	4.53	0.51	.125	4.47	0.51	.125
15	My understanding of the content of the English language teaching materials related to my major was satisfactory	4.12	0.60	.146	4.24	0.75	.182
16	I enjoy learning English together with my classmates in this class	4.00	0.87	.210	4.47	0.51	.125
17	I am interested in and feel involved during the English course	4.29	0.47	.114	4.47	0.51	.125
18	I got a lot of knowledge from every English lecture I participated in	4.29	0.47	.114	4.59	0.51	.123
19	The teaching instructional approach used by my teacher motivates me to learn better	4.18	1.01	.246	4.53	0.51	.125
20	I think my English proficiency is improving	3.88	0.70	.169	4.12	1.11	.270
21	I prefer the instructional approach currently used by my English teacher to previous traditional classroom instructions	3.59	1.33	.322	4.29	0.47	.114
22	My background knowledge in the field of history, which was used for teaching materials in English, motivates me to learn English even harder	4.41	0.62	.150	4.59	0.51	.123
23	I don't feel any fear in attending this class	3.82	0.95	.231	4.29	0.47	.114
24	I am pleased to participate in the discussions held in English in this course	3.65	1.06	.256	3.88	1.05	.256
25	If I have a lot of leisure time, I will spend it studying English more intensively.	3.59	1.12	.272	3.82	0.95	.231

Results reported on in Table 30 below were derived from SPSS analysis of the IC students' self-evaluation of their attitudes and motivation levels before and after the intervention. As I have done for other tables, the results have been arranged in descending order of their levels of significance.

Of the 25 items asking the IC students to self-report on their attitudes and learning motivation before and after the intervention, there were 22 items with increased mean scores, two items with decreased mean scores and one item where the mean score remained unchanged. Overall, these results indicate that participants themselves perceived an improvement in their own attitudes and learning motivation.

It should be noted that in relation to some items increased scores indicated a perceived positive change, while in others decreased scores also indicated a perceived improvement.

In my report below, I have grouped these 25 items into 6 categories: attitude towards the current approach, teacher support, affect, motivation, self-confidence, and sense of improvement. Two items (10a and 11a) under the *affect* category are from the IC students' self-reported EFL performance ratings before and after the intervention. Items in each category are reported on in order of their levels of significance.

Table 30: IC students' self-reported attitudes and motivation levels before and after the intervention

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
11	My English teacher always encourages me to speak in English (Pre-Post)	-0.59	0.71	0.17	-0.95	-0.22	-3.41	16	0.00
9	The EFL teaching media used by my English teacher help me to understand EFL materials better (Pre-Post)	-0.53	0.80	0.19	-0.94	-0.12	-2.73	16	0.01
1	Learning English is important because it is an international language (Pre-Post)	-0.29	0.47	0.11	-0.54	-0.05	-2.58	16	0.02
8	The EFL teaching materials used by my English teacher are highly relevant to my major (Pre-Post)	-0.82	1.38	0.33	-1.53	-0.11	-2.46	16	0.03
16	I enjoy learning English together with my classmates in this class (Pre-Post)	-0.47	0.80	0.19	-0.88	-0.06	-2.43	16	0.03
23	I don't feel any fear in attending this English class (Pre-Post)	-0.47	0.80	0.19	-0.88	-0.06	-2.43	16	0.03
2	I am satisfied with my overall English performance (Pre-Post)	-0.29	0.59	0.14	-0.60	0.01	-2.06	16	0.06
18	I got a lot of knowledge from every English lecture I participated in (Pre-Post)	-0.29	0.59	0.14	-0.60	0.01	-2.06	16	0.06
11a	I am embarrassed to speak in English with other students (Pre-Post)	0.53	1.18	0.29	-0.08	1.14	1.85	16	0.08
4	I am confident to pass English well (Pre-Post)	0.47	1.07	0.26	-0.08	1.02	1.82	16	0.09
21	I prefer the instructional approach currently used by my English teacher to previous traditional classroom instructions (Pre-Post)	-0.71	1.61	0.39	-1.53	0.12	-1.81	16	0.09

Paired Samples Test (Continued)

6	The EFL teaching techniques used by my teacher are motivating (Pre-Post)	-0.35	0.93	0.23	-0.83	0.13	-1.56	16	0.14
7	The EFL teaching materials used by my teacher are interesting (Pre-Post)	-0.35	1.00	0.24	-0.87	0.16	-1.46	16	0.16
10a	I am afraid to speak English in front of classmates (Pre-Post)	0.41	1.18	0.29	-0.19	1.02	1.44	16	0.17
19	The teaching instructional approach used by my teacher motivates me to learn better	-0.35	1.06	0.26	-0.90	0.19	-1.38	16	0.19
22	My background knowledge in the field of history, which was used for teaching materials in English, motivates me to learn English even harder (Pre-Post)	-0.18	0.64	0.15	-0.50	0.15	-1.14	16	0.27
3	I am confident I can learn English well in this class (Pre-Post)	-0.29	1.10	0.27	-0.86	0.27	-1.10	16	0.29
24	I am pleased to participate in the discussions held in English in this course (Pre-Post)	-0.24	0.90	0.22	-0.70	0.23	-1.07	16	0.30
25	If I have a lot of leisure time, I will spend it studying English further (Pre-Post)	-0.24	0.90	0.22	-0.70	0.23	-1.07	16	0.30
17	I am interested in and feel involved during the English course (Pre-Post)	-0.18	0.73	0.18	-0.55	0.20	-1.00	16	0.33
10	My English teacher is friendly (Pre - Post)	-0.12	0.60	0.15	-0.43	0.19	-0.81	16	0.43
5	I am confident I can get a better grade than other students (Pre-Post)	-0.29	1.57	0.38	-1.10	0.51	-0.77	16	0.45
20	I think my English proficiency is improving (Pre-Post)	-0.24	1.39	0.34	-0.95	0.48	-0.70	16	0.50
15	My understanding of the content of the English language teaching materials related to my major was satisfactory (Pre-Post)	-0.12	0.78	0.19	-0.52	0.28	-0.62	16	0.54
12	My English teacher gives me opportunities to practice English (Pre-Post)	-0.06	0.66	0.16	-0.40	0.28	-0.37	16	0.72
14	My English teacher gives me opportunities to practice the language skills (Pre-Post)	0.06	0.66	0.16	-0.28	0.40	0.37	16	0.72
13	My English teacher applies the four language skills in our English class (Pre-Post)	0.00	0.61	0.15	-0.31	0.31	0.00	16	1.00

a. Attitude towards the current approach

Four items were grouped under the category of *attitude toward the current approach,* with 1 item showing a significant increase and 3 items having non-significant increases.

Item number 8, "The EFL teaching materials used by my English teacher are highly relevant to my major", showed a significant increase in mean scores (3.94 → 4.76, p=0.03).

Item number 21, "I prefer the instructional approach currently used by my English teacher to previous traditional classroom instructions", showed a non-significant increase in the mean scores (3.59 → 4.29, p=0.09). Item number 17, "The EFL teaching materials used by my teacher are interesting", also showed a non-significant increase in the mean scores (4.12 → 4.47, p=0.16). Item number 6, "The EFL teaching techniques used by my teacher are motivating", was the last item in this category, and showed a non-significant increase in mean scores (4.29 → 4.65, p=0.44).

b. Teacher support

There were 5 items grouped under the category of *teacher support*, with one item indicating a significant increase, 3 items exhibiting non-significant increases, and 1 item with no change in mean scores.

The first item, number 11, "My English teacher always encourages me to speak in English", produced a significant increase in the mean scores (4.18 → 4.76, p=0.00). The next item (number 10), "My English teacher is friendly", also showed an increase in the mean scores but the increase was not significant (4.53 → 4.65, p=0.43). Item number 12, "My English teacher gives me opportunities to practice English", also showed a non-significant increase in the mean scores (4.59 → 4.65, p=0.72). Item number 14, "My English teacher gives me opportunities to practice language skills" showed a non-significant decrease in the mean scores (4.53 → 4.47, p=0.72). Finally, item number 13, "My English teacher applies the four language skills in our English class", showed no change in mean scores (4.71

= 4.71, p=1.00) suggesting that the IC students' self-reported sense of the application of the four language skills by their previous EFL teachers was the same as for their EFL teacher in the intervention class.

c. Affect

There were 5 items grouped under the *affect* category, 2 items with significant increases and 3 items with non-significant increases.

Item number 16, "I enjoy learning English together with my classmates in this class", showed a significant increase in the mean scores (4.00 → 4.47, p=0.03). The second item, number 23, "I don't feel any fear in attending this English class", also showed a significant increase in the mean scores (3.82 → 4.29, p=0.03), suggesting that students' self-reported anxiety when attending English class decreased significantly. Item number 2, "I am satisfied with my overall English performance", showed a non-significant increase in the mean scores (2.24 → 2.53, p=0.06). Item number 24, "I am pleased to participate in the discussions held in English in this course", also showed a non-significant increase in the mean scores (3.65 → 3.88, p=0.30). Item number 17, "I am interested in and feel involved during the English course", was the last item in this category and showed a non-significant increase in the mean scores (4.29 → 4.47, p=0.33).

As stated above, the following two items (11a and 10a), which were also related to affect, were taken from the IC students' self-reported EFL performance before and after the intervention.

Item number 11 (11a), "I am embarrassed to speak in English with other students", showed a positive but non-significant decrease in the mean scores (3.59 → 3.06, p=0.08). Similarly, item number 10 (10a), "I am afraid to speak English in front of classmates" also showed a positive but non-significant decrease in the mean scores (3.41 → 3.00, p=0.17).

d. Motivation

There were 4 items grouped under the category of *motivation*, 1 item with a significant increase and 3 items with non-significant increases.

The first of these, item number 1, "Learning English is important because it is an international language", produced a significant increase in mean scores (4.71 → 5.00, p=0.02). Secondary, item number 19, "The teaching instructional approach used by my teacher motivates me to learn better", showed a non-significant increase in mean scores (4.18 → 4.53, p=0.19). Item number 22, "My background knowledge in the field of history, which was used for teaching materials in English, motivates me to learn English even harder", also showed a non-significant increase in the mean scores (4.41 → 4.59, p= 0.27). Finally, item number 25, "If I have a lot of leisure time, I will spend it studying English further", also exhibited a non-significant increase in the mean scores (3.59 → 3.82, p=0.30).

e. Self-confidence

There were 3 items grouped under the category of *self-confidence*, 1 item with a non-significant decrease and 2 items with non-significant increases.

Item number 4, "I am confident I can pass English well", exhibited a non-significant decrease in mean scores (4.06 → 3.59, p=0.09). This result may suggest that students' self-reported sense of their confidence to pass English decreased after participating in the intervention program. Item number 3, "I am confident I can learn English well in this class", also showed a non-significant increase in the mean scores (3.82 → 4.12, p=0.29). The last item, number 5, "I am confident I can get a better grade than other students", showed another non-significant increase in the mean scores (2.88 → 3.18, p=0.45).

f. Sense of improvement

There were 4 items grouped under the category of *sense of improvement*, 1 item with a significant increase and 3 items with non-significant increases.

Item number 9, "The EFL teaching media used by my English teacher helps me to understand EFL materials better", showed a significant increase in the mean scores (4.12 → 4.65, p=0.01). Item number 18, "I got a lot of knowledge from every English lecture I participated in", also showed an increase in the mean

scores but the increase was not significant (4.29 → 4.59, p=0.06). Item number 20, "I think my English proficiency is improving" also showed a non-significant increase in the mean scores (3.88 → 4.12, p=0.50). Item number 2, "My understanding of the content of the English language teaching materials related to my major was satisfactory", was the last item with a non-significant increase in the mean scores (4.59 → 4.65, p=0.54).

On the basis of the above results, it can be inferred that the IC students' self-reports on attitude and motivation showed a positive trend from before to after the intervention. Among the 25 self-reported items (see Table 29) and 2 items transferred from the IC students' self-report questionnaire on EFL performance, 24 self-reported items were accompanied by increased mean scores. In terms of the level of significance, Table 30 indicates that 6 self-reported items were accompanied by significance values ranging from 0.00 to 0.03 from the categories of teacher support, sense of improvement, motivation, attitude and affect.

7.3.3 Overview of the results

The IC students' self-reported evaluations of their EFL performance before and after the intervention might be said to show that they felt their oral communication skills improved after they participated in the intervention program. This conclusion was based on the degrees of significance shown in Table 28 related to increased mean scores in two items (oral communication performance and confidence in using vocabulary), each of which can be categorised as related to oral communicative competence.

The IC students' self-reported views on their attitudes and motivation levels in general exhibited a positive trend in the mean scores. This inference is based on the number of positively changing mean scores as indicated in Table 29. From the 25 items related to the IC students' attitudes and motivation levels and the 2 items transferred from the IC students' EFL performance questionnaire analysis, 24 items showed a positive change in mean scores. Although only 6 of these reached statistical significance (see Table 30), they were all marked by a trend in a positive direction of enhanced attitudes and motivation levels.

When all of the findings above are drawn on to address the fourth research question, "Are there self-reported differences in intervention class EFL students' motivation and attitudes following the intervention program and what reasons do they offer for this improvement?" the answer is a cautious yes. The intervention class students' attitudes and motivation levels appeared to improve after they were exposed to a theme-based CBI instructional approach.

Chapter 8 presents findings based on an analysis of qualitative data, and addresses the third research question (What factors identified in a theme-based instructional program appear to contribute to an improvement in EFL students' communication skills?).

CHAPTER EIGHT: THE EFFECTIVENESS OF A THEME-BASED INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM IN IMPROVING EFL STUDENTS' AND MOTIVATION TO LEARN ENGLISH LANGUAGE

8.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses findings from interviews, reflective journals (teacher and students), video recordings and observations to address the third and fourth research questions, "What factors identified in a theme-based instructional program appear to contribute to an improvement in EFL students' communication skills?" and "Are there self-reported differences in intervention class EFL students' motivation and attitudes following the intervention program and what reasons do they offer for this improvement?"

Among the four data collection instruments mentioned above, the interviews were viewed as key since they explored students' perceptions in some detail of how the implementation of a theme-based approach affected them. Other instruments were used as complementary data sources, which analysed would support (or not) findings based on the interviews. These other data sources were also viewed as having certain limitations (as reported on in Chapter 9), and this contributed to their being assigned a complementary role. All qualitative data were analysed in conjunction with one another by using thematic data analysis (as described in Chapter 5).

The interviews, which were designed for students in the intervention class, were conducted at the end of the intervention program. As stated in Chapter 5, Section 5.3.2, eleven students were involved in individual interviews, five females and six males. Pseudonyms are used here to refer to these students.

On the basis of findings emerging from the thematic data analysis, the effectiveness of the theme-based instructional approach is reported on under four broad themes in the following sections: motivation and engagement, affect, self-confidence, and a sense of improvement in English and content-subject learning.

8.2 Motivation and engagement

As stated in Chapter 2, Section 2.6.5, some scholars, i.e. Dörnyei (2005); Dörnyei and Csizér (1998); Richards and Schmidt (2010); Winke (2005) have considered motivation to be one of the driving factors that can lead to successful second language learning.

On the basis of the qualitative data analysis, three sub-themes emerged, of particular pertinence to RQ4. They were teacher factors, peer and teacher influence, and a sense of the importance of English. Related to Dörnyei's (2005) L2 motivational self-system, the first two sub-themes seemed to relate to the *L2 learning experience* and the last sub-theme appeared to relate to the *ought-to L2 self*. Each of the sub-themes is discussed in the sections below. More about the relationship of these sub-themes to Dörnyei's (2005) L2 motivational self-system will be discussed in Chapter 9.

8.2.1 Teacher factor

The findings from the interviews and other supporting qualitative data showed that three teacher factors contributing to students' motivation and engagement to learn English. Those factors were teaching techniques, teaching materials and teaching media.

8.2.1.1 Teaching techniques

Based on the information gathered from the student interviews, students' reflective journals, teacher's reflective journals, and video recordings, four positive teaching techniques were identified: types of teaching and learning activities used, teaching style, active encouragement to speak English, and students' opportunities to use their mother tongue when they did not know what to say in English.

a. Types of teaching and learning activities

The interviewees identified three different types of teaching and learning activities
for comment: retelling, role-playing and class presentation.

Retelling

Retelling activities were performed each time the students finished watching a
short video, listening to a tape, or reading a passage. Each student was encouraged
to sum up in their own words verbally the content they had watched in the video,
listened to or read. Each student's summary was cross-checked with other
students' opinions. For example, after asking a student to retell a story based on
what they had seen in a movie, other students were asked to agree or disagree with
the summary. I asked one student after another until the students reached a
consensus. In relation to this teaching and learning activity, one of the students,
Synyster, said that it motivated him and his classmates to speak.

> Ah, their motivation was good. They were eager to follow the
> lectures. Many of them competed to express their opinions.
> They were enthusiastic to speak when you asked them to retell
> the story in their own words. Yah, their motivation was good
> (Synyster).

Similar to Synyster, Andriy found that retelling motivated him to improve his
speaking competence. He was inspired by his classmates who were active during
the retelling activities. He was sure that if his classmates could improve their
speaking competence, so could he.

> After watching movies, we were asked to retell in our own words
> what we had watched. Everybody in this class seemed to be
> active. This condition made me motivated too. If other students
> were able to communicate actively, I had to be able too. (Andriy)

Another retelling I used was to ask students to write a summary of what they had
watched, listened to or read. I gave them 15 to 25 minutes to write their summary
in their own words. When finished, I asked one or two students to read out their
summary and asked other students to respond. At the end of the activity, I

collected students' work and returned them with errors corrected and some comments. Regarding this learning activity, Lolipop considered it had helped her improve her writing skills.

> Yes, my writing improved too. You always gave us assignments to write a paragraph retelling what we had learned on that day. You also taught us how to write a good paragraph. Applying what you had told us in writing made our writing good and even better, I think. (Lolipop)

Jaeng also considered that retelling improved his writing skills. A better understanding of what he had watched in the short movie helped him retell the story in the form of one or more paragraphs.

Student interest and engagement in retelling was also apparent in the video recordings. From a video recording dated 7 October 2009 on the subject of Lapu-Lapu, a Filipino hero from Mactan Island, I could see that the students were engaged during the retelling activities. They appeared attentive while watching a short movie about this hero. As I saw it, they had to watch the movie carefully in order to find the answers of the comprehension questions they had read earlier which focused their attention and their concentration was sustained throughout.. They appeared to have remembered all the questions and focused on the movie to find appropriate answers. Some female students referred to their reading material while they were watching the movie. They looked as if they were trying to locate where they could find the answers to the questions. Other female students engaged in quiet conversation with their peers. They appeared to be working collaboratively to find answers to the given questions. Some male students were writing as they watched and looked to be taking notes for their summaries. Other male students nodded their heads up and down several times, while the rest of the students appeared concentrated on understanding the events in the film. All these behaviours collectively suggested that students were engaged with the story presented in the movie.

When it was time to answer the questions related to the short movie, some students voluntarily raised their hands to show that they were ready to answer the questions. They looked keen to share their answers with the class. Some of them

raised their hands and shouted at me saying, "Let me answer it," "I'm ready to answer it," or "Give me a chance to answer it." Other students raised their hand and smiled at me indicating that they would like to answer the questions. Similar behaviours were exhibited for subsequent questions.

The situation was somewhat different when students were asked to retell the story. The number of students who looked ready to retell the story was smaller than the number willing to answer the comprehension questions. Only some students looked confident and ready to retell the story. Others looked passive and appeared anxious if they were asked to offer a retelling. I selected one rather quiet student but he appeared reluctant to retell the story. However, I kept encouraging him to try. He tried his best but could recall only a little information. The second student whom I asked was able to explain the story in detail without reading his notes. The next three students I asked to retell the story appeared to make use of their notes. The last two students spoke slowly and sometimes haltingly, but they could explain the story without reading their notes. Other students appeared to be attentive, listening to their classmates retelling the story. Of the seven students who were asked to retell the story, then, only one seemed to be unable to tell the story completely. The other six retold the story coherently, even though some read their notes when speaking. These video-based observations suggest that most of the students were motivated and engaged during the retelling activity.

Role-playing

The second type of teaching and learning activity, role-playing, was introduced after mid-term. In this learning activity, which was focused on a special event in history, students were asked to familiarise themselves with the situation and characters related to the topic, and to act out the characters. For example, the topic of the role-playing concerned the arrival of Magellan, a Portuguese explorer in the Philippines at the beginning of the 16th century. Students were asked to take on the roles of Magellan, his crew, King Humabon and Lapu-lapu. They needed to learn, for example, about the situation when Magellan met King Humabon. They created conversations between Magellan and King Humabon, which were based on historical accounts.

Based on students' interviews, my reflective journal, video recordings, and observer's notes, the majority of the students in the intervention class appeared to exhibit a high degree of interest in these role-playing activities.

The data from the interview transcripts showed that six of the eleven students (pseudonyms) interviewed talked about the benefits of the role-plays. Yogi said that it encouraged him "to talk naturally in English". Similarly, Lolipop said that it demanded students' spontaneous understanding of the situation and the courage to speak. Therefore, it helped them to develop their speaking competence. In line with these two students, Andriy found that the role-play challenged him to speak:

> When we had role-playing, we were asked to learn the context, actors and settings. When Lapu-Lapu talked to Magellan, we had to create our own statements. This activity was really challenging us to speak in context. It is really motivating. (Andriy)

Moemboet added that it was "one way to eliminate boredom in learning". Defran claimed that it was a very interesting learning activity. He expressed the opinion that there should have been more role-plays in the class.

> I think there should be more role-playings. Students will get more benefits in this activity. They not only have to memorise the utterances and understand the context of the conversation, they must [also] act the same way as the people in the dialogue. For example, when we act as a king, we must imagine how the king speaks to his servants, and how the servants talk to the king, their body language… (Defran)

Finally, Bintang maintained that the role-play provided every student with the opportunity to speak. It was not dominated by certain competent students as tended to happen during whole-class discussions.

> In that activity, every student had opportunity to speak. If it was a discussion, only students who knew the topics well and were able to speak in English would dominate the class. In role-

playing, everybody must speak. Everybody was given chance to

speak. It was the one that I like better, sir. (Bintang)

Notes from my reflective journal suggested that students were able to competently perform the role-playing activities. Certainly, they were able to devise their own dialogue, with some able to extemporise spontaneously.

Students could perform the activities well. They could

make their own dialogues, for example, a conversation

between Magellan and King Carlos or between Magellan

and his enemy, Lapu-Lapu. The expressions students used

looked spontaneous and quite natural for students who

learned English as a foreign language. Some students even

did not read the dialogues they made. They just expressed

what they thought they had to say naturally. (Teacher's

reflective journal, October 26 2009)

In addition, data from a video recording (26 October 2009) supported the above findings. The students certainly appeared to be engaged during the role-play session. Those who were asked to perform the role-plays in front of the class worked hard to express themselves as well as they could. From the moment they began preparing their dialogues, one could see them working out what the characters in the story should say and taking appropriate notes. They shared these with their peers and asked them for their response to the dialogue they had written. They also ensured that the dialogue they collaboratively produced was coherent. With the help of story-plots displayed on the wide screen, they attempted to act out their roles and while delivering their lines. Other students in the audience seemed to enjoy these role-playing activities. Some of them laughed when observing the role-players say something funny or haltingly. At the same time, the role-players laughed along with the audience. Some role-players used non-verbal expression as they acted out their roles. The expressions students used appeared spontaneous and quite natural. Some of them did not need to read the dialogues they made. They appeared to have memorised the dialogue lines they wrote.

Notes from Wati (pseudonym), who observed the role-playing activities in the class also indicated students' motivation and engagement in the learning activities.

> The students were enthusiastic in performing the learning activities from making dialogues to performing them in front of the class. Although some of the students seemed to be a bit nervous when performing the dialogues, in general, they had performed the dialogues well. (Wati)

Class presentation

The third type of teaching and learning activity, class presentation, was performed during the last three days of the intervention program. In this activity, students in groups of two or three were asked to orally present their summaries of materials taken from the topics discussed during the teaching and learning activities. They were advised to use any teaching media they preferred. At the end of the presentation, the student audience were given opportunities to ask questions related to the presentation. Each group was expected to answer audience questions as best they could. If they could not answer the questions, they could ask for help from audience members or from me as their teacher. A number of students found that this activity provided them with valuable experience. Two students, Andriy and Rendi, commented on the benefits of this learning activity. Andriy considered that the class presentation improved his speaking skills.

> We presented our material in front of other people. This activity demanded us to talk. Doing a lot practice in this activity helps us controlling the mistakes we make. When we make mistakes in grammar or pronunciation, we can directly correct our mistakes with help from our team member, friends, and or teacher. Supports from friends and the teacher made us relaxed in delivering our material. (Andriy)

Rendi also found the class presentation useful, as it reduced nervousness speaking in front of other people and increased teamwork.

I did not really feel nervous when presenting our material in front
of the class because I and my peer helped one another. If I could
not answer a question or mispronounce some words, my peer
helped me and vice versa. It not only improved my English but
also increased teamwork. (Rendi)

Although the group presentation seemed not so interesting as the role-playing to
the students, it attracted students' approval as well. Some reported that these
teaching and learning activities helped them develop their speaking skills
(Zarathustra) and increase their confidence in speaking in front of a number of
people (Ririn). Ririn stated:

I like class presentation very much. It trained me how to deliver
material orally in front of other people, which will be useful for
me as a teacher in the future. It encouraged me to speak in
English although I still made a lot of mistakes. I am sure it
improved my speaking skill. (Ririn)

The two comments above suggest that students enjoyed the class presentations
and were engaged during them. They did not seem to be worried by the questions
asked by the audience or mistakes in grammar or pronunciation they made,
because other group member were able to help them. They could also ask the
audience to help them if they were unable to answer questions. Therefore, what
they needed was to focus orally as best they could. They also saw this activity as
helping improve their speaking skills and oral confidence.

Data from video recordings from two successive sessions with the IC class (28 &
30 October 2009) supported the above claim. The video recording indicated that
the students and the presenters were relaxed. This could be inferred from the way
the presenters presented their materials, made use of media such as Powerpoint or
an overhead projector, and responded to the audience's questions. The students
did not look tense or anxious because of their weaknesses in grammar and
pronunciation or inability to answer questions correctly. In contrast, they appeared
to be confident in presenting their materials and responding to questions from the
audience regardless of whether they spoke using incorrect English grammar and
pronunciation. As seen in video recordings, some students presented their material

orally without reading their handout. Other presenters read their handout. Some others presented their material by reading their Powerpoint material on the screen. Participants sometimes code-switched to Indonesian when they did not know English words. They asked for help from audience members or me to answer difficult questions. In brief, they did not appear to consider the class presentation as a burden. Rather they appeared to consider it a medium to demonstrate their speaking performance as best they could in front of their classmates.

The students in the audience, were attentive and quiet when the presenters presented their materials. They appeared to be trying to understand what the presenters were talking about by watching the slides and listening to what the presenters were taking about. This situation changed, however, when one of the presenters made mistakes, especially in pronunciation. Many audience members immediately laughed in response. Some presenters also laughed along with the audience, even though they were aware that it was their mistakes that had caused the laughter. This situation did not last long as the presenters asked the audience to let them continue their presentation. In general, then, the atmosphere in the class appeared relaxed and enjoyable, and this activity seemed to be a positive academic experience for students.

Of the three teaching and learning activities identified above, role-playing appeared to be the favourite, with interview responses about the teaching techniques above indicating that role-playing activities attracted most student comment.

b. Teaching style

As stated above, teaching style was also one of the teacher factors associated with students' motivation and engagement. Based on students' opinions as expressed in the interviews, they considered my teaching style relaxed, easy to understand and fun. At least three students commented on my teaching style. The first two students, Jodi and Moemboet, thought that my teaching style enabled them to feel relaxed.

> First from the way of your teaching style. It was not stressful.
> We were free to express what we had in our mind. (Jodi)

I think the way you taught us, sir. The way you taught us was

not stressful. It was different from the ways of my English

teachers at junior or senior high school. The way of your

teaching was interesting, not stressful, and easy to understand.

(Moemboet)

The third student, Zarathusra, also said that the way I taught English made students eager to attend:

I saw many of my friends were motivated to learn English in this

lecture. They looked happy when we had English lecture. One of

my friends, Rudy, told me that although he could not speak

English, he would always come to the lecture. He said our

English lecturer was kind and friendly. He really enjoyed

attending the lecture. So am I, I did not want to lose in speaking

English with my classmates in this class. If they can speak

English, I must be able to speak English too. (Zarathusra)

The three comments above suggest that the class became relaxed, fun, interesting and easy to understand because of my teaching style. It appeared to affect at least some students' motivation and engagement to learn the subject. I am aware that readers may well question whether these comments (and others in this chapter) can be taken on face value since they derive from interviews where I, as teacher, was the interviewer. I will address the issue of trustworthiness in my discussion of the limitations of this study in Chapter 9.

c. Teacher's active encouragement

The way I encouraged and expected students to speak more in English seemed to have played a role in increasing some students' motivation to learn the subject. This finding was based on three students' interview comments. Andriy stated:

What I liked from this class was that every student was

encouraged to express their ideas in English, no matter our

English is good or bad. You always said if we want to be fluent

in English, we had to talk a lot in English. (Andriy)

Similar to Andriy, Mudjiana added:

> Since in this lecture, we were trained in speaking with other
> classmates in English, we were encouraged to practise our
> English in four different skills. I found at least my English now is
> better than my English at high school. (Mudjiana)

Finally, Jodi thought that the teacher's active encouragement to speak in English stimulated and motivated him to speak more.

> Because you always encouraged us to talk, I think whatever I
> said would not be problems. Because we are still learning,
> making mistakes can be understood. The most important for me
> was to keep trying to speak better and better. (Jodi)

d. Opportunity to use the mother tongue

The fourth teaching strategy which I have associated with the teacher factor theme that appeared to affect student motivation and engagement in learning English was the opportunity for students to use their mother tongue. The students sometimes found themselves stuck for words. They did not know what words to use to express their ideas or opinions in English. To help students solve this problem, I encouraged them to code-switch to their mother tongue. In this way, they were able to continue expressing their ideas without any fear of not knowing the English words. They could use Indonesian words instead. This teaching strategy, based on students' opinions expressed in the interviews, positively affected their motivation to speak. As stated by Moemboet: "I did not feel nervous since you also encouraged me to express it in Indonesian when I did not know the English words." Lolipop made a similar comment to Moemboet. She stated:

> Also from you as the teacher, you did not force me to speak in
> English if I was not ready. I could use either English or
> Indonesian to explain what I would like to say. These all
> encouraged me to speak. (Lolipop)

8.2.1.2 Teaching material

Teaching materials were the second component under the teacher factor that seemed to motivate and engage students to learn English. As will be seen, the teaching materials used for students in the intervention class played an important part in increasing their motivation and engagement to learn, since the topics of discussion were derived from the content subject they took in the same semester, i.e. the History of Southeast Asian Nations. This prior knowledge provided students with ideas that they could express orally. According to Brewster and Fager (2000), "Students are more engaged in activities when they can build on prior knowledge and draw clear connections between what they are learning and the world they live in" (p. 14). This view was reflected in the comments of a number of students in this study. Mudjiana stated:

> Here what we were learning was a subject in our own major,
> history. We found it very useful as it is related to our own subject.
> We will be motivated to learn or know more about the subject in
> English. As a result, our motivation of learning is high which in the
> end increases our motivation to learn English too. (Mudjiana)

Mudjiana's opinion was also supported by Jodi, who noted:

> If the teaching materials were from our own subject, I think our
> motivation would increase, sir. Usually, if we know what we are
> learning, our self-confidence will increase. (Jodi)

The topics of discussion taken from students' content area also prompted a certain amount of student curiosity. They were curious how their subject might be learned in English. This curiosity in the end appeared to motivate them to learn, as explained by Ririn, "They [students] had high motivation in the class because many of them would like to know how their content-subject was taught in English." Rendi also explained:

> In this lecture, we learned history through a medium of English.
> We were motivated to hear how our subject was discussed in
> English. Since we were enthusiastic to know the subject instructed

in English, automatically our motivation to learn English would

increase too. (Rendi)

Students' explanations above were also supported by Wati, one of my colleagues, who observed the class presentation. She stated: "The students looked motivated not only because they were challenged to do a great task but also because the topics that they presented were relevant to their major" (Wati).

Such evidence suggests the likelihood that these theme-based teaching materials, taken from the students' content subject, affected their motivation to learn English. Students who had prior knowledge of what was being learned or discussed in English had ideas that could be shared, and they appeared to be motivated to express them. In addition, their curiosity to learn their content subject via English instruction further seemed to increase their motivation to learn English.

8.2.1.3 Teaching media

Teaching media was the third teacher factor that appeared to motivate and engage students in learning English in this study. The use of various teaching media (short videos, power point, cassette player and computer with LCD projector) seemed to spark interest in the intervention-class students. They considered that such teaching media were different from the ones they had experienced in their previous English teaching at high school, where their English teachers typically used only textbooks and a cassette player.

Three students shared their opinions about the use of various teaching media in this study. Mudjiana stated: "In my opinion, the teaching media used were already good. You used various teaching media. When I was still at high school, the teaching media used were only textbook and tape recorder." A similar opinion was expressed by Lolipop, who remarked:

I found this lecture did not easily make me bored because it has various activities that were interesting. You provided us with interesting movies describing events in the history and power point presentation with some animations that really made us interested to

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follow. They did not make us easily sleepy. The standard lectures
we had usually made us bored and sleepy. (Lolipop)

Such interview statements suggest that the use of various media affected students'
motivation to learn, since they became engaged during the teaching and learning
process. They participated actively as well, because they were encouraged to
verbalise any lacks in their understanding. Rendi said:

As you used various teaching media like videos and power point,
we were encouraged to ask questions when we did not understand
or wanted to know more what we had seen. I think the way you
taught us with various teaching media increased my motivation to
learn English better. (Rendi)

Among the various teaching media used, several students found short movies to
be the most interesting one. Four students said that watching movies helped them
understand the events in history better (Jaeng, Jodi, Zarathustra and Rendi). Jodi
spoke of the benefits of watching short videos during the history class:

Like yesterday, we watched a video about Mallaca. At the end of
watching the video, we were encouraged to retell the story in our
own words. Witnessing what happened ourselves through the
video, I found it easy to recall what I had seen in the video and
express them orally in my own words. (Jodi)

Another student, Zarathustra, explained that he was able to remember events in
the video clearly, as his explanation illustrates.

I like them all [teaching media] basically, but I like watching
videos very much. It really gave me a lot of information, for
example, we could see the life in that period. I was really
impressed. Even until now, I am still able to remember some
events that I saw in the video. (Zarathustra)

Students' interest in learning seemed to increase when short movies were being
played. As seen from the explanation below, almost all students took part and
most of them were able to understand the topic being discussed because they

could both listen to the sound-track dialogue in the movie and observe what the actors/speakers were doing. These two aspects of the short movies seemed to increase students' interest and motivate them to understand what was being discussed. As explained by Mudjiana below:

> I could see when you explained some topics in English, only some students understood what you said. Others seemed not to be interested in listening what you said. But when you played the videos, almost all students participated to watch them. In my opinion, students were more motivated to learn English when they watched videos. In other words, learning English while watching videos helped students understand the topics of discussion better. (Mudjiana)

From Rendi's explanation below, it can be inferred that the moving images and sound in the videos kept him alert and interested, and provided clues as to the meaning behind what was being said:.

> If we are reading a textbook, it is too monotonous. We will feel sleepy soon. However, if we watch movie, the animation in the movie makes us keep awake. Also, the English instruction and visuals displayed help to understand the message in the video better. Although, we don't really understand the English spoken in the movie, the visuals and animations in the movie help to understand what is happening. (Rendi)

Curiosity about what was happening maintained students' interest in watching. They could understand the events and could remember them as well. Mostly they appeared to have absorbed the movie content when asked to retell it. As a result, they were motivated to communicate content either orally or in writing. This can be seen from a video recording taken during the fourth meeting of the class (5 October 2009). Students appeared engaged in understanding *The History of Singapore* (as they were asked to retell the story once they finished watching the movie). Virtually none of them chatted with their peers. Some appeared to note down what they saw so that they could use their notes to inform their retelling of the story.

Based on the analysis above, it can be concluded that students were motivated to learn English because of the range of teaching media used, particularly movies. They were engaged during these teaching and learning activities because they found them interesting and helpful to them.

8.2.2 Peer and teacher influence

Peer and teacher influence was the second sub-theme to emerge under the motivation and engagement category as affecting students' motivation to learn English. This sub-theme included both interaction among the students themselves and interaction between the students and the teacher. On the basis of the data analysis, these kinds of interaction affected students' motivation in several ways. These are discussed below.

Students' motivation to learn English appeared to increase after seeing that their classmates were able to speak English well. Three students commented on this factor. As stated by Mudjiana:

> I sometimes did not understand what was being discussed. This
> condition made me a little bit frustrated. But I was motivated by
> many of my friends who had good competence in English. They
> could speak English well. I tried my best to act the same ways as
> they did. What I meant was that I must work hard, confident and
> courageous to be able to speak English. (Mudjiana)

A similar opinion was expressed by Jaeng, who stated:

> I found that my friends' motivation in learning English was high.
> Some of them could speak English well and were active in the
> class. They have motivated me to learn English better. I wished I
> could have good proficiency of English like them. (Jaeng)

Likewise, Rendi explained:

> One of the factors that motivated me to speak more in the class
> was my friends. As you could see Synyster and Zarathustra have
> good English competence. They could speak better than anybody

else could. I was challenged to be like them or even better than they were. I would like to prove that not only those who were from Palembang could speak English, but we from suburban areas could also speak English. (Rendi)

Palembang is the capital of South Sumatra province, and is the second biggest city in Sumatra Island and the seventh biggest in Indonesia (World Bank, 2012). It also features some famous tourist sites. Being a modern city and tourist destination, Palembang has many facilities and infrastructure that enable its inhabitants to develop their foreign language proficiency including English. In relation to Rendi's comment above, he felt that he had no problem in developing his English proficiency even though he lived in a small town about 40 kilometres from Palembang. Despite the limitations of his own town, he remained motivated to improve his English proficiency as well as (if not better than) his sophisticated peers from Palembang.

Students' motivation in learning English also appeared to be affected by peer support. When they did not know what words to use, how to compose their thoughts in English or what topics were being talked about by the teacher, for example, they could communicate with their peers, as indicated by Andriy and Ririn below.

Yeah, when you were talking or when my classmates were talking in English, I could not understand them. Only a few sentences could be understood. As a result, I always ask my neighbour to tell me what was being discussed. I was happy as my peer did not hesitate to help. (Andriy)

Ririn added:

I think the interaction among students was already good. They could ask their classmates next to them or they could directly answer what other classmates asked. (Ririn)

Two students commented when interviewed that their motivation was affected by how they experienced their relationship with me as their English teacher. As discussed previously, my teaching style, which was considered friendly, helpful

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and open to students' questions, along with the classroom atmosphere, which was seen to be relaxed and fun, encouraged students to participate actively in the teaching and learning activities. This is reflected in both Rendi's and Ririn's interview comments.

> In my opinion, the way you taught us was the best I have ever experienced, sir. I don't mean to exaggerate. This lecture, compared to English teaching I had since the first year of high school, was the best I ever had. From this lecture, a desire to know and master English is growing rapidly. (Rendi)

Ririn stated:

> The interaction between students and the teacher in the class was also good. Students did not feel reluctant to ask questions whenever they were given opportunities to. The teacher also responded all students' questions or opinions well. (Ririn)

Based on the comments above, it seemed that the interaction among the students and interaction between the students and myself as teacher played a role in motivating them to learn English. Through class interaction, students witnessed their peers' ability to speak English. This motivated at least some students to learn English and apply themselves. Peer and teacher support during the teaching and learning activities increased their motivation as well. Peers' help in interpreting class discussions and the teacher's positive response to students' questions and answers appeared to contribute to students' motivation.

8.2.3 Sense of the importance of English

An analysis of interview data suggested that students had an awareness of the value of English. They were aware that English as an international language was one of the foreign languages they commonly had to deal with, for example, in university textbooks, the internet, and in relation to mobile phones, Western movies, and electronic appliance manuals. This need for English, as felt by Rendi, when he was watching Western movies or listening to songs he could not understand, made him aware of how important English was. He stated:

When I was watching Western movies, I wish I could understand what the actors talked. I also like to listen to western songs. With good competence in English, I can enjoy all these activities. (Rendi)

Students' awareness of the importance of English was further affected by the need to graduate from university. Students who intend to sit for the undergraduate oral exam must show evidence that they have basic proficiency in English, that is, they must have passed an ITP-TOEFL-like test with a minimum score of 450. As Zarathustra emphasised:

I always have high spirit in learning English. I must work hard to improve my English. Otherwise, I will not be able to graduate from this university as before we graduate, we must show that we have passed TOEFL test with a minimum passing grade of 450. (Zarathustra)

Students were also inspired by the example of lecturers who had won scholarships to take postgraduate degrees abroad. At present, opportunities for scholarships to continue study abroad are widely available in Indonesia. One of the requirements students must meet, however, is that they have a high degree of proficiency in English as reflected in their TOEFL or IELTS scores. This awareness about the role of English can be seen from both Andriy's and Rendi's comments.

I think English is very useful for my future. When I would like to continue my study for master or doctoral degree, I must show my English proficiency like TOEFL or IELTS. English is indeed needed for our future later. (Andriy)

Rendi added:

I want to be like you and other lecturers in our department who can continue their studies abroad. Our head of department took her master degree in USA. Mr. Denny [pseudonym], the lecturer of History of Southeast Asian Nations, got his MA abroad as well. You and these two lecturers inspired me to learn English well from

> now on if I want to continue my study for master or may be
> doctoral program overseas in the future. (Rendi)

As can be seen, student awareness of the importance of English was prompted by their current and future needs for English competence. This awareness motivated them to learn English.

8.3 Affect

Affect was the second of four thematic categories to emerge from an analysis of the qualitative data. Arnold and Brown (1999) define affect as "aspects of emotion, feeling, mood or attitude which condition behaviour " (p. 1). These aspects are widely viewed as having an important role in the success or failure of second or foreign language learning. Arnold and Brown (1999) claimed that our affective factors, that is, "the way we feel about ourselves and our capabilities can either facilitate or impede our learning" (p. 8). Pavlenko (2013) expressed comparable sentiments regarding the importance of affect in language learning. Indeed, she argued for a mutual relationship between affect and language learning, which was based on research findings on psychological aspects of L2 learning and affect. She further stated:

> [T]he relationship between affect and languages learned later in life
> is dynamic and reciprocal–while the initial attraction may lead to
> L2 learning, the learning may also result in the feeling of greater
> language emotionality and reinforce the attachment to the language
> in question. (p. 17)

The explanation above emphasises the role of affective aspects in second or foreign language learning, since these condition the learner's disposition towards language learning. As stated by Stern (1983), "the affective component contributes at least as much as and often more to language learning than the cognitive skills" (p. 386). In fact, affective aspects have become an important contemporary research trend in language learning. As claimed by Hurd (2008), "there is an emerging consensus on the primacy of affect in learning and that language learning is greatly enhanced by attention to affective aspect" (p. 219).

Affective aspects also emerged as a finding in this study. Based on the interview analysis, I identified four sub-categories under affect. Three of them were 'negative' while the fourth was 'positive'. The three negative affects were shame, anxiety and boredom, while the positive one was enjoyment. These are treated in turn below.

8.3.1 Shame

Some students reported that they felt ashamed when learning English during the intervention program, which they viewed as arising from several factors. One was the inability to speak English. As stated by Jaeng, whose inability to speak English seemed to have caused him to experience negative emotions,

> The problem is that I cannot speak in English. I am actually the problem here. Since I cannot speak in English, so ... I cannot actively involve myself in this lecture. I felt ashamed, sir. Most of my friends could speak English but I was not able to speak English at all. I didn't have any confidence to express my opinions in English. I was mentally low, sir. (Jaeng)

Students' feelings of shame were also produced by their sense of having a limited English vocabulary. They sometimes felt ashamed because they had to stop talking, because they did not know what words to use. This feeling was expressed by Mudjiana: "Because I have very limited vocabulary, I did not know what words I used to express my ideas. I sometimes felt ashamed when I had to stop talking because of lack of vocabulary." From my reflective notes (7 October 2009), I noted that one male student, Kane (pseudonym) felt embarrassed when he mispronounced the word *Magellan*. Many of his friends laughed at him because he pronounced it with a Javanese accent. I also noted at the third meeting when we discussed the history of Mallaca, that Ririn had to stop her retelling about Parameswara, because she did not know certain words in English. While she was trying to find the words, some students laughed at her confused facial expression. She appeared to be embarrassed because of being laughed at by her classmates. She then told me that she could not continue her retelling. These students' embarrassment in relation to the three instances above happened when they were

individually asked to retell the story they had watched or read. This situation was different from ones that occurred where students made mistakes in their grammar or pronunciation during the presentation tasks or role-playing. In these situations, they did not experience the same kind of embarrassment from being laughed at because they were working in groups (see *Types of teaching and learning activities* under Sub-section 8.2.1.1).

Based on these students' comments and my reflective notes above, it seemed that shame was felt by students when they believed that they were not proficient in English. The inability to answer a teacher's question when this was witnessed by other students, for example, also made them ashamed. In addition, they felt ashamed when they could not continue what they had to say because of not knowing what words to use.

8.3.2 Anxiety

Students reported that they felt anxious because of their low grammatical competence. As stated by Synyster, "I was worried about my grammar. I could not use the sentence formula well." Such anxiety was also reported by another student, Bintang. She was afraid that her sentences were ambiguous and hard for others to understand. This anxiety was likely to be worse when she had to speak in front of others.

> Speaking in front of the class and writing paragraphs were very
> difficult for me to do. The problem was that I did not understand
> the tenses. I did not understand the tenses at all. I did not have
> enough vocabulary as well. Therefore, it was hard for me to
> understand what you said when you and my other classmates spoke
> in English. (Bintang)

Students' lack of confidence in speaking was another cause of anxiety and attributed to their difficulties with English pronunciation. Students were worried whether they had pronounced the words correctly. They were afraid others would laugh at them or make fun of them. As stated by Ririn, "I was worried about my pronunciation." This condition made her less willing to express her ideas orally. Another student was also worried because of his poor English pronunciation. "I

was afraid that other students would make fun of me. They would laugh me a lot when I made mistakes in my pronunciation" (Zarathustra). Similar to students' feelings of shame, anxiety occurred in instances when they were individually asked to retell what they had watched or read. They did not appear to experience such feelings when they worked in groups.

In summary, low proficiency in grammar and pronunciation were reported by a number of students as factors that caused anxiety.

8.3.3 Boredom

A further negative emotion identified from the interview data analysis was boredom. This result showed that not all students were happy with the new teaching approach. At least two students, Ririn and Mudjiana, described themselves as bored with the continual focus on history. Ririn commented that: "Some students said they felt bored because the lecturer discussed stories monotonously." Ririn added that "little knowledge about the content subject discussed and low English competence" inhibited students from understanding what was being discussed. Mudjiana said: "I sometimes found myself bored because the teaching and learning activities were mainly focused on discussing history" (Mudjiana). She further stated:

> What I meant was that the teaching and learning process was
> mainly focused on discussing history. It made me bored. There
> should be some variations, for example, if today we discuss
> history, tomorrow we discuss grammar, the next day is history
> again, grammar, and so on. (Mudjiana)

It appears from such comments that some students considered some variation in the topics of discussions during the EFL teaching with a theme-based instructional approach to be desirable. In their view, the focus of discussion should have been not only on topics from the content subject. Instead, it should have been on aspects of language as well, for example, grammar. By way of contextualising the above students' comments, I need to point out that I did design the teaching materials for the intervention class to include discussions of grammar and paragraph writing. The reported boredom these students experienced may have

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related to the fact that the topics of discussion in the first six meetings were drawn exclusively from content subject. Had I arranged the topics of discussion by interspersing discussions of grammar and paragraph writing between the discussions of topics based on the history content, it may be that these students would not have felt bored in the way they described. I will comment further on this in my discussion chapter.

8.3.4 Enjoyment

Enjoyment was a positive emotion commented on. As stated by Zarathustra in the section on teaching styles above, his classmates appeared to enjoy the English learning activities. A similar opinion was also expressed by Moemboet and Jodi. Moemboet said, "I could see that most of my classmates enjoyed this class. They were enthusiastic to come. The topics discussed in this class were also interesting." Jodi stated:

> In my opinion, this lecture is better than any English classes I had before. We used to be passive. Just listened to what our teacher asked to do. In this lecture, everybody was encouraged to talk. The English subject that we used to think was very difficult, was not so difficult in this subject. We were not so stressful. In fact, we were relaxed and fun during this lecture. So I think this lecture was very useful for us. (Jodi)

That students enjoyed the teaching and learning activities through the theme-based approach was also evidenced in the video recordings and students' journals. Data obtained from a video recording on 5 October 2009 showed that students looked enthusiastic when they watched a short movie on Parameswara, the founder of Mallaca. They were attentive when watching it and when asked to retell the story in the video, they seemed delighted to do so. As mentioned previously, some students raised their hands to show that they were eager participate in the retelling activity. Data from another video recording (26 October 2009) provided evidence for students' enthusiasm in performing a role-play about the arrival of Magellan in the Philippines. I inferred this from their quick response when asked to work in groups to discuss the utterances they needed to make based

on the characters involved in the story. Their group discussions sounded cheerful as they practised their devised scripts. Some participants laughed loudly when listening to other group members practising their lines. They appeared to be excited when their group was asked to perform their role-plays in front of the class.

Another video recording of a class presentation (30 October 2009) showed that students appeared to experience enjoyment when performing the group presentation. As I saw it, this was because it was the moment when they were able to show their ability to talk orally in front of their peers. As explained earlier, they did not seem to consider the task to be a burden. As I viewed them preparing for the presentation, it seemed that they experienced little difficulty presenting their materials using presentation media. Some groups prepared and presented their presentations using power points or slides using an OHP, where they could explain what showed on the screen orally. Other groups just read their summary of the topics presented. Whether they used media or not, the students looked confident that they could manage their presentations well. They appeared to take the question and answer session in their stride. The audience was limited to three questions only. In general, presenters prepared answers collaboratively, and shared duties with respect to who would answer the questions. They explained the answers orally as well as they could. When they got stuck because of not knowing certain English words, they explained their answers in Indonesian. In this way, they kept their oral explanation running smoothly. They did not appear embarrassed when some audience members laughed at them because of their incorrect pronunciation. Some of them even laughed alongside the audience. In brief, they did not look anxious or uncomfortable during the presentation. They simply seemed to enjoy the experience.

Students' journals indicated similar findings. Some students' answers when asked about their personal feelings regarding the learning activities they experienced in class were positive. Sutra said that although he did not really understand English, he found the English class fun. Moemboet said that: "This English class is really great and it motivates me to learn English."

From the above analysis, it can be seen that in terms of affect, some students reported that they were ashamed, anxious and bored during the intervention program, while others found the classes enjoyable. The causes of shame were identified as an inability to speak English and limited vocabulary, which sometimes caused students to be quiet because they lacked an adequate vocabulary to explain their ideas. Students' anxiety was viewed as being caused by their inability to speak English well and poor pronunciation skills. Boredom appeared to be caused by the continual discussion of historical topics based on their content subject. Some students would have liked variation in the topics of discussion, for example, aspects of language. Meanwhile, other students found the English class enjoyable.

8.4 Self-confidence

Self-confidence was the third theme identified from students' interviews. As defined by Dornyei (1994), self-confidence is "the belief that one has the ability to produce results, accomplish goals or perform tasks competently" (p. 277). Self-confidence is deemed to be important in second or foreign language learning as it can motivate students to learn.

A number of students in the intervention program commented on self-confidence. Based on their comments, it was apparent that their confidence in learning English increased in comparison to previous English learning because of several factors: students' background or existing knowledge, teacher support, friends' English performance and previous English learning experiences.

8.4.1 Students' background or existing knowledge

Knowing what was being discussed seemed to make students confident in expressing their ideas. That is, students' background or existing knowledge was likely to give them confidence to speak in front of others. Four students commented to this effect. Andriy explained:

> The topics we learned in this lecture were also learned in our
> content-subject, History of Southeast Asian Nations. When

they are discussed in our content-subject, we have had

information that helps us understand the teaching materials

better. (Andriy)

Andriy's opinion was supported by Synyster, who commented:

…I knew what I was talking about. If I did not know, I would keep

quiet all the time. Since I knew the topic of discussion, I had many

ideas I could share with other people in the class. (Synyster)

A similar view was also provided by Zarathustra:

When we are talking, we know what we are talking about. In this

class, we talked about history of Southeast Asian nations. We all

know about this history. It helped us to talk better. We had all

information we need to share. If we talk about biology, we will find

it difficult because we don't have enough knowledge about it.

(Zarathustra)

Moemboet spoke in the same vein, saying:

Similarly, when a topic has been discussed in a content subject is

being learned in this subject, it helps us to be prepared better. We

have enough knowledge to discuss it in English. Therefore, we will

be more interested in knowing how it is discussed in English.

(Moemboet)

The four comments above indicate a commonnly-held view that background
knowledge or existing knowledge helped students express their ideas orally, and
vice versa, students' lack understanding about the material, as claimed by Dembo
(2004), tends to make them bored during class. One example of the latter was
reported by Ririn (see Section 8.3.3 above) where her lack of content knowledge
and low English proficiency was mentioned as inhibiting her from understanding
what was being discussed. As a result, she felt bored in the class.

8.4.2 Teacher support

Students' confidence in speaking was also affected by the teacher's support. The teacher encouraged them to ask or answer the teacher's questions and comments. As stated by Zarathustra, the teacher was also equitable in the way he supported students and distributed his attention:

> Some students were brave to ask questions and give response to teacher's questions and comments. The teacher also treated them well, no discrimination. All students were given the same chance to express their opinions. They also had the same amount of attention from the teacher. (Zarathustra).

The opportunity to speak in their mother tongue when students were not ready to speak in English was another teaching support that seemed to increase students' confidence in speaking. As stated by Moemboet, code-switching to Indonesian when she did not know certain words in English reduced her anxiety in speaking.

> I was also happy when you asked me to perform something or to express my own ideas. I did not feel nervous since you also encouraged me to express it in Indonesian if I do not know the English words. (Moemboet)

Moemboet's opinion on the teacher's support was supported by Jodi who further said:

> I tried myself to be able to express what I had in my mind. I tried to be brave to ask questions or give opinions. If I made mistakes, I knew you would help me to correct my sentences. That's what I had in my mind. It's the opportunity for me to practice and practice my English. I am sure the more I talk the better I will be. (Jodi)

Based on such comments, my practice in offering support in the form of providing the opportunity to speak in their mother tongue when not ready to speak in English and helping students by correcting their English sentences appeared to increase their confidence in speaking.

8.4.3 Peers' active participation

Another factor that affected students' confidence in speaking was their peers' active participation in the class. It appeared that peers' active participation motivated at least some students to be involved actively in the learning activities. Five students commented explicitly on this factor. Moemboet said, "Yeah, I feel that although my friends' English competence was better than me, I am sure that I can be like them or better than them." In the same vein, Mudjiana added:

> I was also motivated by many of my friends who were active to
> express their ideas. They did not care with their incorrect
> pronunciation or grammar. I tried my best to act the same ways
> as they did. What I meant was that I must be active and
> courageous like them. (Mudjiana)

Jodi commented explicitly: "My classmates affected me too. If others can, why cannot I?" Bintang said: "You could see my friend, Nanda. Every time, he spoke, he spoke English fluently. Deep in my heart, I want to be like him". In line with Jodi and Rendi, Andriy said:

> Ahhh, in the beginning I felt ashamed to speak with other students
> in English. But I saw many of my friends could talk in English.
> This condition made me confident to do the same. As I told you in
> the beginning, if my friends can speak in English, I can be like
> them as well. So I was really motivated…really motivated.
> (Andriy)

Based on the above comments, it appeared that witnessing classmates' good performance in English made some students confident that they could do the same. They seemed to be inspired by friends who could speak English well or confidently. They reasoned that if their friends could (attempt to) speak English, they could certainly do the same thing or better. However, as reported earlier, there was one student who felt ashamed and intimidated when witnessing his peers' active participation. His low self-efficacy in respect of English proficiency and vocabulary inhibited him from participating actively in the class.

8.4.4 Previous experience in language learning

A final factor that affected students' confidence in expressing themselves orally was their previous experience in learning English. The students who took additional English classes at English learning centres or had started learning English since they were at primary school tended to be more confident in oral expression than those who did not take additional English classes or those who started learning English at secondary school. As stated by Synyster, his confidence in speaking was influenced by his having had more practice in speaking at a language centre previously. He said, "At the language centre where I took additional English, we happened to have role-playing almost every meeting… We did not focus on grammar but speaking skill." In line with Synyster, Ririn added:

> I felt confident in this lecture because I had learned English before.
> I had enough vocabulary. The most important thing is that I liked to
> talk in front of other people. No matter whether it could be
> understood or not, I tried to express out what I had in my mind. I
> feel dared to be different, sir. (Ririn)

From such comments, it seemed that previous English learning experience affected students' self-confidence in expressing their ideas orally. Those who had started learning English at primary school and those who took additional English at language centres had had more opportunities to learn English than those who were restricted to studying English at secondary school and had taken no additional English classes. The former group were more likely to be confident in speaking. As seen in the video recording (26 October 2009), Synyster, one of the students who took additional English at a language centre, seemed to be more talkative and confident in speaking than other students in the class.

8.5 Sense of improvement in EFL and content-subject learning

A sense of improvement in EFL and content-subject learning was the fourth general theme identified from an analysis of the interview data and particularly pertinent to RQ3. At the conclusion of the intervention program, students in the

experimental group were asked whether they felt that any progress had been made. Based on an analysis of the interview data, this sense of improvement was able to be grouped into three categories: improvement in EFL learning, improvement in content-subject learning and improvement in both EFL and content-subject learning. (Although the previous section (8.4) was primarily addressed to the question of changes in motivation, it will have been noted that a range of comments made by research participants linked motivation to a sense of enhanced competence.)

8.5.1 Sense of improvement in EFL learning

Students felt that there had been improvement in their English language competence after engaging in the intervention program. Seven out of the 11 students interviewed reported that they felt their language skills had improved, especially speaking, reading and writing. Among those students, there were only two students who considered that they improved only in their language skill competence, and not in their content-subject knowledge – Jodi and Lolipop. Jodi, although not fully sure, said that his speaking skills had improved. He stated, "Maybe in speaking. I had learned how to express good English. My vocabulary also increased" (Jodi). Lolipop felt that ample writing practice helped to improve her writing skills. She felt that she was more confident in writing than speaking. She stated:

> In speaking, I found that often make errors. I think it was more
> caused by my lack of practice. It's hard to control the errors in
> speaking. In writing, we write down whatever we want to say. We
> can see what we have written. If there are mistakes, we can easily
> fix it. I found the more I wrote, the less I made mistakes. Therefore,
> I assume that my writing is getting better and better. I feel more
> confident in writing. (Lolipop)

The two students above reported competence around certain language skills had improved after participating in the intervention program. They provided no information on whether they also experienced a sense of improvement in their content-subject knowledge.

8.5.2 Sense of improvement in content-subject learning

Two students, Moemboet and Mudjiana, reported that their content-subject knowledge increased after participating in the intervention program. Moemboet said that learning English, focusing on topics from her content subject, helped her understand the content-subject better, because it reinforced her knowledge.

> Yah, I think learning English with topics from our own subject is better. It helps us understanding our own subject better. If one topic which has not been learned is being learned in this subject, it helps us to understand it better when it is discussed by our content teacher later. (Moemboet)

Mudjiana also stated that the intervention improved her content-subject knowledge, stating:

> I absolutely agree with teaching English focused on themes in history. Here we studied history in English. We got more information about history, how it was explained in English, knowing the real pictures of historic places in the world, etc. This approach really helped me understand history. (Mudjiana)

Similar to the two students mentioned in Sub-section 8.5.2, there was no information on whether the two students above also experienced a sense of improvement in their language skills after participating in the intervention program.

8.5.3 Sense of improvement in both EFL and content-subject learning

Seven of the 11 students interviewed reported experiencing a sense of improvement in both their EFL and content-subject knowledge. A slight improvement was felt by Jaeng. According to him, "Anyway there is an increase, sir. At least, I knew how to make a good paragraph, doing role playing in English, and I had better understanding about events in history through watching movies" (Jaeng). Like Jaeng, Rendi considered that this teaching approach increased his

understanding of the content-subject while improving his English at the same time.

> What I liked from this lecture was the explanation of events in the history in English. I tried my best to understand all the explanation about the history, for example, the history of Thailand. I found it increasing my knowledge about history. Also it increased my English too. … For me, who used to be in science department when still at high school, learning this subject in two different languages increases my understanding about the subject more and helps me improving my English too. (Rendi)

Synyster, Ririn, Bintang and Zarathustra also felt that English teaching focusing on a discussion of themes in their content subject gave them the dual benefits of improving both their English and their history knowledge.

A typical statement re this dual improvement was expressed by Andriy. He felt that his knowledge of the content-subject improved, but he listed a number of ways that his English knowledge and skills were enhanced.

> Yes, I feel my English is improving. My knowledge of history is increasing too. Before joining this class, I felt my English was poor. Now I feel I start to know more about English. My vocabulary increases, my grammar is betting better, and I begin to know how to express my ideas to other speaker in a good manner (Andriy)

This finding related to the perception of a dual benefit is in keeping with claims made by Stoller (2002) and Pessoa, Hendry, Donato, Tucker, and Lee (2007). As will be discussed in Chapter 9, Stoller (2002) asserted in relation to CBI that: "as students master language, they are able to learn more content, and as students learn more content, they're able to improve their language skills" (p.1). Similarly, Pessoa et al. (2007) claimed that "Over the past several years, foreign language educators have promoted the benefits of content-based instruction, stating that such instruction fosters academic growth while also developing language proficiency" (p. 103).

8.6 Summary

This summary brings together findings from an analysis of the interview data, complemented by an analysis of other data sources. As stated at the start of this chapter, four themes emerged from these analyses. These were: motivation and engagement, affect, self-confidence and sense of improvement in English and content-subject learning. In this summary, each theme is presented in the form of a table in order to highlight the distribution of comments supporting those themes.

8.6.1 Motivation and engagement

As stated in Section 8.1, there were three sub-themes under motivation and engagement: teacher factor, peer and teacher influence, and sense of the importance of English. The teacher factor consisted of three components, teaching techniques, teaching materials and teaching media.

Among the three components of the teacher factor, teaching techniques appeared to receive the most comment. Those comments were grouped thematically into 4 sub-categories: types of teaching and learning activity, teaching styles, teacher active encouragement and opportunity to use the mother tongue. Details of the distribution of these comments can be found in Table 31 below.

Table 31: Distribution of students' comments under *motivation and engagement*

```
                        ┌─────────────────────────────┐
                        │  Motivation and Engagement  │
                        └─────────────────────────────┘
              ┌────────────────────┼──────────────────────┐
    ┌──────────────────┐  ┌──────────────────┐  ┌──────────────────┐
    │  Teacher Factors │  │ Peer and teacher │  │   Sense of       │
    │                  │  │   influence      │  │ importance of    │
    └──────────────────┘  │ 1. Mudjiana 4. Andriy │ English      │
                          │ 2. Jaeng   5. Ririn (2x) │ 1. Rendi (2x) │
                          │ 3. Rendi (2x)    │  │ 2. Zarathusra    │
                          └──────────────────┘  │ 3. Adriy         │
                                                └──────────────────┘
```

Teaching techniques

Teaching materials
1. Mudjiana
2. Jodi
3. Ririn
4. Rendi
5. Wati (observer)

Teaching media
1. Mudjiana (2x)
2. Lolipop
3. Rendi (2x)
4. Jaeng
5. Jodi
6. Zarathusra

Types of teaching and learning activities

Teaching style
1. Jodi
2. Moemboet
3. Zarathusra

Teacher's active encouragement
1. Andriy
2. Mudjiana
3. Jodi

Opportunity to use mother tongue
1. Moemboet
2. Lolipop

Retelling
1. Synyster
2. Lolipop

Role-playing
1. Yogi
2. Lolipop
3. Andriy
4. Moemboet
5. Defran
6. Bintang
7. Wati (observer)

Group presentation
1. Andriy
2. Rendi
3. Zarathusra
4. Ririn

From Table 31 above, it can be seen that there were 2 components under the teacher factor that seemed to attract a good number of positive comments from students: role-playing, which was one of the types of teaching and learning activity used, and teaching media.

Peer and teacher influence, the second sub-theme under motivation and engagement, received 7 comments from 5 students. These were all positive, suggesting that peers and teacher were one of the factors that contributed to their motivation and engagement in class. It can be inferred that the interactions among themselves and with the teacher affected students' motivation to learn English.

In addition, a sense of the importance of English, the third sub-theme under the motivation and engagement, attracted 4 comments from 3 students indicating that

students' motivation to learn English was also affected by their sense of the importance of English. Their current and future need for English proficiency prompted their motivation to learn it.

8.6.2 Affect

Affect, the second theme found in this study, comprised 4 sub-themes: shame, anxiety, boredom and enjoyment. Of the 4 sub-themes, 3 suggested a negative affect and 1 a positive affect. The following table shows the way these comments were distributed across the student sample interviewed.

Table 32: Distribution of comments under *affect*

Affect			
Shame	**Anxiety**	**Boredom**	**Enjoyment**
1. Jaeng 2. Mudjiana	1. Synyster 2. Bintang 3. Ririn 4. Zarathustra	1. Ririn 2. Mudjiana	1. Zarathustra 5. Lolipop 2. Moemboet 6. Yogi 3. Jodi 7. Synyster 4. Sutra
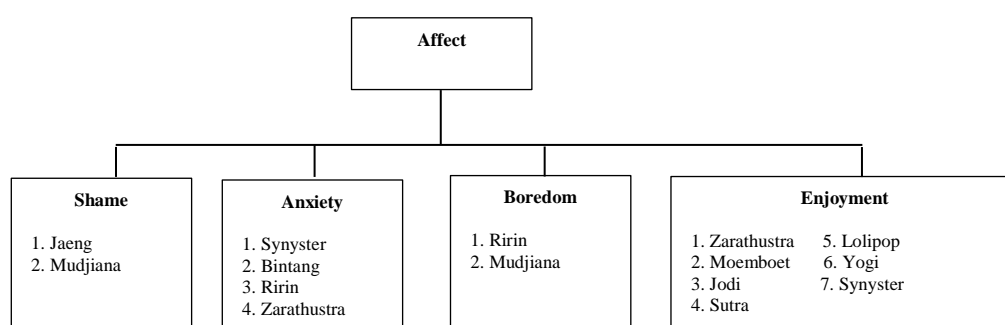
As Table 32 shows, 2 students shared feelings of shame, 4 of anxiety, while 2 expressed feelings of boredom in relation to learning English. In contrast, 7 students indicated in different ways that they found their English class enjoyable. As can be seen, 1 student felt both negative and positive emotion about learning English in the context of the IC. While at times experiencing anxiety, he also commented that he experienced enjoyment while learning English.

8.6.3 Self-confidence

Self-confidence, the third theme that emerged in an analysis of qualitative data, was supported by 13 comments. Those comments were categorised into four sub-themes: students' background or existing knowledge, teacher support, friends' English competence and previous learning experience. An overview of the distribution of these comments can be seen in Table 33 below.

Table 33: Distribution of comments under *Self-confidence*

```
                        ┌─────────────────┐
                        │ Self-confidence │
                        └────────┬────────┘
        ┌────────────────┬───────┴────────┬─────────────────┐
┌───────────────┐ ┌──────────────┐ ┌──────────────┐ ┌──────────────────┐
│ Background or │ │Teacher support│ │Peers' active │ │Previous learning │
│existing       │ │              │ │participation │ │   experience     │
│knowledge      │ │1. Zarathusra │ │              │ │                  │
│               │ │2. Moemboet   │ │1. Moemboet   │ │1. Synyster       │
│1. Andriy      │ │3. Jodi       │ │2. Mudjiana   │ │2. Ririn          │
│2. Synyster    │ │              │ │3. Bintang    │ │                  │
│3. Zarathustra │ │              │ │4. Rendi      │ │                  │
│4. Moemboet    │ │              │ │5. Andriy     │ │                  │
└───────────────┘ └──────────────┘ └──────────────┘ └──────────────────┘
```
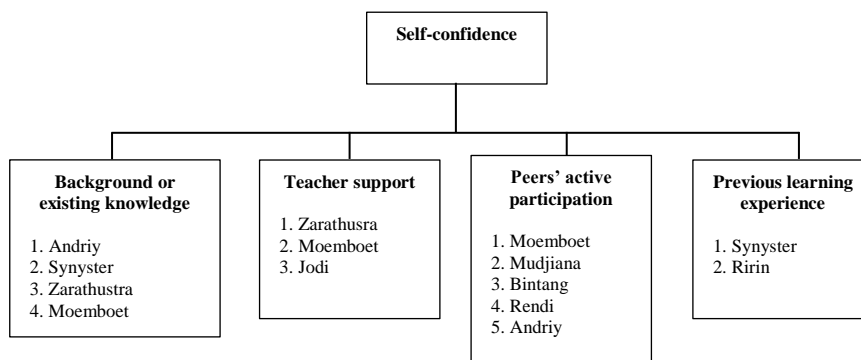
Based on the table above, it can be seen that witnessing friends' English competence was commented on most as positively affecting students' self-confidence in learning English. However, one cannot assume that this kind of vicarious experience will always enhance self-efficacy. We have seen that there was one student whose confidence was adversely affected while witnessing other students' confidence in speaking English.

8.6.4 Sense of improvement in EFL and content subject learning

This theme was the fourth to emerge from an analysis of the interview data, and was categorised into three sub-themes: improvement in EFL learning, improvement in content-subject learning, and improvement in both EFL and content-subject learning. Detail about this theme and the number of students providing comment related to its sub-themes are illustrated in the Table 34 below.

Table 34: Distribution of comments under *Sense of improvement in EFL and content subject learning*

```
              ┌────────────────────────────┐
              │ Sense of improvement in EFL │
              │and content subject learning │
              └──────────────┬──────────────┘
        ┌────────────────────┼────────────────────┐
┌──────────────┐  ┌──────────────┐  ┌──────────────────┐
│Improvement in│  │Improvement in│  │  Improvement in  │
│ EFL learning │  │content subject│ │  both EFL and    │
│              │  │   learning   │  │ content-subject  │
│Speaking skills│ │              │  │    learning      │
│1. Jodi       │  │1. Moemboet   │  │                  │
│              │  │2. Mudjiana   │  │1. Jaeng          │
│Writing skills│  │              │  │2. Rendi          │
│1. Lolipop    │  │              │  │3. Synyster       │
│              │  │              │  │4. Ririn          │
│              │  │              │  │5. Bintang        │
│              │  │              │  │6. Zarathustra    │
│              │  │              │  │7. Andriy         │
└──────────────┘  └──────────────┘  └──────────────────┘
```
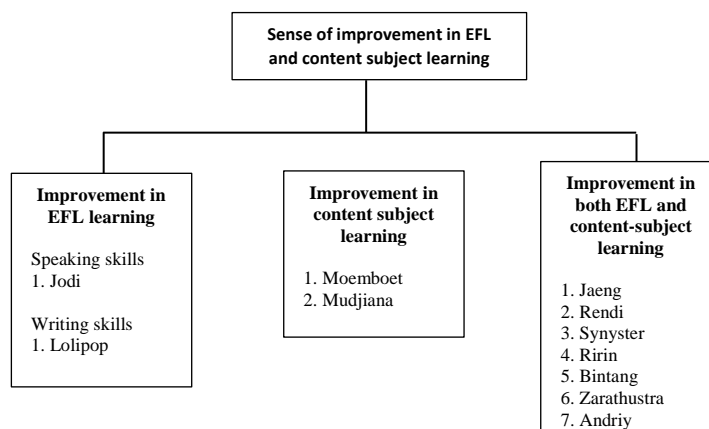
Based on the above overview, it can be seen that the numbers of students who expressed an explicit sense improvement in their EFL learning and the number of students who explicitly reported a sense of improvement in content-subject learning were the same. It needs to be emphasised, of course, that explicitly commenting on only *one* aspect of improvement does not mean that these students did not believe that they improved in the *other* aspect. Of particular interest, there were 7 students in the third column. This meant that more than half of the students who were interviewed in relation to this study felt that they had made progress in both their EFL and content-subject competence after participating in the intervention program.

The next chapter, Chapter 9, presents a discussion of the findings in relation to the four research questions. It will triangulate the qualitative findings reported on in Chapter 8 and the quantitative findings reported on in Chapter 6 and Chapter 7. The objective of triangulating the research findings is to address the overall research question, whether a theme-based instructional approach, as practised in the context of this intervention, has the potential to improve the EFL students' communicative skills and increase their motivation to learn English as a foreign language.

CHAPTER 9: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

9.1 Introduction

This chapter has five sections. First, I discuss the findings from the four research questions in relation to the literature. Second, I triangulate the findings to answer the general research question. Next, I consider the implications of the study. Then I explore some limitations of the study. And finally, I end with some suggestions for future research

9.2 Discussion of the findings

There were four research questions investigated in this study, which utilised a mixed methods approach. One research question (RQ3) was addressed using qualitative data analyses and the other three research questions (RQ1, 2 and 4) were addressed using quantitative data analyses. In the sections that follow I will be discussing findings from the four research questions (RQ1, 2, 3, 4) in relation to the literature discussed in Chapter 2.

9.2.1 Attitudes of some EFL students of non-English departments towards current EFL teaching in the tertiary context

This sub-section is intended to answer the first research question, "What are the attitudes of some EFL students of non-English departments towards current EFL teaching in the tertiary context?" To answer the research question, an analysis of the second section of a questionnaire given to all students in the beginning of the intervention program was done. That section of the questionnaire asked about students' attitude toward the current EFL teaching program.

Data analysis showed that the students seemed to have a positive attitude towards English. Based on the students' self-reported attitude toward the current EFL teaching program, most students reported that they considered English very important (86.49%). Therefore, it was not surprising that most of them (91.89%) reported that they disagreed with the two credits allocated for English at the

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university. They considered two credits for English per week to be insufficient to help them develop their English proficiency. Their disagreement with the current allocation of credits for English is relevant to Musthafa's (2002) explanation that two or four teaching hours allocated for English at high school level does not seem to equip students with good communicative skills. If this is the case, then it is hardly likely that two credits allocated for English at university level is going to produce adequate results.

Students' positive attitude toward English was also backed up by other findings in their self-reported attitudes toward the current EFL teaching program, that is, the kind of program they experienced immediately prior to my becoming their teacher and introducing the study intervention. A majority of the students (62.16%) reported that they preferred a student-centred approach and more than half of them (51.35%) reported that EFL teaching should be focused on developing language skills. In addition, a majority of them (64.86%) reported that they preferred an EFL teaching instructional approach which focused on their content subject rather than on general themes.

Nearly two-thirds of the students (62.2%) reported that they preferred an EFL teaching approach focused on their study major. This preference seemed to show students' expectations of what the EFL teaching program at university should be. I considered this expectation as a kind of important challenge because it was related to the topic of my study. I was challenged to make my intervention program provide a double benefit to students, following Musthafa's (2002) claim that an important challenge for English teachers is "to design a relatively brief but focused skills-based English course that could help students directly with their studies in their major" (p. 28).

All the above findings indicated that students had a positive attitude towards the current EFL teaching program. Most of them considered that English was very important. They also disagreed with the current two-credit allocation for English. They preferred a student-centred class to a teacher-centred class, and they preferred an EFL teaching instructional approach focused on their content subjects to one focused on general themes. The following section discusses quantitative findings from Chapter 7, which are related to the second research question.

9.2.2 Differences in the intervention class EFL students' pre-test and post-test scores measuring verbal communication performance

As reported in chapter 7, quantitative findings from the pre-test and post-test were used to address RQ2 (Are there any differences in the intervention class EFL students' pre-test and post-test scores measuring verbal communication performance?). In addition, the quantitative findings from pre-test were also used as a basis to divide the students into two groups, IC and NIC (see Chapter 4, Section 4.3) and to measure the overall students' proficiency level before the intervention program began.

The pre-test and post-test involved both groups of students, IC and NIC. The involvement of the NIC students in both the pre-test and post-test was intended to allow for a measure of the effectiveness of a theme-based instructional approach applied in the intervention class compared to the traditional approach applied in the non-intervention class. The effectiveness of the theme-based instructional approach was gauged on the basis of the EFL performance levels from both classes. Consequently, there were two types of t-test analyses used, paired samples t-test and independent samples t-test. The following sub-sections will start from the discussion of the overall students' English proficiency level and then be followed by findings from students' paired samples t-test and independent samples t-test.

9.2.2.1 Overall English proficiency level

Based on the findings from the pre-test, the English proficiency level of the majority of the students involved in this study was categorised as A1 level, the lowest level of CEFR. However, this finding differed substantially from the students' self-report of their level of English proficiency. More than half of the students (54.1%) self-reported that their English proficiency level was moderate (see Table 12). Two possible reasons may cause the inconsistency between students' perception about their English proficiency levels and their real levels of English proficiency. First, the students appeared to be subjective when they filled in the questionnaire. They measured their English proficiency levels based on their own perception. This possibility happened because they did not have the

certificates of the ITP-TOEFL-like test they participated in before. The ITP-TOEFL-like test held before the beginning of the academic year was done for institutional use only and their scores were announced on the notice board at each department in the faculty. Many of the students might have not read them. They might think it was not too important to know the results or they might ignore them because of being embarrassed to have low scores of English. Second, the students basically knew their own level of English proficiency but they would prefer not to give true answers, especially, when giving the information through questionnaires. This phenomenon according to Jensen, Denver, Mees, and Werther (2011) as stated in Chapter 6, Section 6.3.7, is one disadvantage of self-report questionnaires. However, students' answers regarding their levels of English proficiency were treated with caution because they gave some indications of what the students felt about the English program they were participating in.

The finding from the pre-test seems to resonate with research findings from a number of scholars (Bire, 2010; Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Madya, 2002; Musthafa, 2002) who concluded that EFL teaching in Indonesia has been unsuccessful in developing students' abilities to use the four language skills for communication (see Section 3.3). Dardjowidjojo (2000) identified large class sizes of English as one of the causes of the failure. He explained that English in Indonesian schools is treated the same as other subjects, where the number of students in a class is between 40 and 50 students. A number of Indonesian scholars (Basir, 2003; Mukminin, Muazza, Hustarna, & Sari, 2015; Salwa, 2014) had the same opinion as Dardjowidjojo (2000). They considered that large class sizes affect students' motivation in language learning and teacher motivation in language teaching. A large number of students in the class tends to make the class noisy (Salwa, 2014) and students have less opportunity to be more active in their learning (Basir, 2003). Mukminin et al. (2015) in their research on demotivating factors in EFL teaching found that a large number of students in the class make the EFL teachers less enthusiastic in their teachings. They emphasised that overcrowded classrooms with no air conditioning made the class really hot, students' behaviour hard to manage, and the teacher easily tired and stressful.

In contrast, Madya (2002) and Bire (2010) highlighted the curriculum as a reason for the failure. Madya (2002) noted that the curriculums applied in Indonesian

education were centralised curriculums. They were not able to accommodate the needs of the diverse Indonesian population with hundreds of ethnic groups and local languages. Bire (2010), although similar to Madya (2002), focused on the inconsistencies found in the curriculums as the main problem. He claimed that there were mismatches among the components in the curriculums. For example, the objective of the 1984 curriculum was to develop students' communicative skills but the syllabi were mainly focused on grammatical structure, the prioritised language skill was reading, and the language assessment including the national final exam of English was focused on grammar and reading comprehension. That this situation still existed in the subsequent curriculums discouraged EFL teachers from developing students' communicative skills.

Still related to curriculum, Musthafa (2002) considered the low credits for English became one of the factors affecting to the unsuccessful EFL teaching in Indonesia. He considered the 4 credits/week covering 736 hours of teaching in junior and senior high schools have failed to equip students with important skills required to read English textbooks. Therefore, he claimed that two or four credits for university students to learn English would not give better results (Musthafa, 2002).

In relation to the findings of this study, the students' low level of English proficiency could have been related to their previous learning experience. Despite some positive findings gained through the questionnaire, the three factors above (large class sizes, mismatches found in the curriculum and low allocated credits for English) could have become inhibiting factors that constrained the students from developing their English proficiency well.

9.2.2.2 Findings from the paired samples t-test

The paired-samples t-test was aimed at measuring changes in the EFL performance of students in both the intervention class (IC) and the non-intervention class (NIC) by comparing their pre-test and post-test mean scores. As reported in chapter 7, there were two paired samples t-tests used, the first comparing the IC's pre-test and post-test mean scores and the second comparing

the NIC's pre-test and post-test mean scores. Details of the two t-test results can be seen in Sub-section 7.2.1.

The key finding for the IC was a statistically significant increase in mean scores from 4.73 (pre-test) to 5.54 (post-test) with *p* value of 0.00 (see Table 21 for detail). In contrast, the key finding for the NIC showed a statistically non-significant increase in the mean score from 4.70 (pre-test) to 4.76 (post-test) with *p* value of 0.31 (see Table 22 for detail). My provisional conclusion is, in terms of pre-test and post-test results, that the theme-based instructional approach applied in the intervention class made a significant impact on students' English performance.

9.2.2.3 Findings from the independent samples t-tests

The independent-samples *t*-test was aimed at measuring comparatively the EFL performance of students from both IC and NIC classes by comparing their pre-test mean scores and their post-test mean scores.

Findings from the independent *t*-test results comparing the pre-test mean scores of the IC and NIC students (see Table 23 for detail), indicated that there was no significant difference between the pre-test mean scores of the IC (4.73) and NIC (4.70). In other words, both the intervention class (IC) and non-intervention class (NIC) had similar levels of EFL performance prior to the intervention. Findings from the independent *t*-test results comparing the post-test scores of the intervention class and non-intervention class' mean scores (see Table 24 for detail), however, suggested that there was a statistically significant difference between the post-test mean scores of the intervention class (5.54) and non-intervention class (4.76). Another conclusion to be drawn is that the intervention class achieved a significant improvement in their EFL proficiency levels compared with the non-intervention class.

Another finding from the independent t-test results comparing the mid-test and semester test scores of the IC and NIC students (see Tables 25 and 26 for detail) appeared to be strengthening the above two findings. The IC students, who were disadvantaged at the mid-test which focused on grammar and reading comprehension, performed a bit better than the NIC students at the semester test

which focused on grammar and reading comprehension. Rationally, the NIC students should have been advantaged in the semester test because the EFL teaching in their class was mainly focused on grammar and reading comprehension. That the IC students could perform better in the semester test with a focus on grammar and reading comprehension indicated that the theme-based instructional approach applied in the intervention class appeared to develop not only students' communication skills, it also appeared to increase their knowledge of English grammatical rules used in communication. This condition is relevant to a statement made by Stoller (2002),"language as a medium for learning content and content as a resource for learning and improving language" (p. 109). This means that in learning English through a CBI approach, students are exposed with grammatical rules, vocabulary, and language skills in the context of learning about content. For that reason, the IC students acquired the English grammatical rules which seemed to help them perform better in the semester test.

On the basis of the findings above, it could be concluded that the content-based instructional approach, in this case, the theme-based instructional approach was instrumental in improving the IC students' English proficiency.

The conclusion of the effectiveness of the theme-based instructional approach in improving the IC students' English proficiency above is pertinent to several studies on CBI. Kasper (1997) asserted that research on CBI shows that the instructional approach had the potential to improve students' language skills proficiency and help students' in their academic transition. Dupuy (2000) shared the same idea as Kasper in terms of language skills. She said that "in several TB studies, students indicated having made gains in speaking, listening, and reading" (p. 215).

More recent studies of CBI have shown the benefits of CBI in enhancing students' English proficiency. Corrales and Maloof (2009), who investigated the effectiveness of CBI in the development of medical students' oral English communicative competence, found that CBI, because of the integration of language and content, helped the development of students' oral and discourse skills in a "relevant, challenging, and meaningful manner" (p. 15). Another study of CBI conducted by Junyue and Yang (2011), who studied the effect of CBI for

English majors in Chinese contexts, found that CBI produced better results in developing "language knowledge, language skills and disciplinary knowledge, achieving the general objectives of the national curriculum more effectively than the conventional SOI [Skills-oriented instruction]" (p. 25). In brief, all studies above support the findings from the paired samples t-test and independent samples t-tests done in this study that CBI intervention program given to the IC students had affected the improvement of their language proficiency.

9.2.3 Factors identified in the intervention program as having an impact on IC EFL students' attitude, motivation and performance

The discussion which follows draws on findings from the second questionnaire given only to the IC students before and after the intervention program which invited their self-evaluation of their attitude and motivation following the intervention program, and findings from the qualitative data (interviews, reflective journals, video recordings and observations). It will be recalled that in Chapter 8, I reported on four major themes emerging from the qualitative data: motivation and engagement, self-confidence, a sense of improvement in EFL and content-subject learning, and affect. This discussion addresses both the third research question (What factors identified in a theme-based instructional program appear to contribute to an improvement EFL students' communication skills?) and the fourth research question (Are there self-reported differences in intervention class EFL students' motivation and attitudes following the intervention program and what reasons do they offer for this improvement?). In reflecting on Chapter 8, it was clear to me that in many of their comments, students did not make a clear distinction between factors that affected their motivation and factors that affected their performance. Many factors, it became clear, affected both these things. For this reason, this section brings both these questions together under a range of thematic headings.

Before discussing these factors, however, I would like to discuss findings indicating the extent to which the students in the IC class themselves believed that their communicative competence (and other language skills) had improved following the intervention. The findings, of course, cannot be taken as evidence of *actual* improvement. But they do, I argue, indicate changes in self-confidence.

9.2.3.1 Sense of improvement in EFL and content-subject knowledge

As reported in Chapter 8, students' comments were grouped into three categories: improvement in EFL learning, improvement in content-subject learning and improvement in both EFL and content-subject learning. I will discuss the latter in relation to improvement in EFL learning and content-subject learning.

A group of seven students reported that they felt sense of improvement in *both* EFL and content-subject knowledge. Synyster, Ririn, Renda, Banteng, Jaeng and Zarathustra reported that English teaching focusing on discussions taken from themes in their content-subject gave them a double benefit, improving their English and their history knowledge at the same time. In terms of EFL improvement, Synyster and Zarathustra felt a sense of improvement in speaking, Bintang and Rendi felt a sense of improvement in reading while Ririn and Jaeng felt a sense of improvement in reading and writing. Among the seven students, Andriy was typical of those who experienced significant progress in both his English proficiency and content subject knowledge. He stated:

> Yes, I feel my English is improving. My knowledge of history is increasing too. Before joining this class, I felt my English was poor. Now I feel I start to know more about English. My vocabulary increases, my grammar is getting better, and I begin to know how to express my ideas to other speakers in a good manner. (Andriy)

What this last group of students reported about their sense of improvement in both EFL and content-based learning was an important finding because it provided clear evidence of the benefit of integrating CBI in EFL teaching since a majority of the interviewed students felt a sense of improvement in both EFL proficiency and content-learning knowledge.

Students' sense of improvement in both English proficiency and content-subject knowledge was also a finding based on quantitative data. One finding from the second section of the questionnaire given only to the IC students (item 9) showed that the use of teaching media had been self-reported by the students to have improved their understanding of the teaching materials better. Meanwhile, five

findings from the first section of the same questionnaire suggested that the IC students' self-reported oral communication competence was viewed as improving significantly after they participated in the intervention program. Specifically, these students overall reported increased self-confidence in holding a conversation in everyday English (item 3), and expressing ideas fluently in English (item 5). A significant decrease in the mean score related to item 7 suggested that overall students were *less* likely to describe themselves as having difficulty in expressing ideas in English. The other two findings suggested that IC students' self-reported confidence in vocabulary use and preference to be instructed in English during English class appeared to strengthen after they participated in the intervention program. Specifically, these students overall reported a significantly increased ability in choosing the right words in English (item 6), and preference to be instructed in English during their English class (item 12).

The six quantitative findings above are additional evidence reinforcing a sense of improvement in EFL and content learning knowledge among the IC students. Though self-reported data are admittedly weak, these findings are consistent with findings based on test data reported on in section 9.2.2.

Collectively, the above findings related to students' actual improvement (as reported in 9.2.2) and subjective sense of improvement in both English proficiency and content-subject knowledge can be seen as highlighting the way in which integrating CBI in EFL teaching can be an effective approach to developing EFL students' English proficiency and expanding their content-subject knowledge. This emphasis is in line with Cummins' (1984) justification that CBI, which integrates language and subject matter content, facilitates student learning since the integration makes the learning tasks in the classroom cognitively demanding and contextual.

A number of studies on CBI are consistent with the above finding. Custodio and Sutton (1998) explained that the use of authentic materials taken from students' content subject (as in the intervention program) seemed to have motivated students and given them more opportunity to explore their prior knowledge. Kasper (1997), whose study was about the impact of CBI on ESL students' study performance in the academic mainstream, found that students who were enrolled

in content-based courses performed better than those who were not enrolled in traditional EFL courses. Liaw (2007), who investigated the effectiveness of promoting learners' critical thinking skills and EFL skills with a content-based approach, found evidence that the implementation of content-based instruction for critical thinking skills might not only have helped the participants to develop their English language skills, but also their thinking skills. Tsai and Shang (2010), who investigated the impact of CBLI (content-based language instruction) on students' reading performance, found evidence that CBLI utilisation in a literature class enhanced students' reading comprehension as well as their critical thinking ability.

9.2.3.2 Motivation and engagement

Motivation and engagement are related to one another. Schunk and Mullen (2012) stated that motivation affects students' engagement in terms of cognition, behaviour and emotion during the teaching and learning process. When students are motivated to learn English, for example, they will be engaged in what they are doing. They will employ their thoughts in understanding what they are learning. They will show interest and put effort into what they are learning. To an observer, they look serious, attentive and demonstrate persistence. Students' motivation and engagement in language learning also suggest that they have positive attitudes toward the learning itself, since attitudes are important components of motivation itself (Gardner, 1985).

Motivation and engagement was the first factor emerging from my analysis of students' interview transcripts, my own reflective journal, observer sheets, and some video recordings. On the basis of this analysis, as reported in Chapter 8, three sub-themes emerged: teacher factor, peer and teacher influence, and sense of importance of English.

Teacher factor

Teachers play an important role in teaching and learning activities. The ways they manage the class, teach their students, become mentors for their students, all determine the success of the teaching and learning process. Student motivation to

learn is affected by how teachers enact their roles in class. Alam and Farid (2011) explained that, "Teachers play a very important role in the learning process of students who idealize teachers and try to copy them. The motivation of [sic] teacher is, therefore, very important as it directly affects the students" (p. 298).

In my role as teacher-researcher in the intervention class (IC), I applied a theme-based instructional approach using various teaching techniques, teaching materials and teaching media. Post-intervention interviews with the IC students highlighted three aspects of the "teacher factor" (teaching techniques, materials and media) that the students believed motivated and engaged them in EFL learning. These will be discussed in turn.

Teaching techniques

There were particular teaching techniques that were salient in the findings, related to learning activity design, teaching style and teacher attitudes or dispositions. A number of learning activities were identified as helpful, with retelling, role-playing, and group presentation rated as most popular among the students.

a. Learning activities

Role-playing was the most popular learning activity (see Table 31), as was confirmed by a number of students based on analyses of interview data, journal data and video data. Typically, Lolipop shared the view that she liked it because it covered the four language skills. It challenged her not only to develop her speaking skills but also to engage her with the situation spontaneously. My own journal reflections and the video footage supported the popularity of role-plays. In my own journal, I recorded the enjoyment students appeared to exhibit creating and performing their own dialogues which role-played when role-playing the characters of Magellan, King Carlos, and Lapu-lapu. Video data also provided evidence of engagement, effort, responsiveness and enjoyment, as did the notes made by Wati (pseudonym), my colleague who observed this particular lesson.

Research studies indicate that such learning activities are particularly useful for EFL students. Tompkins (1998) argued that role-playing enhanced students' "interpersonal relations and social transactions among participants" (p. 1). The

students participating in role-playing activities must negotiate with others involved and reach agreement on who is acting whom in the activities. Jones (1982) emphasised that: "In order for a simulation to occur, the participants must accept the duties and responsibilities of their roles and functions, and do the best they can in the situation in which they find themselves" (p. 113). In brief, role-playing is not only an interesting learning activity for students; it also promotes their interpersonal interaction and collaboration to reach agreed goals.

Group presentations were a second popular learning activity among the IC students. Data analyses from interviews, journals, observer report, and video suggested that group presentations helped students develop their speaking skills. As Andriy and Rendi commented, group presentations improved their speaking skills since they were required to talk in front of other people. They were challenged to make what they were talking about understood by other people. Typically, students who commented on the group presentation believed that it reduced their anxiety speaking in front of other people and improved their teamwork. Data from video recording showed students looked relaxed when presenting (see Sub-section 8.2.1.1), making use of either notes or PowerPoint, and working together to respond to questions from their audience. Mistakes occurred, but were responded to in a good-humoured way.

As with the role-plays, the class presentations seemed to offer benefits to students in terms of promoting interpersonal interactions and collaboration. Certainly, from my perspective as teacher, the students who were divided into a group of two or three collaborated with their teammate regarding what to present, what media to use, and who would present in the beginning. Long and Porter (1985) identified five benefits students gained from group work, which, I would argue, can also be applied to class presentations. Through group work, students can receive an increased number of language practice opportunities, improve the quality of their talk, receive individualised instruction, enjoy a positive affective climate in the classroom, and increase their motivation. In brief, class presentations can be considered as an effective method to improve students' verbal communication proficiency, increase social interaction and collaboration, and enhance motivation in language learning.

Interview data analyses together with data from my reflective journal and video footage affirmed that the retelling activity also engaged and motivated students to speak more in English. Typically, Synyster commented on students' motivation and enthusiasm when asked to retell a story. The video data showed students listening attentively to what their classmate was retelling and responding actively when asked to agree or disagree with their classmate' story. Rachmawaty and Hermagustiana (2010) pointed out that retelling offers benefits for both teacher and students. For the teacher, it helps him/her to identify the level of comprehension in relation to what the students have read, listened to, or watched. For the students, Rachmawaty and Hermagustiana (2010) noted it can be used to assist them in using the target language by providing content and having them solve problems in expressing themselves competently.

> [T]elling stories is one of the recommended techniques which can help language learners in improving his knowledge of vocabulary, grammatical structures, and pronunciation. Moreover stories provide various topics for learners to begin a conversation with others. (p. 3)

From my own point of view in relation to the three learning activities discussed above, role-playing appeared to give students a chance to use the target language more freely than the other two learning activities (class presentations and retelling). In taking on board the context and characters determined by the course content, the IC students were willing to try to express themselves in role. For example, when Rendi acted as Lapu-lapu, a knight from Mactan Island (the Filipino, who ordered his people to attack Magellan's soldiers), he tried his best to express himself in a similar way to the actor playing Lapu-lapu as shown in the short movie. His expressions sounded spontaneous. He expressed himself despite errors in grammar and pronunciation. Other students did the same. If they got stuck or could not express their ideas in English, they felt comfortable to code-switch to their mother tongue. The situation above is relevant to Bray's (2010) statement that: "Unlike more controlled language learning activities, role-plays are tasks which fall towards the freer end of the language learning activity… [and] give students practice accessing their current language resources" (p. 14).

I found that in role-playing activities, the students responded to their interlocutors quickly and spontaneously. They seemed to use their abilities in speaking English as well as they could. Laughter was frequent and mistakes tolerated with good humour. My own students behaved in very much in accordance with Kaur's (2002) description:

> Role play is an educational technique, known to generate a lot of fun, excitement, joy and laughter in the language class as 'play' itself connotes a safe environment in which learners are as inventive and playful as possible. (p. 60)

For such reasons, I used role-play as one of the teaching strategies in the intervention class. I was confident that all these positive aspects of role-playing would affect students' attitudes and motivation in language learning.

b. Teaching style

Teaching style was a second aspect of the theme of teaching techniques under the category of teacher factors that affected students' motivation and engagement although only three students interviewed commented on it explicitly, with students variously commenting that I was relaxed and friendly, and taught in an interesting and easy-to-understand way. While I can't be sure that these students weren't just saying these things to please me, I was still pleased by such responses, since I always tried my best to make the class relaxed, enjoyable and interesting. I wanted to give them opportunities to develop their English proficiency by working together with their classmates either in pairs or in groups, where I positioned myself as a facilitator in the language learning process. It had been my aim to apply autonomy-supporting teaching styles in my EFL teaching, where I prioritised "students' needs, interests, and preferences" (Reeve, Jang, Carrell, Jeon, & Barch, 2004, p. 148) and created classroom activities that accommodate these in the language learning class. I would venture to say that these students were engaged, since they could feel that their needs, interests and preferences were recognised, with a subsequent positive impact on their motivation to learn the target language (Dörnyei, 2005).

c. Teacher's active encouragement

A third "teaching technique" that seemed to improve students' motivation and engagement was what some of them described as my active encouragement. As an EFL teacher, I always encouraged my students to express what they had in mind in English and often advised them not to be worried about the errors they made. My active encouragement to speak in English appeared to increase their positive attitude towards the language and improve their motivation to speak it. Students such as Jodi and Mudjiana related their sense of improvement to my encouragement that they speak in English as often as they could. Jodi's comment below typifies students who related active encouragement to speak English with motivation to try to speak without worrying about making mistakes.

> Because you always encouraged us to talk, I think whatever I
> said would not be problems. Because we are still learning,
> making mistakes can be understood. The most important for me
> was to keep trying to speak better and better.

A finding from the second section of questionnaire also suggested that at least some students' positive attitudes towards the intervention program increased significantly because of their increased confidence to always speak in English because of my encouragement to do so in the teacher's encouragement to them to always speak in English (item 11). In this regard, let me recall Andriy's statement quoted earlier:

> What I liked from this class was that every student was
> encouraged to express their ideas in English, no matter our
> English is good or bad. You always said if we want to be fluent
> in English, we had to talk a lot in English. (Andriy)

In designing the intervention, I had adopted Hue's (2010) techniques covering three main steps. They are (1) reducing the level of task difficulty by allowing students to collaborate with their peers, providing them with appropriate amount of time to speak, and focusing discussions on topics around their content subject; (2) promoting positive attitudes among students by convincing them they had the same capability as others; and (3) building a supportive learning environment by

encouraging peer support in the classroom, providing students opportunities to code-switch to their first language when needed, and avoiding any sense of the classroom as being a threatening place.

For some ELT practitioners, if students code-switch to their first language when they do not know the English words to express their ideas, there are reduced benefits to their language learning. Indeed, some practitioners regard this practice as "inappropriate or unacceptable" (Wei & Martin, 2009, p. 117). They argue that students become reliant on the use of their L1 and only minimally make use of the target language. In relation to the use of first language code-switching among students in this study, I share the same view as Turnbull and Arnett (2002) who considered it to be a language teaching technique strategy than can enhance the language learning process. I found from the interviews that students seemed to find this teaching technique useful in reducing their anxiety in expressing their ideas orally. They did not feel anxious or embarrassed when they did not know the English words needed to continue an explanation in the target language. Typically, Moemboet and Lolipop both connected the opportunity to code-switch to the Indonesian language with a reduction in anxiety, with the latter commenting:

> Also from you as the teacher, you did not force me to speak in English if I was not ready. I could use either English or Indonesian to explain what I would like to say. These all encouraged me to speak.

Teaching materials

Teaching materials were a second component under the *teacher factor*, identified by four students and one observer, which seemed to engage and motivate students in language learning activities. Pertinent to this study, two students said the topics of discussion based on their content subject increased their motivation to learn the target language. Others reported feeling curious about the use of materials from their content subject. My colleague Wati, who observed the class presentation, such opinions about the motivating effect of teaching materials from the students' content subject, stating: "The students looked motivated not only because they were challenged to do a great task but because the topics that they presented were

also relevant with their major" (Observer report, October 28, 2009). Finally, a finding from the second section of the questionnaire suggested a significant improvement of students' attitudes towards the theme-based approach because of their belief in the relevance of the teaching materials to their major (item 8).

Consistent with such findings, Brewster and Fager (2000) made a general point that, "students are more engaged in activities when they can build on prior knowledge and draw clear connections between what they are learning and the world they live in" (p. 14). Students need to connect what they have known with what they are learning. In this way they use the target language as a means to learn their content subject (with which they already had some familiarity in this study). This connection relates directly to a major principle of content-based instruction (CBI), that is, that "people learn a second language more successfully when they use the language as a means of acquiring information, rather than as an end in itself" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 207). This principle emphasises that using the target language to learn a content subject is an effective way of learning a target language. Pessoa, Hendry, Donato, Tucker, and Lee (2007) clarified the effectiveness of target language learning by providing two benefits that CBI offers an EFL class. Firstly, it promotes academic progress and improves language proficiency. When learning a content subject instructed in a target language, EFL students strengthen their understanding of the content subject and at the same time they improve their English proficiency through discussions of the content subject topics using the target language. Secondly, the classroom tasks, which supply a context for language learning, are cognitively more challenging because, with the background knowledge the students have, they are challenged to share their ideas or opinions expressed in the target language.

In short, because in the IC class the EFL learning was related to topics taken from students' content subject, at least some students reported being curious about how the topics that they had learned in their first language would be discussed in the target language. They were able to use their prior knowledge about these topics, which provided them with many opinions they could share, and helped them to understand the discussions better. As a result, their motivation and engagement in the learning process was enhanced.

Teaching media

Teaching media was the final component under the *teacher factor* that appeared to increase students' engagement and motivation. During the teaching and learning activities in the intervention class, I used media such as short movies, PowerPoint, a cassette player and a computer with a LCD projector. As reported in Chapter 8, the use of these media appeared to increase students' engagement and motivation. We can recall that both Lolipop and Rendi noted how the use of these media engaged their attention and stimulated them to risk asking questions. Movies appeared to be the favoured medium, with four students claiming that watching short movies helped them understand stories better, served as a memory aid, and were a stimulus to use English in class.

For at least some students, then, the use of teaching media played an important role in increasing their engagement and motivation in language learning. Such a finding resonates with Ismaili (2013), who investigated the impact of using movies in the EFL classroom. She stated:

> Many scholars have revealed that movies used in EFL classrooms can become an important part of the curriculum. This is based on the fact that movies provide exposures to "real language," used in authentic settings and in the cultural context which the foreign language is spoken. They also have found that movies catch the learners' interest and it can positively affect their motivation to learn. (p. 121)

As I see it, watching movies is useful for EFL students as it effectively integrates the use of language skills, especially listening, speaking and writing. When students are watching a movie, they are not only watching but they are also listening to the conversations of the actors. Regardless of unfamiliar linguistic expressions, they may still understand the plots of the story because of the visual clues offered. Ismaili (2013) asserted that movies in EFL classes enable students to "visualize the events, characters, narration, story and words in the context" (p. 170). Such features, I believe helped my students comprehend what they were watching. When they were asked to retell what they had watched, they could

recall what they had seen and expressed it in their own words both orally or in writing.

Peer and teacher influence

As discussed in Chapter 8, seven comments from five participants indicated a peer and teacher influence on engagement and motivation in language learning. Peers were clearly influenced by one another's performance. For example, students with low English proficiency or distinctly lacking in confidence (e.g. Jaeng, Mudjiana, Andriy, and Rendi) reported being motivated to learn English seriously after viewing their classmates' interactions in English. We can recall Rendi's assertion that even a student from a small town like him could also speak English as well as or even better than those who were from a big city like Palembang. Two students also indicated that the helpful support they got from their peers stimulated their motivation to learn English seriously.

As discussed earlier, I believe that aspects of my own teaching approach contributed to this motivating factor, since I attempted to make the classroom atmosphere relaxed and enjoyable, and encourage students to participate actively in the teaching and learning activities. I would like to think that Ririn's interview comment below was not just to please me.

> The interaction between students and the teacher in the class was
> also good. Students did not feel reluctant to ask questions
> whenever they were given opportunities to. The teacher also
> responded all students' questions or opinions well. (Ririn)

Others noted that my equitable attention to all students without any discrimination encouraged them to respond to my questions or comments. (My willingness to allow code-switching has been discussed earlier.)

Researchers Huang, Eslami, and Hu (2010) have emphasised the importance of peer support in language learning. Students feel comfortable when getting help from their peers since they share equal status. This reciprocity facilitates learning. Support from the teacher is also important, but may not be as comfortable as support from peers since the relationship between students and teacher tends to be

authoritative (Huang et al., 2010). Many students believe they have to act in ways that show respect for the teacher. According to Klem and Connell (2004), teachers have to respond to this attitude by supporting student autonomy, where students are encouraged to make decisions themselves.

It was clear to me that in a number of instances, peer and teacher support influenced students' self-confidence. Having witnessed their classmates' communicative interactions in English, students were challenged to do the same. Tsui (1996, cited in Hue, 2010) suggested that "allowing students to check their answers with their peers before offering them to the whole class also encourages students to speak up" (p. 3). What can be learned from Tsui's suggestion is that students can be encouraged to discuss what they would like to say with their peers before they say it to the class. Input from peers, either in the forms of correction or advice can make them feel more confident to express their ideas to the whole class. This was certainly evident in my own class.

Sense of importance of English

The last sub-theme under motivation and engagement derived from an analysis of interview data was a sense of the importance of English. Students were aware of the place of English in their daily (university textbooks, internet, and electronic gadgets manuals) and future lives. For some English was important in enabling them to enjoy movies and pass examinations. Others had an eye to the future, focusing on scholarship opportunities and study abroad. A finding from the second section of the questionnaire indicated that IC students overall reported an increased sense of the importance of learning English and the importance of English as an international language (item 1). Motivation to learn English increased for a number of students because they realised the need of having English proficiency for their immediate and future needs.

I would suggest that the first two sub-themes discussed above – the teacher factor and peer and teacher influence, can be related to the third component of Dörnyei's (2005) L2 motivational self-system (L2 learning experience) while the third sub-theme can be related to Dörnyei's (2005) second component of his L2 motivational self-system (the ought-to L2 self).

Dörnyei (2005) explained that the L2 learning experience "concerns situation-specific motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience" (p. 106). Teacher factors (teaching techniques, teaching materials, and teaching media) and peer and teacher influence are, I would argue, aspects of the L2 learning experience. Students come to class with various levels of motivation to learn. A good teacher will always try hard to keep students motivated and engaged when learning a second or foreign language. If teachers use a range of teaching techniques and media and interesting teaching materials, students are likely to be motivated and engaged during the language learning. Csizér and Magid (2014) explain that the L2 learning experience that will have a positive impact on students' motivation is one where the students can feel the "positive impact of success, the rapport between teachers and students or the enjoyable quality of language course" (pp. 8-9). The use of various teaching techniques in this study (such as retelling, role-playing, class presentation), my active encouragement of the students to speak English, and the opportunity to use students' first language when they did not know the English words, positively impacted, I believe on students' motivation and engagement. The use of interesting and relevant teaching materials and various teaching media such as short movies, Power point materials with LCD, OHP, and audio tape players also helped make students motivated and engaged during the language learning.

Peer and teacher interactions are also an aspect of the L2 learning experience. Furrer, Skinner, and Pitzer (2014) contend that teacher and peers are social partners in the classroom. If this partnership is positive, it will impact on students' engagement during the language learning because they experience the class as a supportive place where they can engage academically and interact with others socially. I believe this situation occurred in my study, where the IC students appeared to enjoy a positive relationship with their teacher and among themselves. Consequently, the learning activities were relaxed, fun and interesting (see students' comments under *teaching style,* Sub-section 8.2.1.1).

Students' sense of the importance of English, a third sub-theme under motivation and engagement, can be related I think to the *ought-to L2 self*, because it relates to students' wishes or desires "in order to avoid possible negative outcomes" (Dörnyei, 2005, pp. 105-106). The students were aware of the value of having

good English proficiency in terms of their current and future needs (see Sub-section 8.2.3).

9.2.3.3 Self-confidence

Self-confidence was the second theme or factor that emerged from an analysis of the student interviews, with four sub-themes emerging: background or existing knowledge, teacher support, friends' English competence, and previous English learning experience.

Background or existing knowledge

In chapter 8, I reported that four students indicated that their background or existing knowledge was a factor in giving them confidence speaking in front of others. Synyster's comment was typical: "Since I knew the topic of discussion, I had many ideas I could share with other people in the class." This focus on content familiarity resonates with advocacy for a CBI approach to EFL instruction. Met (1999) claimed that background knowledge is important for ESL students. It can function as a key to understand new information and new concepts and it can ease the comprehension of the content materials instructed in a second language. In a similar vein, Corrales and Maloof (2011) noted that students' background knowledge makes them less anxious about making mistakes and more focused on expressing ideas.

Teacher support and friends' active participation

Teacher support and friends' active participation appeared to affect students' confidence in speaking. I have discussed my role in this previously, and will not repeat comments made earlier. Earlier discussion has also highlighted the way students' confidence in speaking was affected by their vicarious experiences. Witnessing their peers' active involvement in learning activities, prompted previously passive students to participate. As Jodi put it: "If others can, why can't I?"

Previous English learning experience

Previous English learning experience was the fourth sub-theme under self-confidence reported in Chapter 8, and commented on by two students. It will be recalled that Synyster, for example, related his confidence in speaking to his role-play experience in a language centre where he took "additional English". From my perspective as teacher, those students who started learning English from primary school and those who took additional English at language centres were more likely to speak in class than those who only studied English formally at school.

9.2.3.4 Affect

The last theme or factor emerging from the qualitative data analysis was affect. As Chapter 8 details, there were four sub-themes, of which three were negative (shame, anxiety, boredom) and one was positive (enjoyment).

Shame

In Indonesian culture, as I see it, shame can be described as a very bad mood arising from doing something less well, less correctly, unusual, or because one is deficient in some way – an unsatisfactory performance in front of the public, and so on. It is also feeling somewhat desolate in anticipation of doing something because of a lack of self-confidence, feeling inferior, feeling afraid, and so on. This kind of feeling can happen in relation to any activity, including learning activities in a class.

In Chapter 8 we noted Jaeng and Mudjiana sharing that they felt ashamed to express their opinions in English in the class. Jaeng, for example, said that he felt ashamed that he was unable to speak English while many of his friends could do it. From Jaeng's explanation, it could be inferred that for some students then, observing other students' achievement was *not* motivating. For them, witnessing other classmates with good English proficiency made them feel inferior. They became pessimistic about doing the same as others did.

In my own experience, feeling ashamed because of being unable to express ideas fluently in English is a common problem for Indonesian students. Students are ashamed when they become speechless or make grammatical mistakes, especially when other students laugh at them. Hu and Wang (2013) and Vemuri, Ram, and Kota (2013) have argued that this kind of feeling in a language learning situation is an obstruction to learning the language effectively. Being embarrassed because of not knowing what else to say, making grammatical mistakes in their conversations or mispronouncing certain words will affect students' self-confidence and motivation and ultimately affect the growth in their language proficiency.

Anxiety

Four students reported feeling anxious during certain learning activities. Two reported feeling anxious speaking in front of other people or writing paragraphs because of their poor grammar mastery and lack of vocabulary. Two others said that they were anxious speaking in front of other people because of a lack of self-confidence. These students feared that making mistakes would stimulate negative responses from their classmates such as bullying and laughter. Pappamihiel (2002), who investigated the language anxiety experienced by ESL students undertaking ESL programmes in America, discovered that a fear of making mistakes was one of the common factors causing ESL students to fail in foreign language learning. In my reading of the situation in the intervention class, the deeper cause of these students' anxiety was that they were afraid of being bullied and laughed at by their classmates. This explanation is consistent with research done by Barabas (2013), who conducted a study of language anxiety in an aural-oral communication classroom with thirty-three ESL Filipino university students as participants, pointing out that students were nervous when speaking in front of their classmates because of "the expected bullying of...peers" (p. 13).

As a counterpoint to this, one finding from the second section of the questionnaire given only to the IC students suggested that the IC students' self-reported anxiety overall appeared to decrease significantly after they participated in the intervention program. Specifically, students reported a decreased feeling of fear in attending the English class (item 23).

On the face of it, there is a discrepancy between the finding that emerged from the interview data and the one that emerged from the questionnaire data. The former highlighted problems of anxiety that at least some students faced when attending the intervention class. In contrast, the finding about anxiety based on the questionnaire suggested student progress overall in managing anxiety. Having said that, it might also be pointed out that the anxiety that the students felt only occurred when they were asked to speak in front of others. In other words, the students did not feel so anxious if they were asked to share their ideas directly from their own seats. Unless asked to speak in front of the class, they might be thought of as generally enjoying the learning activities in the class.

Boredom

It will be recalled that two students reported feeling bored with their English class, claiming that the discussion of history was unrelenting and monotonous. It appears then, that not all students were happy with the new teaching approach being implemented. In part this boredom was related to topic selection, with the desire expressed for more variation and less focus on the content subject. However, it appeared from Ririn's comment that her inadequate knowledge of the topics of the content subject discussed and her low proficiency of English were factors in her boredom. I was intrigued by Ririn's comment, since the topics were similar to the ones in the content subject she took in her previous semester course. It may be that her boredom with the topics discussed in the IC class was connected with her decision to study in the History Education Study Program. When I myself was a first-semester student in the undergraduate degree program, I found many of my friends, either in my own study program or in other study programs, commenting that the study programs they took were not their favourite majors. They had chosen the study programs because of family pressures to become teachers or because their close friends took these majors. Many of them planned to move to their favourite majors in the following year. Of course I can't say for sure, but it may be that Ririn was one such student.

From my perspective as teacher, I really did appreciate students' desire to have a range of topics of discussion from both the content subject and aspects of language. A discussion focus on content subject topics would have had the

potential to affect their motivation to learn English. Certainly, scholars such as Bell (2010), Sakai and Kikuchi (2009), and Scovel (1978) share a similar opinion that monotonous classes are one of the demotivating factors in EFL learning. Arai (2004) investigated demotivating factors for 33 university students in Japan who were majoring in English. She found three factors diminishing students' motivation in learning English. One of them was boring or monotonous classes. Sakai and Kikuchi (2009), who reviewed previous research on motivation, concluded that one of the demotivating factors in ESL learning in Japan was "monotonous and boring lessons" (p. 61). Scovel (1978) investigated teacher misbehaviour as a learning demotivator across four cultures: the US, Japan, Germany, and China. From the research findings, boring lectures were among the top five teacher misbehaviours across these four cultures. Addressing boredom, then, is an important issue in language learning if students are to be motivated.

Enjoyment

Enjoyment was a positive affect that emerged from seven students' comments. These students all suggested that they and their classmates enjoyed the intervention program with its theme-based instructional approach. In various ways, they drew attention both to the choice of learning activities, and the choice of topics. In Jodi's comment below, it is noteworthy that he draws attention to the lack of passivity and the high degree of student involvement.

> In my opinion, this lecture is better than any English classes I
> had before. We used to be passive. Just listened to what our
> teacher asked to do. In this lecture, everybody was encouraged
> to talk. The English subject that we used to think was very
> difficult, was not so difficult in this subject. We were not so
> stressful. In fact, we were relaxed and fun during this lecture.
> (Jodi)

As reported in Chapter 8, video data reflected such comments, as did students' journal writings.

A finding from the second section of the questionnaire given only to the IC students suggested that the IC students' self-reported enjoyment appeared to

improve significantly after they participated in the intervention program. Specifically, these students overall reported an increased enjoyment in learning English with their classmates (item 16).

Such comments and findings are in contrast to the negative affect factors discussed earlier. They are an important reminder of the link between enjoyment, motivation and performance. Despite the negative affect findings I have discussed here, my overall sense is that the IC students developed a positive attitude to their learning, which was mostly an enjoyable experience for them. They generally liked and learnt from the EFL learning activities I planned for them, and their anxiety levels around learning tended to diminish over the course of the intervention.

9.3 Triangulation of the findings

The aim of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of content-based instruction, that is, theme-based instruction in improving intervention class (IC) students' verbal communication skills. As this study involved a mixed method approach, the findings from qualitative and quantitative data analyses were triangulated.

In general, the findings related to the second research question, Are there any differences in the EFL students' pre-test and post-test scores measuring verbal communication performance (actual and self-reported)? showed that after the intervention, the mean score of the students in the intervention class (IC) was significantly higher than the mean score of the students in the non-intervention class (NIC). In terms of quantitatively generated findings, it can be concluded that the intervention program given to the intervention class (IC) significantly increased the IC students' English proficiency. However, this conclusion alone cannot be used to claim that the theme-based instructional approach was effective in improving EFL students' verbal communication performance. The finding was insufficient to confidently claim a significant effect of the intervention since it was derived from only one type of data. Therefore, this finding was triangulated with other findings from other research instruments.

Findings from other quantitative data, the first section of the second questionnaire given only to the IC students before and after the intervention, appeared to support the pre-test and post-test findings above. Students' responses in the self-report data confirmed that a majority of them reported EFL proficiency improvement in terms of oral communication performance and confidence in vocabulary use. Such findings were consistent with findings from the pre-test and post-test above showing that the intervention was effective in improving students' communicative skills.

Findings related to the third research question, "What factors affect a theme-based instructional program in improving EFL students' communication skills?" appeared to provide additional support for claims regarding the effectiveness of a theme-based instructional approach in improving EFL students' verbal communicative skills. The findings which emerged from an analysis of the qualitative data generated four themes: motivation and engagement, affect, self-confidence, and a sense of improvement in EFL and content-subject learning.

The IC students' motivation and engagement seemed to increase as a result of the intervention. Drawing on topics from the students' content-subject, I was able to apply various teaching techniques and learning activities, a number of which were widely viewed by students as motivating and enhancing learning, such as role-playing, group presentations, especially given a choice of media and permission to code-switch.

In term of affect, EFL teaching with a theme-based instructional approach seemed to be conducive to student enjoyment of the intervention program. They looked engaged when I used various teaching media and various teaching techniques as well. They also found the topics interesting and they were motivated to participate actively in the learning activities because they had background knowledge of what was being discussed in the class.

Students' self-confidence that they could improve their English proficiency appeared to increase. Having background knowledge about what was being discussed encouraged them to actively share ideas. Witnessing their classmates' active interaction in English made at least some of them believe that they could do the same. Support from myself and peers also strengthened their confidence that

both their English proficiency and content-subject knowledge improved over the course of the intervention program.

Findings from the second section of the second questionnaire, which was given to the IC students only, was intended to answer the fourth research question, "Are there any self-reported differences in intervention class EFL students' motivation and attitudes following the intervention?" The questionnaire sought students' self-evaluations of their attitude toward the current approach, teacher support, affect, motivation, self-confidence, and self-improvement. All findings related to students' self-evaluation of the six components above were positive. Although the majority of the increases were not statistically significant, almost all of them showed increases in mean scores.

On the basis of the above then, I would draw (if cautiously) the conclusion that the implementation of the theme-based instructional approach I designed in the intervention class was effective overall in improving the IC students' verbal communication performance. It certainly appeared to increase students' motivation and engagement, their self-confidence, and their enjoyment in language learning. It appeared to reduce students' anxiety levels also. And finally, it seemed to provide dual benefits for students, that is, it improved their English proficiency and increased their knowledge of content related to their study major.

9.4 Implications of the study

I have argued that, on the basis of my own systematic practitioner inquiry, a theme-based instructional approach was effective in improving my IC students' English communication skills, and helped develop their content knowledge. I believe the findings of this study can help develop our understanding of what constitutes effective EFL teaching and is pertinent to the training of EFL teachers. The study contributes to the literature on the use of CBI as an EFL instructional approach, and is especially significant because it took place in the context of tertiary education in Indonesia.

I believe that this study is the first trialling and investigating the use of CBI in EFL teaching in the Indonesian tertiary educational context. It might be thought of

as a kind of pilot study of considerable relevance to non-English departments in Sumatra University (pseudonym) in particular and in Indonesian higher education in general. It is my intention to report the results of this study to the Dean of the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education of Sumatra University where this study was conducted and to the Head of Sumatra University Language Institute as the provider of EFL teaching for non-English departments in the university. I would anticipate that they will discuss the findings of this study with other university stakeholders (from heads of departments to the Rector) and consider the use of CBI as an alternative instructional approach to replace or complement the current EFL teaching instructional approach which focuses on grammar and reading comprehension.

The findings of this study, although in a small scale, suggest that a theme-based instructional approach can be applied successfully in the Indonesian tertiary education context, which is additional EFL teaching context to those already studied in the literature. They strengthen claims made by proponents of CBI (Alptekin, Erçetin, & Bayyurt, 2007; Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 2003; Davies, 2003; Grabe & Stoller, 1997; Iakovos, Iosif, & Areti, 2011) that CBI is an effective teaching approach for EFL teaching. In addition, this study adds to the literature investigating the effectiveness of a theme-based approach to EFL teaching in tertiary education in the Southeast Asian context. The previous two studies were performed by Ngan (2011) from Vietnam and Suwannoppharat and Kaewsa-ard (2014) from Thailand (see Chapter 2, Section 2.7 for details).

9.5 Limitations of the study

A number of limitations that emerged in this study deserve consideration. I will discuss seven of these in the paragraphs that follow.

This investigation was a case study, an example of practitioner inquiry, which involved only one class of students at an Indonesian tertiary education. This research sample was certainly too small to represent the larger Indonesian EFL teaching context in general. Consequently, the first limitation of this study is that the research findings cannot be generalised to EFL teaching contexts in general, either in Indonesia or more widely. The most I can claim is a certain "indicative"

value that arises from the rich picture this thesis provides of a particular group of Sumatran students.

The length of time allocated for the research was a second limitation of this study. The intervention program delivered to the IC students was taught over only sixteen meetings (one meeting = 100 minutes). The university, where this study was conducted, insisted that the English class involved in this study follow the normal maximum number of lectures, that is, fourteen to sixteen meetings in a semester. The limited duration of the study inevitably influenced the research findings. I could not apply properly what I had planned to do during the intervention program. For example, I could only offer only one role-play opportunity to the IC students. Had a longer time been allocated for this study, for example, a one-hundred-hour intensive program, the effect of the theme-based instructional approach would, I believe, have been more pronounced.

The third limitation of this study was that it was mainly focused on investigating the effect of theme-based instructional approach in improving the intervention class (IC) students' communication skills. Therefore, the research instruments to collect data, especially the qualitative data such as interviews, observations, and surveys were derived from the intervention class only. Had the same research instruments been used to collect data from the non-intervention class, more valid data measuring the effectiveness of the theme-based instructional approach in the intervention class compared to the traditional approach in the non-intervention class would have been gained, which would have strengthened the quality of the research findings.

The fourth limitation of this study was related to an ethical consideration. The non-intervention class students involved in this study were, I would say now, disadvantaged because they did not experience the intervention program using the theme-based instructional approach. As explained in Chapter 5, the limitation of time and the unavailability of classrooms after the intervention program ended made it impossible to offer the NIC students opportunities to experience learning English through a theme-based instructional approach. The two rooms used for this study were reserved for the seventh-semester students, who were doing teaching practice. By the end of the study, therefore, the two rooms were no

longer available since the seventh-semester students used them. See Sub-section 5.6.4 for details.

The next limitation of this study was also ethical in nature, that is, the intervention class students were disadvantaged during the mid-term and semester tests because the test material was dissimilar to what they engaged with in the intervention class. Since the EFL teaching at Sumatra University was still focused on grammar and reading comprehension, the mid-test and semester test for all students taking the English subject were focused on grammar and reading comprehension. This was at odds with the focus of learning in the IC class. (A caveat to this limitation, of course, is that in terms of actual semester test results, IC students did not appear to be disadvantaged. They performed somewhat better than the NIC students, despite their programme adopting a different approach to the teaching of grammar and reading comprehension).

The inability to control for the teacher factor was the next limitation in this study. Due to the limitation of time and unavailability of classrooms, I could not teach both classes myself. Although I had asked my colleague, Harris (pseudonym) who had the same experience and qualification as I had to teach the non-intervention class, there would have been a more valid basis for comparison had I also taught this class using traditional methods. Having said that, this arrangement would also have raised issues, since it would have been difficult for me *not* to inadvertently introduce aspects of CBI into my "traditional" teaching in this instance.

The way in which interviews were conducted after the intervention was completed was a further limitation in this study. For a range of reasons, I had to conduct the interviews myself. In retrospect, I should found a way to have another colleague do the interviews, in order to avoid the issue of a halo effect (students wanting to please me during the interviews) and general issue of trustworthiness with my being both teacher and interviewer. However, the unavailability of other colleagues forced me to assume the interviewer role. As explained in Sub-section 5.3.2, our English Education Study Program lacked teaching staff because many of my colleagues were pursuing their studies for doctoral degrees. There was also a potential advantage in my being the interviewer, should the students have developed a trust in me and were therefore prepared to be honest. It may be that

had someone else interviewed them, students might have responded in ways that put me in a favourable light.

Other limitations in this study related to the questionnaires used. They were not designed as well as they could have been. The use of the term *language skills* in the first questionnaire, for example, was unclear to the students. Had the term used been *communicative language skills,* the students may have responded differently. Other issues arose in the second questionnaire given only to the intervention class students. Two items in section one were actually not related to EFL performance. They belonged more properly to the second section, i.e. students' attitudes toward the current EFL teaching. As a result, they were moved to the second section for the purpose of analysis and report and the total number of items in the second section thereby increased. Items 1 and 8, in the first section of the questionnaire, were problematic also Item 1 was an absolute statement which fell into a double negative trap while item 8 was nonsensical. Therefore, they were removed from the questionnaire. As a result, of the twelve questions used in the first section of the questionnaire, only eight questions remained. It retrospect, the questionnaire should have been piloted with a suitable sample of students.

9.6 Suggestions for Future Research

As stated above, to the best of my knowledge, this study is the first to investigate the use of content-based instruction (CBI), in this case, theme-based instruction, in a tertiary education EFL context in Indonesia. Further studies are needed to investigate the effect of theme-based instructional approach in EFL teaching and learning in Indonesia.

Such studies should involve more groups of students from a range of departments and be of a longer duration of study so that better results pertaining to the benefits or otherwise of theme-based instruction in EFL teaching in Indonesia can be generated. More specific studies of the factors affecting students' motivation and engagement, affect, self-confidence would also benefit the academic and teacher education communities.

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APPENDICES

LETTER OF PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH

3/5 Scotland Place Hillcrest
3216 Hamilton
New Zealand

Head of Department
Department of History Education
Faculty of Teacher Training and Education
Sumatra University
Indonesia

Dear Mrs. ………

Permission to conduct a study on "Developing EFL students' communicative skills through content-based instruction"

I wish to seek your permission to conduct a research study on the above topic. As part of the PhD program under the supervision of my chief supervisor, Professor Terry Locke at the Arts and Language Education Department, School of Education, University of Waikato, New Zealand, I am conducting a research project examining the effectiveness of using a content-based instructional approach, i.e. theme-based instructional approach in improving EFL student communicative skills. This research intends to examine EFL students' attitudes towards the current EFL teaching program; investigate the effectiveness of a theme-based instructional program in improving students' communicative skills; analyse the differences in EFL students' proficiency in verbal communication behaviours before and after the CBI treatment; and study EFL students' motivation level in language learning before and after the theme-based instruction treatment. This is an intervention study that requires me to develop a 6-week intervention program. However, in grading and assessing the participants involved in this study, I will strictly adhere to the standard specified by the department.

I would like to reassure you that I will be protecting the participants' confidentiality and anonymity. All information collected during the research process will be treated strictly confidential and stored securely with the researcher only.

This letter is a request for your permission to let me conduct my research and to intervene in the English compulsory course offered by the department. I would be grateful if you grant me your permission.

Thank You.

Sincerely,

ERYANSYAH

INFORMATION TO PARTICIPANT

Dear student,

As part of my PhD program at the University of Waikato, I am conducting a research project examining the effectiveness of using content-based instructional approach in improving EFL student communicative skills. This research will develop an instructional program that uses a process content-based instruction approach to enhance students' oral communication skills. This research intends to examine EFL students' attitudes towards the current EFL teaching program; investigate the effectiveness of a theme-based instructional program in improving students' communicative skills; analyse the differences in EFL students' proficiency in verbal and non-verbal communication behaviours before and after the CBI treatment; and study EFL students' motivation level in language teaching before and after the theme-based instruction treatment.

I would like to invite you to be a participant and to be involved in this research. You are selected as a participant because you are enrolled in the compulsory English course offered by the Department of History Education.

The data for the study will be collected over 6 weeks and some of the sessions will be videotaped. The researcher and the participants will also keep a reflective journal about the class. At the end of the 6 week period, I would also like to invite 8 participants for an interview session. This interview session will be audio-taped and the transcript sent to you confidentially for checking. The data collected will be analysed to examine the effectiveness of the instructional program that I have designed and implemented.

Some of the lessons will be observed by a colleague of mine who will be especially trained for the task and who will sign a document guaranteeing your confidentiality. He will not be involved in assessing you in any way. Data gathered will remain confidential and only my supervisors and I will have access to it. You are free to suggest the pseudonym that you would like me to use. Information that I am collecting will be employed for the purpose of my doctoral thesis. Your participation in the study is important because the information you provide will be useful in designing future EFL teaching in the university so that other students will benefit from the study.

Participation in this study is voluntary and you may withdraw from this research before the fourth week the semester begins. If you have any queries regarding this research, please direct them to me or my chief supervisor, Professor Terry Locke at t.locke@waikato.ac.nz. I may be contacted at any time at this number 07117045504. You may also email me of your queries at er4@students.waikato.ac.nz. If you agree to participate in this research, please sign the copy of Informed Consent form and return it to the researcher.

Thank you for your time.

Eryansyah   Professor Terry Locke
Researcher/PhD Candidate   Chief Supervisor
The School of Education   Arts and Language Education
University of Waikato   Department
New Zealand   The School of Education
                                            University of Waikato
                                            New Zealand

CONSENT FORM

I have read the information sheet and have been informed about the research project. I understand that I am going to be a participant in this research. I understand that my name will not be revealed in any parts of the research or the written report of the research and I will not be identified without my written permission. I agree to participate and if I wish to withdraw, I should do so before the fourth week into the study.

I am happy to participate in this research and I understand that the use of materials generated by this research will be used for the researcher's doctoral thesis, publication and conference purposes only. I understand that data will be reported in a way to protect my confidentiality, and the data will be stored securely. I also give consent of the audio taping of the interview session and my video image to be used for academic purposes.

For data analysis and publication purposes,

☐ I am happy to keep my original name.
☐ I wish to use a pseudonym. The name I would like to use is

_____

Signed: _____

Name: _____

Date: _____

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN AN INTERVIEW SESSION

Dear Student,

I would like to invite you to participate in an interview session that is part of my research project. This purpose of this interview is to gain an in-depth insight of your views about the activities we have conducted in class. If you decide to volunteer to participate in this research, I will ask you to do these things:

> Participate in a 20 minute oral interview.
> Your interview will be audio-recorded for later reference.
> Your name will not be disclosed.

You will be sent the transcripts of these interviews for confirmation and amendment.

Any information obtained from this interview will be disclosed only with your permission.

Please indicate your preference for an interview session.
> ☐During class
>
> ☐After class
>
> ☐Another time

If you prefer this option, please give me your mobile number so that I can arrange a meeting with you.

Mobile Number: ....

I agree to participate in this interview. I have been given a copy of this form.

Name   : ....

Signature   : ....

Date   : ....

QUESTIONNAIRE TO ALL STUDENTS TAKING
COMPULSORY ENGLISH COURSE

This questionnaire is part of the research project into examining your attitude towards language learning especially the oral communication component. This questionnaire is for research purposes only. The information you provide is very important for developing course materials. Thank you for your cooperation in completing this questionnaire.

SECTION A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION
1. Gender   : M/F
2. Major   : History Education

SECTION B: EFL LEARNING EXPERIENCE

1. How long have you learned English?
   - ☐ 6 years
   - ☐ 9 years
   - ☐ More than 9 years

2. Where did you learn English before?
   (If you tick both answers, go on to item #3)
   - ☐ At school
   - ☐ At an English course

3. Why did you study English at an English course?
   - ☐ Learning English at school is not enough to improve my English
   - ☐ My parents asked me to do so
   - ☐ I like English very much
   - ☐ Others. Please explain _____

4. What was your previous EFL learning at school mostly focused on?
   - ☐ Grammar
   - ☐ Grammar and reading comprehension
   - ☐ Language skills

5. Did your English teachers at school use various teaching approaches?
   - ☐ Yes. Please explain what teaching approaches were used
     _____
     _____
   - ☐ No

6. Did your English teachers at school use various teaching media?
   - ☐ Yes. Please explain what teaching media were used
     _____
     _____
   - ☐ No

7. Do you use textbooks to learn English?   ☐ Yes   ☐ No
8. Do you use TV to learn English?   ☐ Yes   ☐ No
9. Do you use newspapers to learn English?   ☐ Yes   ☐ No
10. Do you use VCD or CD to learn English?   ☐ Yes   ☐ No
11. Do you use internet to learn English?   ☐ Yes   ☐ No
12. Were you motivated to learn English when you were a high school student?   ☐ Yes   ☐ No

13. Why were you not motivated to learn English when you were a high school student?
   - ☐ Teachers teaching English were boring
   - ☐ Activities in the English lessons were boring
   - ☐ Activities in the English classes were unstructured

14. How do you rate your English proficiency? ☐ Very bad   ☐ Good
                                                ☐ Bad   ☐ Very good
                                                ☐ Average

SECTION C: STUDENT'S ATTITUDES TOWARD CURRENT EFL TEACHING PROGRAM

1. Do you like to study English?
    ☐ Yes. Why? (Please choose the ones that apply to you.)
        ☐ It is a compulsory subject.
        ☐ I want to understand reading materials in English.
        ☐ I want to use it for my career.
        ☐ I want to continue my study abroad.
        ☐ I do not want to fall behind.
        ☐ Others. Please explain
        _____

    ☐ No. Why?
        _____
2. How important do you think English is?
    ☐ Very important   ☐ Quite important,
    ☐ Not so important   ☐ Not important at all, Why
        _____
3. Do you think 2 credits a week for English subject at university are enough?
    ☐ Yes   ☐ No

4. If No, how many credits do you think the appropriate teaching credits for English subject at university?
    ☐ 4 credits a week   ☐ 6 credits a week
    ☐ 8 credits a week   ☐ more than 8 credits a week
5. Do you like a big class for English subject?
    ☐ Yes   ☐ No
6. If No, what is the ideal number of students in an English class?
    ☐ 10 students   ☐ 15 students
    ☐ 20 students   ☐ More than 20 students
7. Does EFL teaching at university give you any fear or unpleasant feeling?
    ☐ Yes   ☐ No
8. If you answer **Yes**, please choose what give you any fear or unpleasant feeling.
    ☐ Ways of class instruction   ☐ Fear of inaccurate pronunciation
    ☐ Fear of examinations   ☐ Fear of making grammatical errors
    ☐ Others. Please explain
        _____

9. Do you do anything to improve your English outside the classroom?
    ☐ Yes (tick ways you do to improve your English outside classroom)
        ☐ I read English novels or/and magazines.
        ☐ I listen to English radio stations.
        ☐ I speak English to my friends.
        ☐ I write letters/emails to my pen-pals abroad.
        ☐ I attend English language courses organized outside the campus.
        ☐ Others. Please explain
        _____

    ☐ No
10. Do you agree that EFL teaching at university is focused mainly on grammar and reading comprehension?
    ☐ Yes   ☐ No
11. If No, what should EFL teaching be focused on?
    ☐ Developing speaking skill
    ☐ Developing reading skill

☐ Developing writing skill
☐ Developing all language skills

12. Do you think that **listening, reading, speaking and writing** are of equal importance in English learning?

☐ Yes   ☐ No

13. If you have to choose the most important language skills, what do you think is the best sequence?

☐ Listening, speaking, reading, writing   ☐ Speaking, listening, reading, writing

☐ Reading, speaking, listening, writing   ☐ Writing, reading, listening, speaking

☐ Others, please elaborate

_____

14. What teaching approach do you prefer when learning English in the class? (Please tick one)

☐ Teacher-centred approach. Why

_____

☐ Student-centred approach. Why

_____

☐ Combination of teacher and student-centred approach.
Why

_____

15. Do you like EFL teaching materials focused on discussions related to your own major of study or general themes?

☐ Related to my major of study
Why?

_____

☐ General themes
Why?

_____

PRE AND POST INTERVENTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear participants,
Thank you for agreeing to complete this survey. This questionnaire investigates your attitude and motivation toward EFL learning. The answers you give are for research purposes only. All information given is treated with strictly confidential. The information you provide will be useful to improve EFL teaching and learning in your university.

SECTION A: BACKGROUND DETAILS
1. Name (Use your pseudonym):
2. Educational Background
   a. Name of your last secondary school:

   _____

   b. Language spoken at home. (You may tick more than one)
      ☐ *Indonesian*   ☐ *Sekayunese*
      ☐ *Palembangnese*   ☐ *Komeringnese*
      ☐ *Javanese*   ☐ *Others (Please state)*

   _____

SECTION B: ENGLISH PROFICIENCY SCALE RATING
Put a tick on each of the following items based on the scales given.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
1. I cannot speak English at all.					
2. I can communicate in English but use short phrases only.					
3. I can hold daily conversations in English well.					
4. I need to use some language from my own language to help me describe unfamiliar things in English.					
5. I can express my opinions fluently.					
6. I can come up with the right words.					
7. I have difficulties in expressing ideas.					
8. I make grammatical mistakes when speaking in English.					
9. I recognise the mistakes I made when speaking					
10. I am afraid of speaking English in front of my classmates					
11. I feel embarrassed speaking English to other students					
12. In English class, I prefer my teacher to explain in Indonesian language					

SECTION C: STUDENT'S MOTIVATION TO EFL TEACHING

Tick for the one that reflects your opinion.

SA is for Strongly Agree
A is for Agree
D is for Disagree
SD is for Strongly Disagree
NS is for Not Sure

	SA	A	D	SD	NS
1. Learning English is important because it is an international language.					
2. I am satisfied with my overall English performance.					
3. I am confident I can learn English well in this class.					
4. I am confident I can pass English subject well.					
5. I am confident I can get better grade than other students.					
6. The EFL teaching techniques used by my teacher are motivating.					
7. The EFL teaching materials used by my teacher are interesting					
8. The EFL teaching materials used by my English teacher are highly relevant to my major of study.					
9. The EFL teaching media used by my English teacher help me to understand EFL materials better.					
10. My English teacher is friendly.					
11. My English teacher always encourages me to speak in English.					
12. My English teacher gives me opportunities to practice English.					
13. My English teacher applies the four language skills in our English class					
14. My English teacher gives me opportunities to practice the language skills.					
15. My understanding of the content of the English language teaching materials related to my major was satisfactory.					
16. I enjoy learning English together with my classmates in this class.					
17. I am interested in and feel involved during English course.					
18. I got a lot of knowledge from every English lecture I participated in.					
19. The teaching instructional approach used by my teacher motivates me to learn better.					
20. I think my English proficiency is improving.					
21. I prefer the instructional approach currently used by my English teacher to other traditional classroom instructions.					
22. My background knowledge in the field of history, which was used for teaching materials in English, motivates me to learn English even harder.					
23. I don't feel any fear in attending this class.					
24. I am pleased to participate in discussion held in English in this course.					
25. If I have a lot of leisure time, I will spend it studying English more intensively.					

PRE-TEST QUESTIONS

Tell me about your family?

Which part of Indonesia do you come from? Describe your hometown.

Why do you choose to be a teacher?

Do you have anyone that you admire the most? Who? Why?

Tell me about a most difficult situation that you handled.

POST-TEST QUESTIONS

What cities have you ever visited? Describe the visited city that you like best.

Tell me about your first impression studying at this university.

Describe your unforgettable experience.

If you have one billion Rupiahs, what will you do with the money?

Describe how you applied for study at this university.

STUDENTS' INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

1. What do you think about this course?

2. What do you like or do not like about this course?

3. What do you think about the use of theme-based language instructional approach in your EFL learning?

4. Which activities do you like the best? Why?

5. What are the factors that make you confident in speaking English in this class?

6. How did you manage your fear of speaking?

7. Do you think your English has improved? In what way?

8. What are some positive or negative aspects of learning English this way?

9. What other aspects of learning have you noticed taking place in the classroom?

10. Give suggestions on how the course can be improved.

TEACHER'S REFLECTIVE JOURNAL

DATE:
MEETING:
TOPIC:
OVERALL AIMS:

1. What were the interesting events that happened today?
   _____
   _____

2. What happened while participants were doing the activities?
   _____
   _____

3. What were the events that surprised me as the teacher?
   _____
   _____

4. Describe students' performance:-
   a. Speaking:
   _____
   _____

   b. Motivation level:
   _____
   _____

   c. Confidence:
   _____
   _____

5. How was my performance as a teacher today?
   _____
   _____

6. How can I improve on today's teaching?

   _____
   _____

STUDENT'S REFLECTIVE JOURNAL

1. What have you learned today?
   _____
   _____

2. What are your personal feelings dealing with what you have learned today?
   _____
   _____

3. Which part of today's lesson was useful?
   _____
   _____

4. What problem did you face today?
   _____
   _____

5. How did you overcome your problem?
   _____
   _____

6. My listening ability today was:
   _____
   _____

7. My speaking ability today was:
   _____
   _____

8. My reading ability today was:
   _____
   _____

9. My writing ability today was:
   _____
   _____

10. My motivation level in class was:
    _____
    _____

11. My confidence level was:
    _____
    _____

12. What I have learned was:
    _____
    _____

OBSERVER SHEET

Date:
Meeting:
Topic:

1. What were the interesting events that happened today?

_____
_____
_____

2. What happened while participants were doing certain learning activities?

_____
_____
_____

3. Describe students' performance:
a. Speaking:

_____
_____
_____

b. Motivation level:

_____
_____
_____

c. Confidence:

_____
_____
_____

4. What seemed to be problems that occurred during the teaching and learning activities?

_____
_____
_____
_____

CRITERIA FOR ORAL TEST

FLUENCY

1-2	Utterances halting, fragmentary, incoherent, few words. No communication for unprepared questions.
3-4	Uses more words or phrases, but hesitant utterances even in short turns. Uses few words for unprepared questions.
5-6	Can quickly express prepared answer and get ideas across. Hesitant and brief for unprepared questions.
7-8	Effective communication in short turns; little pause. Fluent on very familiar topics.
9-10	Effective communication for ordinary conversation. Occasional pauses.

COMPLEXITY

1-2	Uses only single words.
3-4	Uses words or some common phrases; even simple sentences.
5-6	Can combine two or more phrases or comprehensible sentences.
7-8	Uses mainly sentences, sometimes complex sentences.
9-10	Uses compound or complex sentences; some native speaker's usage.

ACCURACY

1-2	Uses only single words; no awareness of grammar at all.
3-4	Uses some stock phrases; many errors when using sentences; some awareness of grammatical concepts but may have very strong accent.
5-6	Uses some grammatical concepts correctly, but frequent grammatical inaccuracy; retains slight foreign accent.
7-8	Occasionally makes grammatical errors; basically correct sentence patterns; unstable grammatical usage.
9-10	Few grammatical errors, but does not interfere with communication; slight foreign accent.

(Adapted from Wen, 2006)

English Language Test Score Comparison Table

2005

TOEIC	TOEFL Paper	TOEFL CBT	TOEFL IBT	IELTS	Cambridge Exam	CEFR
0 - 250	0 - 310	0 - 30	0 - 8	0 - 1.0		
	310 - 343	33 - 60	9 - 18	1.0 - 1.5		A1
255 - 400	347 - 393	63 - 90	19 - 29	2.0 - 2.5		A1
	397 - 433	93 - 120	30 - 40	3.0 - 3.5	KET (IELTS 3.0)	A2
					PET (IELTS 3.5)	B1 (IELTS 3.5)
405 - 600	437 - 473	123 - 150	41 - 52	4.0	PET	B1
	477 - 510	153 - 180	53 - 64	4.5 - 5.0	PET (IELTS 4.5)	B1 (IELTS 4.5)
					FCE (IELTS 5.0)	B2 (IELTS 5.0)
605 - 780	513 - 547	183 - 210	65 - 78	5.5 - 6.0	FCE	B2
	550 - 587	213 - 240	79 - 95	6.5 - 7.0	CAE	C1
785 - 990	590 - 677	243 - 300	96 - 120	7.5 - 9.0	CPE	C2
Top Score	Top Score	Top Score	Top Score	Top Score	Top Score	Top Level
990	677	300	120	9	100	C2

Adapted from Vancouver English Centre, 2010

COURSE SYLLABUS

Course   : English
Credits   : 2 credits
Class time : 8:00 am to 9:40 am
Classroom :
Instructor : Eryansyah
      Phone   : +627117045504
      E-mail   : er4@students.waikato.ac.nz
            eryansyah@fkip.unsri.ac.id
      Office hours : By appointment

Course Description:
This course is designed to develop EFL students' communicative skills which cover the four language skills i.e. listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Although each meeting will focus mainly on certain skill(s), the teaching and learning activities in the class will be carried out as integrated activities which will involve the four language skills.

General Learning Objective:
  At the end of the programme, the students were able to communicate their thoughts about their academic content in English both orally and in writing.

Specific Learning Objectives:
  (1) to develop students' ability to communicate topics in their academic content in four language skills, i.e. listening, speaking, reading, and writing,
  (2) to strengthen students' knowledge of the academic content they were taking,
  (3) to increase students' motivation and engagement and self-confidence in learning English as a foreign language.

Attendance Policy:
  Students must be registered for the class to attend. Attendance is a very important part of the learning process. Students are expected to attend all classes. It is important to contact the instructor about absences. Please leave a message or send an e-mail. Students who miss more than two classes may be dropped from the class.
  Students are advised to be punctual—30 minutes late considered absent, and those who attend classes less than 80% are not allowed to join the final semester—meaning that they fail on this subject.

Grading:

The scores are based on quizzes, mid semester exam, and final semester examination. The scoring system is as follows:

A	86 – 100
B	71 – 85
C	56 – 70
D	41 – 55
E	< 40

Course Schedule and Activities:

Week	Meeting	Activities
1	1	Introduction of the course, pre-tests, surveys
	2	Reading comprehension: The temple of Angkor Video Comprehension: History of Angkor Wat
	3	Reading comprehension: A brief history of Melaka Video Comprehension: Melaka Empire Paragraph Writing: Retelling story in written language
2	4	Reading comprehension: A brief history of Singapore Video Comprehension: The independence of Singapore Paragraph Writing: Retelling story in written language
	5	Listening comprehension: Story of Magellan Reading comprehension: History of Philippines Video comprehension: Lapu-Lapu Paragraph writing: Retelling story in written language
	6	Reading comprehension: History of Thailand Video comprehension: History of Ayyutthaya Paragraph writing: Retelling story in written language
3	7	Grammar: Review of Basic Tenses (Power point presentation)
	8	Grammar: Sentence Structure (Power point presentation)
	9	Mid-term Test
4	10	Paragraph writing: Basic paragraph structure
	11	Paragraph writing: Coherence and unity
	12	Paragraph writing: Basic essay structure
5	13	Role-plays/debates: Magellan's fatal mistake
	14	Group presentations
	15	Group presentations
6	16	Group presentations
	17	Final Semester test
	18	Post-tests, post-surveys

Resources/Equipments:
Video, Power point presentation, LCD projector, audio tape recorder

References:

DeWitt, D. (2002). Melaka, the historical city. Retrieved July 15, 2009 from
　　http://www.geocities.com/Heartland/Forest/1891/MelakaHistory.htm

Discovery Channel. (2008). History of Singapore [Online video]. Youtube.
　　Retrieved February 25, 2009 from
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Early Bangkok period. (2009). In Encyclopædia Britannica. Retrieved August 12,
　　2009, from Encyclopædia Britannica Online:
　　http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/175723/Early-Bangkok-period

History of Singapore. [Online video]. Youtube. Retrieved July 22, 2009 from
　　http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=O12Lwol3iaY

History of Southeast Asia. In Asian Focus Group. Retrieved July 10, 2009, from
　　http://www.aseanfocus.com/publications/history_of_sea.html.

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　　http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=idSz-taFxm8

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　　http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VphFFnuR_Vo&feature=related

Leverton, P.S. (2008). History of Angkor [Online Video]. Youtube. Retrieved
　　February 20, 2009 from http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=EXF2Z-
　　OST3c&feature=related.

Philippines in 100 years [Online video]. Youtube. Retrieved February 25, 2009
　　from http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=nFS96MslM9w

Postong, P. (2006). A brief history of Phuket [Online video]. Youtube. Retrieved
　　February 25, 2009 from http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=aHopckCSKb4

Safai'ee, N.M. (2009). Melaka Empire [Online video]. Youtube. Retrieved
　　February 20, 2009 from http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yOrgHcMoAzw

Singapore. (2006). In Library of Congress – Federal Research Division. Retrieved
　　August 12, 2009 from http://lcweb4.loc.gov/frd/cs/profiles/

Thailand Ayyuttaya 1. [Online video]. Youtube. Retrieved July 20, 2009 from
　　http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ikUqpv0eX4g

Walters, F. S. (2001). Introduction to the TOEFL Writing Research Project.
　　Retrieved April 14, 2009, from
　　http://lrs.ed.uiuc.edu/students/fwalters/toeflwrite.html.

COURSE SYLLABUS

Course   : English
Credits   : 2 credits
Class time : 8:00 am to 9:40 am
Classroom :
Instructor : Harris (pseudonym)
             Phone   :
             E-mail   :

Course Description:
This course is designed to develop EFL students' grammar and reading comprehension skills to facilitate students' understanding of the literature written in English.

General Learning Objective:
At the end of the programme, students will have basic knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary to assist them reading and understanding English written textbooks related to their major of study.

Specific Learning Objectives:
(1) Students are able identify basic English grammar for the purpose of understanding English sentence structure.
(2) Students are able to scan and skim in order to locate specific information in a reading passage.

Attendance Policy:
Students must be registered for the class to attend. Attendance is a very important part of the learning process. Students are expected to attend all classes. It is important to contact the instructor about absences. Please leave a message or send an e-mail. Students who miss more than two classes may be dropped from the class.

Students are advised to be punctual—30 minutes late considered absent, and those who attend classes less than 80% are not allowed to join the final semester—meaning that they fail on this subject.

Grading:
The scores are based on quizzes, mid semester exam, and final semester examination. The scoring system is as follows:

A	86 – 100
B	71 – 85
C	56 – 70
D	41 – 55
E	< 40

Course Schedule and Activities:

Week	Meeting	Activities
1	1	Introduction of the course, pre-tests, surveys
	2	Countable/non-countable nouns
	3	Reading comprehension: Investment
2	4	Tenses
	5	Reading comprehension: Education
	6	The passive voice
3	7	Education in Indonesia
	8	Making comparisons
	9	Mid-term Test
4	10	Reading comprehension: partners/From moats to market place
	11	Conditional sentence
	12	Reading comprehension: Economics for the citizen
5	13	Gerund and Infinitive
	14	Reading comprehension: Retirement
	15	Reading comprehension: Wild life conservation
6	16	Reading comprehension: Why study psychology?
	17	Semester test
	18	Post-test

Resources/Equipments:
Overhead projector

References:
Sriwijaya University Language Institute. (2009). English for general purposes:
For the students of social sciences. Palembang: Sriwijaya University
Language Institute

LESSON PLAN

#2 Meeting
Teacher's name: Eryansyah
Class:
Date:
Unit Focus: Reading & Video Comprehension

AIM: To interest students in the history of old civilization in Cambodia

Specific Learning Objectives:
1. Activity 1 (40 minutes)
   a. Can identify through scanning and reading straight-forward information from a text.
   b. Can share orally meaning derived from a written text.
   c. Are willing to agree or disagree about a topic.

2. Activity 2 (50 minutes)
   a. Can identify straight forward information from a video through watching and note-taking.
   b. Can share orally specific focused topics.
   c. Are willing to agree or disagree about a topic.
   d. Can express understanding of the video in a 150-word paragraph.

Resources/Equipment: Reading passage, computer and LCD

Lesson Sequence:
1. Introduction: Tell the students that they are going to have reading and video comprehension and ask them to brainstorm what they know about the topic (the Angkor Watt) (5 minutes).

   a. Activity 1:

Student activity	Teacher role
1. Students read the passage quickly (5 minutes).	1. Introduce the passage and ask students to read it quickly.
2. Students look at the questions and scan the answers from the passage (10 minutes).	2. Ask students in groups of two to look at the questions and quickly scan the answers from the passage.
3. Each group presents their findings and let other groups to agree or disagree with their findings (15 minutes).	3. Ask each group to present their findings and let other groups to agree or disagree with the answers.
4. One group makes brief oral summary of the passage (5 minutes).	4. Monitor the discussion
	5. Close the discussion and ask one group to make brief oral summary of the passage.

b. Activity 2:

Student activity	Teacher role
1. Students to watch the movie (10 minutes).	1. Ask students to watch the movie.
2. Students make notes based on the focused topics provided.	2. Ask them to make notes based on the focused topics provided.
3. Students in groups of two to share their answers (5 minutes).	3. Ask students in groups of two to share their answers.
4. Each group presents their findings and let other groups to agree or disagree with the answers (15 minutes).	4. Ask each group to present their findings and let other groups to agree or disagree with the answers. (Do the same procedure to the rest of the groups)
5. Students summarise what they have discussed in a 100-word paragraph (20 minutes).	5. Ask students to summarise what they have discuss in a 100-word paragraph.

Evaluation:

| Students: |
| Teacher: |
| Future strategies I might employ: |
| Associate comment: |

PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST SCORES

INTERVENTION CLASS

PRE-TEST

No	ITP TOEFL LIKE TEST	Z-score	T-score	Rounded	Oral test	TOTAL AVERAGE
1	410	2.214406	72.14406	7.2	5.33	6.46
2	383	1.153431	61.53431	6.2	5.00	5.69
3	383	1.153431	61.53431	6.2	5.00	5.69
4	380	1.035545	60.35545	6.0	5.00	5.62
5	370	0.642592	56.42592	5.6	5.00	5.39
6	363	0.367525	53.67525	5.4	5.00	5.22
7	360	0.249639	52.49639	5.2	4.67	5.02
8	353	-0.02543	49.74572	5.0	4.67	4.85
9	347	-0.2612	47.388	4.7	4.33	4.58
10	347	-0.2612	47.388	4.7	4.33	4.58
11	343	-0.41838	45.81619	4.6	4.33	4.48
12	343	-0.41838	45.81619	4.6	4.00	4.35
13	337	-0.65415	43.45847	4.3	3.67	4.08
14	330	-0.92922	40.7078	4.1	3.67	3.91
15	323	-1.20429	37.95713	3.8	3.67	3.75
16	323	-1.20429	37.95713	3.8	3.33	3.61
17	317	-1.44006	35.59941	3.6	2.33	3.07
MEAN	353.65				4.31	4.73

POST-TEST

No	ITP TOEFL LIKE TEST	Z-score	T-score	Rounded	Oral test	TOTAL AVERAGE
1	497	2.384774	73.84774	7.4	7.67	7.50
2	463	1.551904	65.51904	6.6	7.00	6.73
3	437	0.915003	59.15003	5.9	7.00	6.35
4	430	0.74353	57.4353	5.7	7.00	6.25
5	420	0.498568	54.98568	5.5	7.00	6.10
6	417	0.42508	54.2508	5.4	7.00	6.06
7	407	0.180118	51.80118	5.2	6.67	5.78
8	400	0.008645	50.08645	5.0	6.67	5.67
9	387	-0.30981	46.90194	4.7	6.67	5.48
10	383	-0.40779	45.9221	4.6	6.67	5.42
11	383	-0.40779	45.9221	4.6	6.33	5.29
12	377	-0.55477	44.45233	4.4	6.33	5.20
13	367	-0.79973	42.00271	4.2	5.67	4.79
14	367	-0.79973	42.00271	4.2	5.33	4.65
15	363	-0.89771	41.02286	4.1	5.00	4.46
16	353	-1.14268	38.57324	3.9	5.00	4.31
17	343	-1.38764	36.12363	3.6	5.00	4.17
MEAN	399.65				6.35	5.54

NON-INTERVENTION CLASS

PRE-TEST

No	ITP TOEFL LIKE TEST	Z-score	T-score	Rounded	Oral test	TOTAL AVERAGE
1	387	1.54011	65.4011	6.5	5.00	5.92
2	380	1.195432	61.95432	6.2	5.00	5.72
3	373	0.850754	58.50754	5.9	5.00	5.51
4	373	0.850754	58.50754	5.9	5.00	5.51
5	370	0.703035	57.03035	5.7	5.00	5.42
6	370	0.703035	57.03035	5.7	4.67	5.29
7	367	0.555316	55.55316	5.6	4.67	5.20
8	363	0.358357	53.58357	5.4	4.67	5.08
9	360	0.210638	52.10638	5.2	4.33	4.86
10	353	-0.13404	48.6596	4.9	4.00	4.52
11	353	-0.13404	48.6596	4.9	4.00	4.52
12	350	-0.28176	47.18241	4.7	4.00	4.43
13	350	-0.28176	47.18241	4.7	4.00	4.43
14	347	-0.42948	45.70521	4.6	3.67	4.21
15	340	-0.77416	42.25843	4.2	3.67	4.00
16	340	-0.77416	42.25843	4.2	3.33	3.87
17	317	-1.90667	30.9333	3.1	3.33	3.19
18	310	-2.25135	27.48652	2.7	3.33	2.98
MEAN	355.72				4.26	4.70

POST-TEST

No	ITP TOEFL LIKE TEST	Z-score	T-score	Rounded	Oral test	TOTAL AVERAGE
1	450	1.90452	69.0452	6.9	6.00	6.54
2	433	1.360371	63.60371	6.4	5.33	5.95
3	433	1.360371	63.60371	6.4	5.00	5.82
4	423	1.040284	60.40284	6.0	5.00	5.62
5	407	0.528144	55.28144	5.5	5.00	5.32
6	407	0.528144	55.28144	5.5	5.00	5.32
7	403	0.400109	54.00109	5.4	5.00	5.24
8	400	0.304083	53.04083	5.3	4.67	5.05
9	390	-0.016	49.83996	5.0	4.33	4.72
10	383	-0.24007	47.59934	4.8	4.33	4.59
11	380	-0.33609	46.63908	4.7	4.00	4.40
12	373	-0.56015	44.39847	4.4	4.00	4.26
13	367	-0.75221	42.47795	4.2	4.00	4.15
14	367	-0.75221	42.47795	4.2	4.00	4.15
15	363	-0.88024	41.1976	4.1	3.67	3.94
16	363	-0.88024	41.1976	4.1	3.67	3.94
17	350	-1.29635	37.03646	3.7	3.00	3.42
18	337	-1.71247	32.87533	3.3	3.00	3.17
MEAN	390.5				4.39	4.76

MID-TEST AND SEMESTER-TEST SCORES

Intervention class' mid-test scores

No	Reading comprehension (R)	Grammar (G1)	Grammar (G2)	Processed scores R	Processed scores G1	Processed scores G2	Total
1	13	13	0	2.6	3.25	0	5.85
2	15	9	0	3	2.25	0	5.25
3	10	11	0	2	2.75	0	4.75
4	10	11	0	2	2.75	0	4.75
5	8	10	3	1.6	2.5	0.6	4.7
6	5	14	0	1	3.5	0	4.5
7	11	9	0	2.2	2.25	0	4.45
8	13	7	0	2.6	1.75	0	4.35
9	14	6	0	2.8	1.5	0	4.3
10	10	8	0	2	2	0	4
11	8	9	0	1.6	2.25	0	3.85
12	9	8	0	1.8	2	0	3.8
13	8	8	0	1.6	2	0	3.6
14	7	8	0	1.4	2	0	3.4
15	9	6	0	1.8	1.5	0	3.3
16	7	7	0	1.4	1.75	0	3.15
17	5	8	0	1	2	0	3
Total							71
Mean							4.18

Non-intervention class' mid-test scores

No	Reading comprehension (R)	Grammar (G1)	Grammar (G2)	Processed scores R	Processed scores G1	Processed scores G2	Total
1	15	14	3	3	3.5	0.6	7.1
2	11	16	2	2.2	4	0.4	6.6
3	15	12	2	3	3	0.4	6.4
4	12	11	2	2.4	2.75	0.4	5.55
5	13	11	1	2.6	2.75	0.2	5.55
6	12	12	0	2.4	3	0	5.4
7	13	11	0	2.6	2.75	0	5.35
8	11	12	0	2.2	3	0	5.2
9	9	12	2	1.8	3	0.4	5.2
10	12	10	1	2.4	2.5	0.2	5.1
11	12	10	1	2.4	2.5	0.2	5.1
12	6	12	1	1.2	3	0.2	4.4
13	7	11	0	1.4	2.75	0	4.15
14	7	9	0	1.4	2.25	0	3.65
15	10	6	0	2	1.5	0	3.5
16	12	3	0	2.4	0.75	0	3.15
17	7	6	0	1.4	1.5	0	2.9
18	10	2	0	2	0.5	0	2.5
Total							86.8
Mean							4.82

Intervention Class' Semester-test Scores

No	Reading comprehension (R)	Grammar		Processed scores			Total
		(G1)	(G2)	R	G1	G2	
1	17	14	0	3.4	2.8	0	6.2
2	13	14	0	2.6	2.8	0	5.4
3	12	15	0	2.4	3	0	5.4
4	13	12	0	2.6	2.4	0	5
5	11	14	0	2.2	2.8	0	5
6	11	14	0	2.2	2.8	0	5
7	15	10	0	3	2	0	5
8	11	14	0	2.2	2.8	0	5
9	13	11	0	2.6	2.2	0	4.8
10	12	12	0	2.4	2.4	0	4.8
11	9	15	0	1.8	3	0	4.8
12	9	14	0	1.8	2.8	0	4.6
13	9	14	0	1.8	2.8	0	4.6
14	8	15	0	1.6	3	0	4.6
15	11	11	0	2.2	2.2	0	4.4
16	9	13	0	1.8	2.6	0	4.4
17	7	12	0	1.4	2.4	0	3.8
Total							82.8
							4.87

Non-intervention class' semester-test scores

No	Reading comprehension (R)	Grammar		Processed scores			Total
		(G1)	(G2)	R	G1	G2	
1	10	20	0	2	4	0	6
2	15	15	0	3	3	0	6
3	18	12	0	3.6	2.4	0	6
4	11	17	0	2.2	3.4	0	5.6
5	10	16	0	2	3.2	0	5.2
6	10	16	0	2	3.2	0	5.2
7	12	14	0	2.4	2.8	0	5.2
8	13	11	0	2.6	2.2	0	4.8
9	10	12	0	2	2.4	0	4.4
10	10	12	0	2	2.4	0	4.4
11	12	10	0	2.4	2	0	4.4
12	10	11	0	2	2.2	0	4.2
13	5	15	0	1	3	0	4
14	9	10	0	1.8	2	0	3.8
15	8	11	0	1.6	2.2	0	3.8
16	6	13	0	1.2	2.6	0	3.8
17	6	10	0	1.2	2	0	3.2
18	4	8	0	0.8	1.6	0	2.4
Total							82.4
Mean							4.58