Exploring Changes in Teachers’ Pedagogic Habitus: Case Studies of English Language Teacher Self-Evaluation as a Mediation Activity

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Teacher evaluation is an issue in a range of international contexts and is linked to growing global concerns with quality and accountability in education. In Indonesian universities, evaluations of teacher performance are typically conducted through student questionnaires. However, this mode of evaluation does not help teachers to improve their teaching practice, as it is usually brief, lacks specific suggestions for improvements, and ignores the provision of resources needed to improve (Airasian & Gullickson, 1997). As an alternative, this study explored the potential of teacher professional self-evaluation, to assist teachers in improving their instructional practice. Specifically, this study investigated teachers’ pedagogic habitus and the extent to which those pedagogic habitus capable of change following engagement in professional self-evaluation as a mediational activity. The study was framed using Bourdieu’s sociological theory and Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory. A holistic multi-case study, which drew on multiple data sources including interviews, classroom observations, and documentation, was employed. Ten English teachers, from which I select three case studies, employed by Kanjuruhan University of Malang (KUM) volunteered to engage in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities. The pedagogic habitus of the three case study teachers were analyzed in terms of their actions in the class including lesson delivery, use of language, interactions with students, and the management of the class and of themselves as teachers.

The findings of this study suggested that self-evaluation involving teacher's self-reflection on their teaching in Indonesian university contexts had significant potential for mediating changes in professional habitus. More specifically, the findings indicated that awareness of the need for change, commitment to change, action to change, and visualization of possible selves, all had the potential to contribute to any change in teachers’ pedagogic habitus. The findings also revealed that teacher self-evaluation led to heightened self-reflection through which teachers understood themselves and their instructional practice more deeply in terms of their strengths and areas for development. This suggests that teacher self-evaluation contributes to professional learning by empowering teachers to transform their practice.
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Abstract

Teacher evaluation is an issue in a range of international contexts and is linked to growing global concerns with quality and accountability in education. In Indonesian universities, evaluations of teacher performance are typically conducted through student questionnaires. However, this mode of evaluation does not help teachers to improve their teaching practice, as it is usually brief, lacks specific suggestions for improvements, and ignores the provision of resources needed to improve (Airasian & Gullickson, 1997). As an alternative, this study explored the potential of teacher self-evaluation, to assist teachers in improving their instructional practice.

Specifically, this study investigated Indonesian English language teachers’ pedagogic habitus and the extent to which those pedagogic habitus capable of change as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation. The study was framed using Bourdieu’s sociological and Vygotsky’s sociocultural theories. A holistic multi-case study, which drew on multiple data sources including interviews, classroom observations, and documentation, was employed. Ten English language teachers, from which I select three case studies, employed by Kanjuruhan University of Malang (KUM) volunteered to engage in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities. A range of artefacts including teacher self-reflection questions, lesson video recording, student feedback, and collegial dialogue are used to self-evaluate teachers’ instructional practice. The pedagogic habitus of the three case study teachers were analyzed in terms of their actions in the class including lesson delivery, use of language, interactions with students, and the management of the class and of themselves as teachers. To know the changes in teachers’ pedagogic habitus as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation, video recordings of their lessons, before and after they self-evaluate their teaching were compared.

The findings of this study suggested that self-evaluation involving teacher's self-reflection on their teaching in Indonesian university contexts had significant potential for mediating changes in professional habitus. More specifically, the findings indicated that awareness of the need for change, commitment to change, action to change, and visualization of possible selves, all had the potential to contribute to any change in teachers’ pedagogic habitus. The findings also revealed that teacher self-evaluation led to heightened self-reflection through which teachers understood themselves and their instructional practice more deeply in terms of their strengths and areas for development. This suggests that teacher self-evaluation contributes to professional learning by empowering teachers to transform their practice.

Given that teacher self-evaluation is still a relatively new phenomenon in the Indonesian educational context; the positive outcomes reported in this study are promising. Hence, it is reasonable to recommend that educational leaders in Indonesia provide opportunities for teachers to formally self-evaluate as “teachers are unlikely to develop a respect for their own experience and knowledge unless they can find wider support and acknowledgement for the value of their experience and understanding” (Lougran & Nothfield, 1996, p. 3). The necessary provisions must therefore be in place and will ideally include formal training or workshops on how to perform a self-evaluation, the allocation of time to carry out the process, and ongoing support to address teachers' needs and concerns about the process in terms of consistency and timeliness.
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<td>BAN-PT</td>
<td>Badan Akreditasi Nasional Perguruan Tinggi (The National Accreditation Board for Higher Education)</td>
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<tr>
<td>CFG</td>
<td>Critical Friends Group</td>
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<tr>
<td>DGHE</td>
<td>Directorate General of Higher Education</td>
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<td>HEI</td>
<td>Higher Education Institutions</td>
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<td>HREA</td>
<td>Human Research Ethics Committee</td>
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<td>HREC</td>
<td>Human Research Ethics Advisory</td>
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<tr>
<td>IRF</td>
<td>Initiation-Response-Feedback</td>
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<td>KUM</td>
<td>Kanjuruhan University of Malang</td>
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<tr>
<td>MONE</td>
<td>Ministry of National Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>MORA</td>
<td>Ministry of Religious Affairs</td>
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<tr>
<td>POC</td>
<td>Post-Observation Conferences</td>
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<td>SLTE</td>
<td>Second Language Teacher Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>TBI</td>
<td>The British Institute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEFL</td>
<td>Teaching English as a Foreign Language</td>
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<tr>
<td>ZPD</td>
<td>Zone of Proximal Development</td>
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<td>ZPID</td>
<td>Zone of Proximal Identity Development</td>
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<td>Video Supported Zone of Proximal Development</td>
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Chapter 1

Introduction

The important role of teachers in the Indonesian education system and the challenges relating to English language education are the departure points of this chapter. A description of current teacher evaluation methods is then provided followed by a discussion of related issues. Application of Vygotsky’s sociocultural and Bourdieu’s sociological theories to this study are then discussed. Finally, the research questions and aims are also presented before the chapter concludes with an outline of the organisation of the study.

1.1 Background of the study

1.1.1 Issues of teacher competencies in Indonesia

Teachers have a vital role in school improvement and educational change because they make a significant contribution to the quality of education provided to students. They directly provide learning opportunities to students and the nature of these opportunities impact the extent and rate of student learning. In other words, the quality of teachers is a key determinant of variation in students’ academic outcomes (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Ferguson & Ladd, 1996; Wenglinsky, 2000). It is therefore necessary for teachers to devote time to improving the quality of their instructional practice to promote effective teaching that helps students to better learn and grow (Tuckman, 1995).

While there is little doubt surrounding the significant role that teachers play in students’ learning, there are nonetheless a number of challenges to teachers’ fulfilment of their role in the Indonesian education context. These challenges include teachers’ poor mastery of English, reliance on ‘traditional’ teacher-centred approaches, and paucity of professional motivation. Teachers of English as a foreign language in Indonesia are required to be positive role models for their students in learning how to speak, read, and write in English correctly and effectively. However, many English teachers in Indonesia have not adequately mastered the language they are required to teach (Joni, 2000). As a result, they lack adequate communication skills in English needed to teach English to students. In addition, a large number of English teachers in
Indonesia lack satisfactory teaching methods. Monotonous or uninteresting methods are often used to deliver lesson content and students are regularly required to read and comprehend a variety of English texts that the teachers themselves rarely read (Joni, 2000; Lie, 2007; Madya, 2007).

A second challenge is the continued dominance of ‘traditional’ teacher-centred teaching paradigms in the English classrooms of Indonesia. In these classrooms, the teacher initiates and manages classroom activities in an authoritative manner, mostly using lecture format to deliver the lesson content (Nugroho, 2008). Classrooms are quiet and controlled spaces in which students are expected to merely listen to their teachers. Moreover, teachers are perceived as expert knowledge providers and because of this, the lesson is dominated by teacher talk and questions, and characterised by whole-group instruction, a reliance on textbooks, and recall of factual information (Lie, 2007; Purwo, 1990; Tomlinson, 1990). There is little opportunity afforded the students to express their ideas about the learning material and this leads to limited student participation and interaction.

A third challenge relates to Indonesian teachers’ lack of professional motivation in teaching (Bjork, 2005). “Motivation is regarded as the spark plug that initiates and later on functions as the driving force that keeps the spirits to learn alive” (Nugroho, 2008, p. 10). Thus, professional motivation is essential for creative and effective teaching. The busy work routines required of English teachers in Indonesia, however, inhibit their growth as professionals. In turn, due to teaching commitments and administrative duties teachers are restricted in the number of opportunities for professional practice improvement they can engage in. As a result, they lack motivation to teach well and fail to demonstrate many characteristics of the ‘activist’ professional (Sachs, 2003) such as being flexible and progressive, responsive to change, and engaged in knowledge building. Such poor motivation among Indonesian English teachers obstructs effective student learning and is counterproductive as teachers may not perform to the best of their ability (Marai, 2002/2003). This, of course, has flow on effects on student attitudes towards learning English.

Academic institutions can address these issues by supporting teachers to participate in formative professional evaluations of their teaching practice. Evaluations of teacher professionalism (English teachers included), course structure and delivery, and teacher performance occur in universities in Indonesia by way of summative processes. They include student questionnaires completed at the end of each semester.
Unfortunately, there are limitations inherent to this evaluation method including misunderstandings on the part of students when answering questions, the subjectiveness of the responses, and a feeling of reluctance by some students to provide accurate and honest feedback for fear of recrimination.

Moreover, teachers receive the questionnaire results – usually towards the end of the semester – in Likert Scale form without sufficient or specific descriptions or information about what teaching actions should be maintained or improved upon during the term. Many teachers therefore do not use the questionnaire results as resource to guide teaching improvement and personal development. Moreover, student feedback alone has insufficient detail to help teachers improve and, in any event, this evaluation method is only insufficiently used by the institution for the purposes of a performance review (Wesner, 2007). As a result, a great number of English teachers in Indonesia are dissatisfied with this summative evaluation method (Limantoro, 2003). For most teachers, evaluations conducted by department heads do not help them to improve their teaching practice as they are generally brief, lack specific suggestions for improvement, and lack the provision of resources needed to improve (Airasian & Gullickson, 1997). Furthermore, there is limited discussion at teachers’ meetings about classroom practices and teaching performance (Bjork, 2005). As a consequence, teachers have to rely on their own initiative if they wish to improve their teaching expertise and to engage in professional development.

My personal experience as an English teacher in Indonesia inspired my determination in this research study to identify an alternative method of teaching evaluation that could more effectively facilitate Indonesian teachers to critically examine their practice. My sense was that teacher self-evaluation may be an effective evaluation approach to help Indonesian teachers to obtain more comprehensive feedback on their instructional practice. Although teacher self-evaluation remains a relatively new notion in the Indonesian education context (Zulfikar, 2009), it holds great promise as a research topic. Indeed, the findings from this study will help to make the experiences of teachers more rewarding and meaningful by assisting them to conduct more productive evaluations on their professional practice. Moreover, teachers will be able to evaluate their teaching from a different perspective and access new information about what aspects of their teaching practices they need to improve and maintain.

In addition, as a permanent English teacher at Kanjuruhan University of Malang (KUM), I was always busily teaching and fulfilling other academic responsibilities such
as marking, being a thesis advisor, conducting seminar, and so forth. Only on rare occasions were there the opportunities to interact with colleagues to discuss academic matters and teaching techniques. This lack of opportunity inspired the inclusion of collegial dialogues involving KUM 10 English teachers as one of several teacher self-evaluation tools in this study. Collegial dialogues provide an opportunity for Indonesian English teachers to come together to share academic problems and to discover common solutions (McLaughlin, 1993). Thus, teachers will be able to develop their professionalism both individually and collectively.

Importantly, collegial dialogues have the potential to promote a collaborative school culture at KUM so that teachers feel they are a part of a professional community with access to support for personal growth and learning. This study then seeks to introduce Indonesian teachers to a series of self-evaluation activities and is conducted in the hope that these activities create positive professional development opportunities for these teachers.

1.1.2 Teacher self-evaluation as a mediational activity

From a sociocultural theoretical perspectives, “human cognition is understood as originating in and fundamentally shaped by engagement in social activities” (Johnson & Golombek, 2011, p. 2). Teachers acting as individuals in sociocultural contexts learn how to improve their teaching skills by participating in particular professional development activities. Teacher self-evaluation is one such activity that helps English teachers in Indonesia to undertake self-learning in order to develop their teaching practice. Teacher self-evaluation is a process whereby teachers gather data on their own teaching effectiveness. The data is then analysed in order to reflect on what changes may be required to facilitate improvement (Taylor, 1994). Teacher self-evaluation is therefore a form of self-reflection and improvement which becomes one of essential indicators of teacher quality. Teacher self-reflection and improvement have been one of major focuses of the education reforms in Indonesia (Chang et al., 2014, p. 44). Throughout teacher self-evaluation processes, teachers are not only the object of classroom observation; they are also active participants collecting information on their own teaching practices. Teachers are central to the self-evaluation process as they are responsible for determining the appropriate timing and form of the evaluation, as well as for organising, examining and interpreting the data to facilitate improved effectiveness.
Within Vygotskian sociocultural theory, *mediation* is a central concept (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006) explaining how humans utilise cultural tools in order to undertake activities. The self-evaluation process endorsed in this study requires teachers to use particular mediational tools for self-reflection including journals or diaries, self-reporting inventories or checklists, and audio or video recordings of a lesson (Richards & Lockhart, 1996). Teacher self-evaluation tools proposed by Airasian and Gullickson (1997) include teacher self-reflection questions, media recording and analysis, student feedback tools, teacher portfolios, student performance data, external or peer observations, journaling, and collegial dialogue involving sharing experience and joint problem solving. Teachers are thus encouraged to use tools applicable to their teaching context in accordance with their affordances and constraints.

In this study, ten Indonesian English language teachers engaged in assisted teacher self-evaluation as a mediational activity. During the process of data collection, one teacher withdrew his consent. Therefore, the research participants in this study involved nine English language teachers, whose pseudonyms were Hani, Sandi, Ira, Andi, Selia, Ariffin, Maya, Joko, and Nuri. The teachers used four self-evaluation tools: lesson video recording, teacher self-reflection questions, student feedback, and collegial dialogue. The four mediational tools were chosen for the following reasons. First, teacher self-reflection questions provided participants with the opportunity to reflect on the effectiveness of the lesson and what aspects may need to be improved. Second, video recording the lesson provided participants with a “mirror” to see and assess their instructional practices. Third, student feedback provided the opportunity for students, as knowledge receivers, to be positioned as significant contributors to the evaluation of teacher performance and allowed teachers to hear from an “other” perspective. According to Richardson (2005), student feedback provides important evidence for assessing teaching quality and can be used to support efforts at improving teaching quality. Fourth, collegial dialogue provided an opportunity for teachers to share teaching experiences and problems for the purpose of learning from each other.

1.1.3 Teacher self-evaluation and teachers’ habitus

In order to better understand how the teachers’ thinking and reflection processes were linked to their sociocultural contexts during self-evaluation activity, it is necessary to consider Bourdieu’s sociological theory of habitus, capital, field, and practice since it bridges the gap between what seems to be individual learning and sociocultural context
Bourdieu’s sociological theory functions as a lens to view the interplay between structural conditions and identity, and to evaluate the impacts of this interplay on activities within education programmes in particular teacher professional development (Braun, 2012; Ecclestone, 2004; Makewa, Role, & Genga, 2011; Mayer, 1999). Bourdieu (1977, p. 10) defined habitus as “a system of lasting, transposable dispositions which …functions at every moment as a matrix of perceptions, appreciations, and actions” (italics in original). These perceptions, appreciations, and actions are shaped from past experiences and mostly gained through early childhood in the family. These perceptions organise educational experiences and affect and modify teachers’ habitus, which in turn organises further experiences (such as additional learning or employment) (Wesner, 2007). Therefore, habitus may be used as a concept to explain teachers’ instructional practice, especially how a teacher’s experience as a learner in social activities influences the way he or she acts in relation to their teaching practice, given that teachers tend to imitate their personal educational experiences when they teach (Lortie, 1975).

Habitus requires two interrelated aspects, capital and field, to shape the individual’s practices or actions. Capital is defined as an objectified or embodied resource that can potentially produce different types of profits (Bourdieu, 1986). Field is defined as structured systems of social positions in which actors compete for access to and control over specific resources. Furthermore, Bourdieu (1984) formulated: (habitus x capital) + field = practice to explain that an individual’s practices or actions are the outcome of the interplay of his/her habitus and capital within a given field. Accordingly, to identify a teacher’s pedagogic habitus, it was necessary to identify the teacher’s capital (economic, cultural, and social) and the fields or social sites that have their own particular structure and policies.

Unfortunately, little research exists to indicate how teacher habitus can be changed. Bourdieu’s notion of habitus has been criticised for being somewhat static and deterministic. However, he argued “habitus is not the fate that some people read into it. It is an open system of dispositions that is constantly subjected to experiences, and therefore constantly affected by them in a way that either reinforces or modifies its structures. It is durable but not eternal” (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p. 133). Further, Appadurai (1996) argued that global processes are to make the case as to why habitus should be static rather than dynamic. Specifically, he stated:
There has been a general change in the global conditions of life worlds; put simply, where once improvisation was snatched out of the glacial undertow of habitus, habitus now has to be painstakingly reinforced in the face of life-worlds that are frequently in flux (Appadurai, 1996, p. 56).

Indeed, Roth (2002, p. 50) stated that habitus can be changed “through an awakening of certain forms of self-consciousness and self-work that enables practitioners to get a handle on their dispositions”. That is, there is the possibility that a certain activity can alter someone’s habitus if he/she is aware of the potential for improvement and has the motivation to change. From a sociocultural theoretical perspective, the transformation from inter-psychological to intra-psychological processes is mediated by culturally constructed and organised instrumental means. In this context, teachers’ self-awareness is influenced by situational affordances and constraints as well as by attention to the quality of the mediation itself.

1.2 Research questions

Given teacher self-evaluation has only recently been introduced into the Indonesian educational context, this study comprises a case study involving 10 Indonesian English language teachers. The teachers were invited to video record their teaching and learning processes, complete self-reflection questions, obtain student feedback on their teaching, and participate in collegial dialogues as a series of teacher self-evaluation activities. The research was guided by the following research questions:

**Research question 1:** What is the nature of Indonesian English language teachers’ pedagogic habitus (dispositions and beliefs)?

The first research question aimed to identify and describe teachers’ pedagogic habitus. Data obtained from initial video recordings of lessons, participant interview responses, and classroom observation notes were analysed to answer the first research question.

**Research question 2:** To what extent are Indonesian English language teachers’ pedagogic habitus capable of change as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation?

The second research question aimed to examine the extent to which self-evaluation activity can help teachers to change their pedagogic habitus as well as their teaching practice. Data collected from video recordings of lessons – conducted after the teachers
engaged in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities – interview responses, and classroom observation notes were analysed to answer the second research question.

1.3 Research aims

In answering the above questions, this study aim to contribute to the understanding of what factors might promote improved English teaching practices in the Indonesian context. The way in which teachers look to improve their professionalism not only depends on their existing habitus, but also on their teaching contexts or field. This aligns with Bourdieu and Wacquants’ (1992) claim that both individual agency and the social conditions of action influence human practices. Through its investigation of how pedagogic habitus and teaching context influences the professional practices of teachers, this study provides insight into what factors universities or institutions may focus upon to provide better opportunities for teachers to enhance their professional practice.

Furthermore, the development and use of self-evaluation tools may be a critical element in improving instructional programming and in increasing teacher efficacy leading to positive effects on student learning outcomes. Introducing Indonesian teachers to the four mediational tools of evaluation: teacher self-reflection questions, lesson video recording, student feedback, and collegial dialogue, and encouraging their use will assist teachers to familiarise themselves with the strengths and limitations of each tool and how it can best be applied.

In addition, the implementation of different teacher self-evaluation activities may inspire teachers in Indonesia to engage in self-reflection to enhance their teaching performance and to promote professional development. As previously established, teacher self-evaluation is an unfamiliar concept in the Indonesian education context. As such, this research may encourage Indonesian teachers to undertake self-evaluation as a normal part of their teaching practice. There has been only limited research on the practice of teacher self-evaluation in Indonesia. By researching teachers’ practices in a range of institutions, this study extends the scholarly literature on the pedagogical practice in relation to the contextual differences within Indonesian education.

Moreover, as will be discussed in Chapter 2, few studies discuss teachers’ pedagogic habitus. This study extends the theorisation of the concept of habitus in order to more fully understand the processes of professional development experienced by Indonesian teachers. In addition, Bourdieu’s theory of habitus cannot be considered as a
discrete entity. Rather, it relates to the notions of capital and field despite most studies applying only the notion of habitus. This study considers and uses Bourdieu’s notions of habitus, capital, and field to interpret the dynamics of teacher professional development. Furthermore, some studies described existing habitus and provided explanation of why changing habitus was difficult. Accordingly, this study adds another perspective on how and why habitus has a tendency to both be reproductive and transformative.

Finally, the exploration of teaching context (or field) in this study, with its particular focus on curriculum and policy, helps to identify pertinent questions regarding existing policy. Government policy impacts the professional practices of teachers. Exploring the issues and relationships identified by teachers as important to their teaching and professional practice will therefore provide educational institutions with valuable insights as to the points of focus for improving teaching quality.

1.4 Organisation of the study

This study is presented in eight chapters. Chapter 1 provides the background to this study. It describes the important role of teachers in education and explores issues relevant to English teachers in Indonesia. The chapter then discusses current teacher evaluation methods in Indonesia with particular focus on their lack of effectiveness in supporting teachers to improve their teaching performance. Emerging from this discussion are suggestions as to how mediated self-evaluation may help teachers in Indonesia to learning about the effectiveness (or lack thereof) of their teaching. The discussion is informed by sociocultural theory and its notion that human cognition is developed through mediated activity. This chapter then discusses Bourdieu’s notion of habitus and the two interrelated aspects of capital and field that shape an individual’s practice or action. The research questions and research aims are also described in Chapter 1.

Chapter 2 begins with a review of the literature on general formative and summative teacher evaluation practices. This is then followed by a discussion of the issues surrounding current teacher evaluations practices and how they may not necessarily promote teacher professional development. Next, the chapter discusses teacher self-evaluation as a tool to enhance instructional practice and includes a definition as well as details of benefits and instruments. The chapter then describes the nature of current studies on teacher self-evaluation. Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory consisting of mediation and internalization, the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD),
and its application to research in teacher professional development, are then discussed. Next, the chapter discusses teacher professional identity and in relation to possible-selves theory. The chapter then discusses Bourdieu’s sociological theory including habitus as the product of an individual’s history and experience including, capital with its types, fields as social space, and reproduction and transformation of habitus. Finally, studies on Bourdieu’s sociological theory in education and teacher professional development are presented.

Chapter 3 introduces the research methodology and discusses the research design employed in this study. First, it explains the epistemological position reflecting social constructionism embedded in the design. It then describes theory, approach, strategies, and analysis used in this study. Research procedures including sampling, data collection, and teacher self-evaluation activity are also explained. The last section of this chapter discusses research ethics including researcher position and other ethical considerations.

Chapter 4 presents the field (in Bourdieu’s sense). It begins with a description of the institutional context or field of social space at KUM. Included in the description are general details of the Indonesian higher education sector including public and private higher education institutions (HEI). In addition, a profile of the institutional policy at KUM that governs teachers’ professional practice including teaching and learning processes and examination procedures is provided. The chapter then concludes with a description of the School of English Education at KUM in relation to its curriculum, the nature and availability of facilities and materials, its teachers, and its students.

Chapters 5, 6, and 7 present the case study findings on the three participating teachers: Maya, Andi, and Joko. First, it describes each teacher’s background including his/her family background, education history, and teaching experiences. Second, it describes each teacher’s initial pedagogic dispositions, which are analysed through the lens of Bourdieu’s sociological theory. Third, this chapter focuses on the productive disruptions to the way each teacher regards himself/herself as a teacher and in his/her teaching practices as a result of their participation in the teacher self-evaluation activities. Finally, the elements of durability and change in each teacher’s pedagogic habitus as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation are discussed. Vygotsky’s sociocultural perspective is employed alongside Bourdieu’s sociological theory in this section to describe how each teacher’s sociocultural context and mediational tools influence his/her pedagogic habitus.
The final chapter compares the findings of the three case studies. This chapter also discusses the interrelated factors influencing the change in the teachers’ pedagogic habitus. Next, this chapter presents the four mediational tools and their value. The key findings and limitations of this study are also discussed. In addition, the chapter offers some implications for theory, practice, and future research. Finally, the concluding remarks of the study are presented.

1.5 Summary

Teachers as knowledge providers have a central role in facilitating student learning. Therefore, teachers are expected to be responsive to changes in educational conditions and innovative in their approach to the creation of supportive teaching and learning environments. One promising method to support these outcomes is to enable teachers to monitor and assess the effectiveness of their teaching practices. Mediated self-evaluation may be an effective way to monitor teaching practice by positioning teachers as active observer/evaluators of their own practices. Moreover, the mediational tools in the self-evaluation process such as teacher self-reflection questions, lesson video recording, student feedback, and collegial dialogue may help teachers to obtain more accurate and detailed teaching data to use to enhance their instructional practice.

Teachers’ habitus are acquired from their experiences as both student and teacher. Together with the capital teachers possess, habitus then shapes teachers’ practices within their field. Knowing teachers’ pedagogic habitus and students’ learning prior to and after the implementation of a teacher self-evaluation activity reveals how habitus may be adapted to better suit the specific teaching context and how teacher professional identity may be developed.

This chapter has introduced the main focus of this study; namely exploring teachers’ pedagogic habitus, particularly the extent to which habitus is capable of change as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation. The research questions and research aims were also presented. The next chapter presents a review of literature regarding teacher evaluation, teacher self-evaluation, as well as a discussion of Vygotsky’s sociocultural and Bourdieu’s sociological theories.
Chapter 2

Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

As stated in Chapter 1, the questions that guide this study are: (1) what is the nature of Indonesian English language teachers’ pedagogic habitus (dispositions and beliefs)? and (2) to what extent are Indonesian English language teachers’ pedagogic habitus capable of change as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation? Accordingly, this chapter reviews relevant literature on teacher self-evaluation, Vygotsky’s sociocultural perspectives, and Bourdieu’s sociological theory. The first part of this chapter focuses on teacher evaluation in general, including how the performance of English teachers in Indonesia is evaluated. It includes the descriptions of teacher self-evaluation and its instruments and practices, which remain a relatively new notion in the Indonesian contexts. Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory including its interrelated pedagogical concepts, mediation, internalization, and the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) as well as research on sociocultural theory in teacher professional development are also discussed in this chapter. This chapter also incorporates a review of the literature on teacher professional identity and possible-selves theory. In addition, this chapter focuses on Bourdieu’s work, in particular, his concept of habitus, capital, field, and practice, and follows with the discussion on reproduction and transformation of habitus and studies on Bourdieu’s sociological theory in education and teacher professional development in the last part of this chapter. Drawing on the literature, it is argued that teacher self-evaluation activity causes teachers to reflect upon their instructional practice, a reflexivity which crucially underpins teachers’ learning and growth. Teacher self-evaluation, in particular, can be an affective mediational activity/tool helping Indonesian teachers to notice both strengths and limitations in their instructional practice and can be a means for changing their habitus adapting to their field and developing their professional identity.

2.1 The practice of teacher evaluation

Teachers have long been recognized as a significant resource driving student learning, school improvement and educational change. Garet et al. (2001) state that not only do students rely upon their teachers to form and guide their learning opportunities, but researchers agree that the quality of teachers largely determines the success of
educational improvement and reform initiatives. One way to gauge the productivity of teachers is through the reflexivity of their teaching and the degree to which they reflect on what they do. For this reason, reflexivity and reflection need to be built into the practices of teachers. Elliott (1988) points out that reflexive practice includes the teacher’s interpretation of their teaching and the self for the purpose of making changes and improvements. Meanwhile, reflection involves “finding ways of identifying and questioning existing assumptions which underlie practice and the context for practice in the widest terms as well as bringing in new perspectives” (Morberg, Lagerström, & Dellve, 2012, p. 232). One of the effective methods to help teachers to be reflexive and reflective is through self-evaluation, which will be discussed further in Section 2.2 of this chapter.

Generally speaking, there are two kinds of evaluation: formative and summative. Formative evaluations are connected with the personal progress of teachers. It then provides teachers with feedback about enhancing their performance and what types of professional development opportunities might improve their practice. Summative evaluations, on the other hand, are designed to influence consequential decisions on factors such as salary, tenure, personnel assignments, transfer, or dismissals (Mathers, Oliva, & Laine, 2008). These two types of evaluation are related to each other. Formative evaluation is a means of obtaining satisfactory results in summative evaluations. In other words, only by having formative evaluations will teachers receive both positive and negative feedback on their teaching. The negative aspects of teaching need to be improved to achieve positive outcomes in summative evaluations.

Principals, heads of departments, specially assigned evaluators, peers, or even students are the ones who usually conduct evaluations of teachers’ performance. Most teacher evaluation systems are based on a single dichotomous scale, such as “satisfactory,” “needs improvement,” and the like. Other evaluation systems depend on rating scales such as from “1 to 4”, “low, medium, and high,” or “needs improvement, satisfactory, and outstanding,” or similar headings (Danielson & McGreal, 2000, p. 4). These scales then will be used to inform how well the teachers have done in their teaching.

In Indonesian contexts, in particular in university, summative evaluations are conducted through student questionnaires, administered near the end of every semester. Students are required to complete questions that invite them to share their perceptions about the course and the performance of their teachers. After the questionnaires are
completed, they are then sent to a specific unit of the university. The unit then analyzes the questionnaire results and sends them to each school. The head of school then gives the results to each teacher. The teacher receives the results in the form of a Likert scale. The school usually uses the result as a basis for deciding how many credits or subjects can be taught for the next semester. The better the result is, the more credits a teacher can teach.

However, this kind of evaluation creates some significant concerns such as (1) misunderstandings on the part of students in answering questions; (2) the subjectiveness involved in answering the questions; and (3) a feeling of reluctance to answer questions completely and honestly. Students often misinterpret the questionnaire because of their lack of knowledge to respond accurately. For example, one question asked if the teacher had given the students a lesson plan at the beginning of the semester. However, some students do not understand what lesson plan is so they just answer the questions randomly. The questionnaire also invites subjective responses reflecting students’ preferences towards the teacher. They could respond positively solely on the basis of their personal feelings towards the teacher. An additional problem is that many students feel reluctant to answer the questionnaire completely and honestly because there are usually too many items to complete within the time allocated.

Furthermore, Indonesian teachers do not get useful or comprehensive insights from their evaluation, including information about what should be maintained or improved in their teaching because the statistical information they receive as the feedback provides inadequate insights into their practice. Consequently, contemporary teacher evaluation methods do not adequately support or guide the professional growth of teachers as educators. Researches on teacher evaluations (Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Peterson, 2000; Weisberg, et al., 2009) also indicate that contemporary teacher evaluation practices neither accurately inform teachers about what happens in classrooms nor help improve their confidence or teaching practices. Furthermore, as Nevo (1994) argues, “teacher evaluation is usually perceived as a means to control teachers, to motivate them, to hold them accountable for their services, or to get rid of them when their performance is poor. Thus, teacher evaluation has the image of something that was invented against teachers rather than for teachers” (p. 109). In short, teacher evaluations should aim to help teachers identify both the positive and negative aspects of their teaching. However, contemporary teacher evaluation practices are
commonly used to judge performance rather than to promote improvement or contribute to their professional development.

2.2 Teacher self-evaluation as a tool to enhance the instructional practice of teachers

One approach that has been developed to address the issues noted above in relation to teacher evaluation has been to involve teachers more actively through teacher self-evaluation. In recent decades, an increasing number of teachers have shown interest in using self-evaluation to improve their own teaching performance (Barber, 1990). However, self-evaluation is a new notion in Indonesian contexts and not many Indonesian teachers are familiar with this form of evaluation. Teacher self-evaluation is a formative evaluation that focuses on self-improvement and it is often carried out informally. It is a procedure in which teachers judge their performance effectiveness for the purpose of identifying areas for improvement in their teaching practice (Airasian & Gullickson, 1997). In other words, teachers have an autonomous space to look into their own practices, which enables them to have new insights into these practices and accommodate some possible feedback into their teaching.

Personal reflection therefore becomes the main focus of self-evaluation. Teachers must reflect on the effectiveness of their practices to collect the information required. Freiberg (1987, p. 86) points out that, “teachers need accurate information about what they are doing in the classroom before they can begin to identify strengths and weaknesses, and formulate a plan to institute change”. Teacher self-evaluation can facilitate teachers to actively engage in gaining information about their teaching activities that then, can be used as a valuable source of information to see what works and what needs improving. Accordingly, teachers must be open to criticism about their teaching. This information guides teachers in making judgments and determining what needs improvement to in turn achieve a better impact or outcome for student learning. Airasian and Gullickson (1997) mention that teacher self-evaluation can be done through four steps or stages. The four steps are: (1) problem identification; (2) information gathering; (3) reflection and decision making; and (4) application and change. Teachers need to be curious about and have a desire to change or improve their teaching, so they can focus on a certain problem in their practice. In order to become aware of the problem in their teaching, such as when teachers feel they are losing student attention and motivation or are they not achieving the desired learning
outcomes, teachers need to critically explore or examine their practice to know how effectively the teaching session went. They then should gather and reflect on the information about their teaching to be examined. Thirdly, they reflect on those to help them to identify and decide on plans to change or improve their practice.

Teacher self-evaluation as a means of self-study about teaching practices provides significant benefits for teachers. Hounsell (2006) mentions that teacher self-evaluation is “an integral part of good professional practice” (p. 198). One advantage of teacher self-evaluation is its flexibility. Struyk et al. (1993) remark that teacher self-evaluation helps teachers to obtain the information specifically about their teaching and to evaluate their teaching any and every time they want. Also, teacher self-evaluation can be undertaken to determine the effectiveness of particular instructional practices, which, in turn, provides concrete evidence of good teaching and a commitment to enhance it. Teacher self-evaluation is also a means to involve teachers more directly in the evaluation process as well as in the analysis of data collected (Taylor, 1994). In short, teacher self-evaluation is a useful means to influence the professionalism of teachers by helping them to learn about, act on, and improve their teaching but also to empower them to take ownership of this process. It is clear that teacher self-evaluation has potential to help teachers explore elements of their teaching in order to appraise their current understanding of teaching practices that require improvement. In the next section, the elements of teaching that could be the focus of teacher self-evaluation are discussed.

2.2.1 Teacher self-evaluation – key elements

In conducting teacher self-evaluation, teachers should focus on particular dimensions of their practice that will then be examined. Teachers are often advised to focus on narrow elements of teaching when they want to select self-evaluation areas rather than more general ones (Airasian & Gullickson, 1997). Kremer-Hayon (1993) points out that teaching is a highly complex interactive process, so a conceptual frame is needed to guide teachers to build their own repertoire of evaluation tools. This conceptual map below describes elements of teaching that are possible to be explored.
Kremer-Hayon (1993) emphasizes that the interdependence of teaching elements and the interaction among subject matter, goals, teaching processes, pupils, and teacher/teacher’s practice are identified by the use of arrows in the above conceptual map. It means that every teaching element is related to other elements. For example, in evaluating their teaching processes, teachers must think about subject matter they teach, the characteristics of their pupils, and their goals of their teaching. Hence, information about other aspects of teaching is needed when teachers want to evaluate a certain element of their teaching. Foci for self-evaluation, then, could be derived from teaching elements of that conceptual map as most teaching practices can be classified under these elements. For example, a teacher can focus on classroom management and organization as a part of teaching processes or teachers’ expectation of pupils as a part of the pupils element in the diagram above. The elaboration of teaching elements with regard to self-evaluation will lead to a number of potential evaluation foci. In this study, the place of teachers in the conceptual map above is located in the middle to show the centrality of the teacher in the pedagogy process. This means that each teaching element is held to be within the teacher’s domain.

Aspects of teaching that could be evaluated include classroom presentation skills; preparation of materials; competency in the subject-matter; the availability of a teacher for students; the willingness and desire to work, share knowledge and skills with colleagues (Shirley & Earl, 1986). Having self-evaluated in these areas of teaching, teachers are able to obtain a clear picture showing how well they have done in their profession and gaining more understanding of their identity (how they perceive
themselves as teachers). In other words, through teacher self-evaluation, teacher identity is continually informed, formed, and reformed as teachers develop over time and through interaction with others (Cooper & Olson, 1996). Teacher’s understanding and perceptions of their professional identity “affect their efficacy and professional development as well as their ability and willingness to cope with educational change and to implement innovations in their own teaching practice” (Britzman, 1991, p. 750).

In addition, Britzman (1991) argues, “learning to teach – like teaching itself – is always the process of becoming: a time of formation and transformation, of scrutiny into what one is doing, and who one can become” (p. 8). Knowing teacher identity, therefore, paves the way for better teaching and is a crucial aspect to become an effective teacher.

After getting a focus on teaching elements to be examined and observed, teachers then start deciding on using the appropriate and possible self-evaluation instruments. There are various instruments by which teachers are able to make a beneficial evaluation of their instruction and define improvements for their own teaching. Richard and Lockhart (1996) listed a number of procedures such as teaching journals, lesson reports, survey and questionnaires, audio and video recordings, and observation. Teaching journals involve a continuous process of keeping a written record of a teacher’s thoughts, experiences, and observations and could be in the form of audio or electronic journals. The topics contained in a teaching journal could personal reactions to things that happen in the classroom; questions or observations about problems that occur in teaching; descriptions of significant aspects of lessons or school events; ideas for future analysis or reminders of things to take action on (Richards & Lockhard, 1996). Lesson reports are “…a structured inventory or list which enables teachers to describe their recollections of the main features of a lesson” (Richards & Lockhart, 1996, p. 9), either in the form of a written narrative or a checklist or a questionnaire prepared by teachers. Survey and questionnaires are “sets of written questions focusing on a particular topic or area, seeking responses to closed or ranked questions; or open-ended personal opinions; judgements and beliefs” (Freeman, 1998, p. 94). Audio and video recordings enable a teacher to document either whole lessons or parts of them in detail. Observation is where a teacher invites a colleague or more experienced teacher to attend and observe his/her teaching with the aim of finding what went well and what improvements could be made.

In addition, Airasian and Gullickson (1997) suggested the following tools: (1) teacher self-reflection questions, (2) media recording, (3) student feedback, (4) teacher
portfolios, (5) student performance data, (6) external or peer observation, (7) journaling, and (8) collegial dialogue. These self-evaluation instruments have their own advantages and disadvantages. For example, external observations provide more objective feedback than a teacher’s own perspective, are less threatening evaluations compared with formal performance evaluations by supervisors, and provide a more thorough perspective of teaching performance. However, at the same time external observation is time-consuming for both the teacher and his/her colleague. Furthermore, it is liable to bias and may involve lack of honesty in the evaluation particularly if it is done among friends. As well, the observer must possess necessary skills and expertise to provide valuable input to the teachers (Airasian & Gullickson, 1997). Accordingly, it is recommended that teachers consider the advantages and disadvantages of each instrument to find the ones that are applicable to their own individual contexts before deciding to use them to accommodate the characteristics of the students, setting, time constraints, and so forth.

As such, in my study, ten Indonesian teachers were invited to participate in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities using four mediational tools: teacher self-reflection questions, lesson video recording, student feedback, and collegial dialogue. These tools have been chosen for the following reasons.

Firstly, self-reflection questions are designed to enable teachers to focus on particular aspects of their teaching. The outcomes of the reflexive process may then guide future planning by teachers to improve their teaching practices. As Airasian and Gullickson (1997) suggest, self-reflection questions heighten a teacher’s awareness of practice and lead to a ‘to do’ list for teaching improvement. Self-reflection questions are usually in the form of a checklist, rating scale, or questionnaire. This study used the questionnaire format to facilitate teachers to reflect on their practices during a particular lesson to identify the strong and the weak points in their practices. This information then becomes a source for teaching technique improvement.

Secondly, video recording teaching and learning activities enables teachers to view their practices with the aim to identify the strengths and weaknesses. This information also becomes a useful source for teaching technique improvement. Eroz-Tuga (2013) points out that watching lesson video recording enables teachers to have a critical perspective on their own teaching and become more conscious of classroom issues. In addition, some studies (Carson, Gilmore, Perry, & Gronhaug, 2001; Hudson
& Ozanne, 1988; Thompson, 1995) reported that lesson video recordings allowed teachers to notice particular aspects of their teaching, which cannot be recalled.

Thirdly, student feedback is also used in this study because students, as knowledge receivers, are well-placed to evaluate their courses and teachers’ performances. Access to student feedback enables teachers to obtain an objective evaluation thus contributing to a more comprehensive perspective of their performance. Richardson (2005) mentions that student feedback provides important evidence for assessing teaching quality and can be used to support attempts to improve teaching quality.

Finally, collegial dialogue is included as an evaluation tool because it provides a space for teachers to share their understanding of and concerns about the classroom practices. As asserted by Airasian and Gullickson (1997, p.16), collegial dialogue encourages “collaboration among teachers to discuss common problems, share procedures and strategies, and compare perceptions. Exposure to the ideas and practices of colleagues is a potent strategy for teacher reflection and change”. Therefore, by participating in collegial dialogues teachers are expected to learn from others and to seek out ways to improve their instructional practice.

The self-evaluation instruments above are chosen based on the view that improving teachers’ instructional practice involves various aspects: the self (teacher’s identity), peer or colleague, and students as illustrated in Figure 2 below.

![Figure 2: Aspects associated with improving teachers’ practice](image)

As can be seen from the above figure, teachers’ practice, which connects to self, peers, and students, is in the middle of the triangle. It means that teachers need to understand
their professional identity; learn from, collaborate, or share with their colleagues; and obtain the feedback from their students in order to improve their teaching practice. In the context of this study, teachers are able to gain understanding of their professional identity, which has a direct impact on classroom practice, by exploring their lesson video recordings. Collegial dialogues conducted in this study allow teachers to share their teaching practice and work reflectively with other teachers to develop their teaching further. Student feedback used this study function as an effective source of information because students are the learners who are the sole purpose of teaching.

In other words, self, peers, and students become multiple sources of data to inform teachers’ practice. The information then could be used to identify the strengths and the areas of improvement. These multiple sources can provide more detailed, accurate, and comprehensive information of teaching effectiveness than only a single source. This is because using three or more different sources of evidence, the strength of each source can compensate for weaknesses of the other sources (Berk, 2005). Hence, a teacher needs to involve him/herself, peers, and students to improve his/her instructional practice and develop as a teacher. The next subsection of this chapter presents research on teacher self-evaluation.

### 2.2.2 Research on teacher self-evaluation

Many studies, using various research approaches, have been developed with the aim of analyzing the effectiveness of teacher self-evaluation (Lynes, 2012; Morgan, 2000; Warden, 2004; Wesner, 2007; Wright, 1998). One most recent study on teacher self-evaluation, in particular, using videotape recording as a self-evaluation instrument, was conducted by Lynes (2012) with a sample of preschool teachers in the context of literacy and language teaching. Her multiple-baseline design study examined the effects of an expert coaching model on: (a) the implementation of strategies; (b) generalization of strategies to other settings; (c) teacher attitudes towards the coaching model; and (d) student outcomes. This expert coaching model included teacher self-evaluations of videotaped observations and reflections on the implementation of open-ended questions and expansions. The findings indicated that self-evaluations increased the use of teaching strategies, with the addition of modelling and guided practice bringing about continued improvement over baseline values. The study also revealed that the self-evaluation process was useful in improving teachers' use of oral language development
strategies. In addition, the majority of students increased the use of one-word and two or more-word utterances, which resulted in an overall increase in words per minute.

Similarly, Wright (1998) conducted a comparative case study to examine the impact of innovative video-enhanced reflection process, a process that uses video analysis to stimulate reflective thought or teacher reflection-for-action. Wright involved five untenured teachers and one principal from an elementary school, in a middle class residential area, in the United States as the subject of the study. A series of vignettes and thematic analysis discussions were used to disaggregate, discuss, and present the data and findings. The findings reported that the video-enhanced reflection process provided solutions to the barriers (e.g., time, tool, support) that had traditionally prevented reflection from being meaningful and long lasting. It also had a positive impact on teacher reflective abilities because it helped them more vividly describe, analyze, and critique their teaching. This study concluded that video provided a richer and deeper description than when teachers recollected and wrote about in their written reflection papers. The findings also identified that the teachers felt that their analysis of their teaching performance was more effective when done while using the video-enhanced reflective process.

Morgan (2000) also undertook a study focusing on the use of video as a self-evaluation instrument. The study examined the perceptions of in-service teachers of the self-evaluation processes through video observation developed by ESL Program Consultants with Toronto Catholic District School Board (TCDSB) as it was introduced within their teaching program. The findings indicated that overall, the perception of the instructors of self-evaluation were positive and they said that this process could enlighten their experience and raise their awareness of their teaching practices. Yet, the teachers also identified some concerns regarding the time involved, something they lacked within their teaching schedules yet which was essential to carry out self-evaluation and the training they felt would be necessary to successfully carry out this process. Therefore, Morgan suggested conditions required to ensure the opportunity for teacher development, including training in self-evaluation, an allotment of time to conduct the process, and on-going support to address the needs and concerns of teachers.

Wesner (2007) supports the view that student feedback does not provide sufficient information to help teachers improve. Therefore, he conducted a qualitative study with a sample of six teachers, to provide them with data that would inform them
whether they have the same perception with their students about their teaching effectiveness. More specifically, he examined teacher attitudes towards student evaluation feedback from pre-, mid-, and post- study perspective and the extent to which teachers begin to think differently about their practice, based upon student input, especially when student thinking is represented in comparison with their own. Methods used to collect data included preliminary questionnaire, individual interviews, and focus group interviews. The findings suggested that although teachers were initially ambivalent about using student feedback to inform their practice, after looking at comparative data that showed their thinking compared with student thinking, all of the participants learned from and incorporated student suggestions into their practice.

So far, some key studies on teacher self-evaluation have been reviewed. On the whole, the review of literature in this section suggests the need for teachers to engage in teacher self-evaluation continuously because of its effectiveness to enhance their instructional practice. However, most researches only focused on the use of a single teacher self-evaluation instrument (e.g. videotape recording). In other words, there is little research that uses multiple self-evaluation instruments to help teachers improve their practice. When teachers start to more openly analyze their practices by using multiple sources of data, they may start to “make their professional knowledge explicit, and deeply explore complicated matters” (MacDonald, 1991, p. 103). Therefore, this study introduces various teacher self-evaluation tools to Indonesian teachers: teacher self-reflection questions, student feedback, lesson video recording, and collegial dialogue, in order to help them to get more comprehensive information about their practice in the belief that these tools will impact on teachers’ practice. From Vygotsky's sociocultural perspectives, human learning and development occur in activity, that is, purposeful action mediated by various tools (Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1985). In this study, I facilitated a group of Indonesian teachers to engage in a professional development activity by utilizing various tools. Hence, I adopted a sociocultural theory that emphasizes the importance of tools to mediate human actions. The following section introduces Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory in the context of teacher professional development. After this, the section explores interrelated pedagogical concepts from sociocultural theory including internalization, mediation, and the zone of proximal development. Finally, I review studies of sociocultural theory in the context of teacher professional development.
2.3 Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory

Sociocultural theory was first developed in relation to child development by the Russia psychologist, Lev Vygotsky. His main premise is that knowledge is generated through interaction in the context of social activities (Daniels, 1993). These social activities are thus “the process through which human cognition is formed” (Lantolf & Johnson, 2007, p. 878). In this regard, Vygotsky (1978) claims:

Every function in the child’s cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level, first, between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological). This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of concepts. All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals (p. 57).

Learning therefore occurs on two levels: (1) through interaction with others (social level), and (2) and then integrated into the individual’s mental structure (individual level).

Another important premise of Vygotsky (1978) is that the cognitive development of an individual depends on the cultural tools that the culture provides to assist in forming his/her own view of the world. In addition, Vygotsky (1978) suggests that cognitive development is advanced when an individual is presented with problems that he/she is able to solve as long as he/she is provided with the appropriate assistances (Fullan, 1993). This is known as the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), which is discussed further in Section 2.3.4 of this chapter. Critically for this thesis, within sociocultural theory, three interrelated concepts are involved: “that social interaction informs the development and character of mental processes, that cultural tools mediate psychological functioning, and that development advances through the ZPD” (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, p. 287).

2.3.1 Sociocultural theory and teacher professional development

Sociocultural theory has significant implications in areas of child development, cognitive psychology, and education. Its claim that children learn through social interaction using language as the main tool has significant implications beyond child development. Some researchers (Eun, 2008; Golombok & Johnson, 2004; Huizen, et al., 2005; Johnson & Golombok, 2011; Turuk, 2008; Warford, 2011) argue that
sociocultural theory is also applicable in teacher professional development contexts. Johnson and Golombek (2011) more specifically address the application of sociocultural theory within second language teacher education (SLTE). They remark:

A sociocultural theoretical perspective, as a psychological theory of mind, has the potential to explicate the origins, mechanisms, nature, and consequences of teacher professional development at all phases of teachers’ careers and in all contexts where they live, learn, and work (p. 1).

The above perspective explains that what teachers know about language teaching and learning, in particular how to teach, is based on the full array of their experience. Teachers are commonly familiar with everyday concepts, which are developed during long periods of experiences as students and learners of language in which the teachers situated in the cultural environment of language learning experiences in the everyday world. However, “these everyday concepts are limiting in that they based only observations and generalization gleaned from a surface-level understanding of what language learning and teaching is all about” (Johnson & Golombek, 2011, p. 2). When the teachers enter SLTE program, they are then exposed to scientific concepts, which based on systematic observations and theoretical investigations (Johnson & Golombek, 2011). Since teachers typically ground their understanding of teaching and learning as well as their notions about how to teach in their own instructional histories as learners (Lortie, 1975), they must be able to move beyond their everyday experience, toward more theoretically and pedagogically sound instructional practice to establish themselves as professionals (Johnson & Golombek, 2011).

In this context, Eun (2008) points out that:

Grounding professional development within Vygotsky’s theories of development seems most appropriate, not only because of the emphasis on the concept of development they share, but also more importantly due to the fact that both professional development and Vygotsky’s theories of development consider social interaction to be the main source underlying human development (p. 141).

From the above statements, Eun emphasized the importance of social interaction between and among teachers to actualize their professional development. Similarly, Flores et al. (2007) indicated that teachers are able to develop their professionalism when they become part of a learning community. Furthermore, Eun (2008, p. 144)
summarized how the key concepts of Vygotsky’s theories of development are realized in the practice of professional development as illustrated in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key theoretical concepts</th>
<th>Related professional development practices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Interaction</td>
<td>Workshops, colloquia, seminars, mentoring, study groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internalization</td>
<td>Individually guided activities (video self-assessment, journal writing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mediation</td>
<td>Continuous follow-up support that includes the three types of mediators: tools (material resources); signs (newsletters and journals); and other humans (professional networks).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological systems</td>
<td>Development of professional development programs that focus on changing teacher’s attitudes as well as instructional practices.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Realization of the concepts of Vygotsky's theories of development in the practice of professional development  
(From Eun, 2008, p. 146)

This study uses three key theoretical concepts mentioned in the above table: social interaction, internalization, and psychological systems. The research participants engaged in collegial dialogues in which they had opportunities to interact with other teachers, discussing and solving the problems occurring in the classroom. Additionally, video recordings of lessons and teacher self-reflection questions used by my research participants potentially mediated the transformative process of internalization. Finally, a series of teacher self-evaluation activities conducted in my study provided a psychological system to help my research participants refine their attitude in their teaching, leading to improved instructional practice. Therefore, I argue that various self-evaluation instruments used in my study function as effective tools that mediate teacher professional development. Moreover, Eun (2008) stated that “combining various models of professional development and using them in conjunction with one another would be most conducive to development on the Vygotskian framework” (p. 148). In addition, it has been previously noted that there are few studies on the implication of sociocultural theory in teacher professional development. Therefore, my study will increase the scholarly literature on sociocultural theory, in particular, with its interrelated concepts:
mediation, internalization, and the ZPD applied in teacher development, in the
Indonesian contexts. I will review affordances of teacher self-evaluation instruments,
internalization and mediation, and the ZPD in the next subsections.

2.3.2 Affordances of teacher self-evaluation instruments

As mentioned in the previous section, the participants of this study utilized four
mediational tools of teacher self-reflection questions, lesson video recording, student
feedback, and collegial dialogue. This process was underpinned by the theory of
affordance of James J. Gibson who stated that:

What [an environment feature] affords the observer is determined by its material
substance and its shape, size, rigidity, motion, etc. What it meant and what it is,
are not separated, as we have been led to believe. And the observer who
perceives the substance and the surface of anything has thereby perceived what
it affords (1979, p. 440).

That is to say the affordances of a tool depend on what is perceived by an individual.
An individual does not perceive the properties of tools but what they afford. For
example, humans use a pencil to write. However, they do not perceive its properties
such as at least one of pencil’s ends must be friable and dark (Osiurak, Jarry, & Gall,
2010).

Further, Gibson (1979) suggests that affordance only occurs when an object is
imbued with meaning by an agent who can use it for some purpose. Therefore, four
mediational tools including teacher self-reflection questions, lesson video recording,
student feedback, and collegial dialogue in this study were chosen because of the
affordances they provide to help teachers improve their instructional practice as
summarized in Table 2 below.
Table 2: Properties and affordances of four mediational tools

Table 2 above shows that each mediational tool used by research participants has its own properties and affordances to help them assess their performance. The use of combined mediational tools above helps teachers to have more comprehensive insights into their instructional practice. The next subsection of this chapter describes other interrelated concepts in sociocultural theory, mediation and internalization.
2.3.3 Mediation and internalization

Mediation and internalization are two important interrelated concepts of sociocultural theory. Mediation, which is the central notion of sociocultural theory, refers to “the process through which humans deploy culturally constructed artefacts, concepts, and activities to regulate (i.e. gain voluntary control over and transform) the material world or their own, and each other’s social and mental activity” (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, p. 79). In this view, humans do not act directly with their physical world but use numerous artefacts to mediate their activities. According to Lantolf and Thorne (2006), within sociocultural theory, artefacts or mediational means include both “material and conceptual aspects of human goal-directed activity” (p. 62). Sociocultural theorists (e.g., John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996; Wertsch, 1985; Moll, 1990) use the term “cultural tool” to refer to both physical tools (e.g., pen, computer) and psychological tools such as language, inner speech, signs, and symbols.

Vygotsky (1978) and Kozulin (2003) classified three major categories of mediation: mediation through material tools (e.g., using picture cards to aid remembering); mediation through symbolic systems (e.g., silently rehearsing the words to be remembered); and mediation through another human being (e.g., children could be supported by an adult in the process of remembering). The mediated activities may use any one or combinations of those three mediation tools. In the context of this study, a series of self-evaluation activities can provide a particular opportunity of mediation (through material tools and through another human being) for Indonesian teachers to develop their instructional practice.

Vygotsky (1978) define internalization as the process by which intermental functioning in the form of social relations among individuals and interaction with socially constructed artifacts is turned inwards and transformed into intramental functioning (Vygotsky, 1978). It is, therefore, the transformation of the external into the internal. Damianova and Sullivan (2011, p. 346) explain that “the core postulates of Vygotsky’s stance on the formation of higher mental functions, including speech, are that they have social origins as sign-mediated activities and are the product of the process of internalization”. Johnson and Golombek (2011) argue that the process of internalization does not happen automatically but takes continued participation in social activities that have a clear purpose.

Further, Johnson and Golombek (2011) explain that mediation underlies the transformation of external forms of social interaction to internalized forms of mental
functions. One form of mediation is regulation in which individuals eventually regulate their own behavior after participating in social activities. Lantolf and Thorne (2006) point out that the process of developing self-regulation consists of three stages: (1) object-regulation; (2) other-regulation; and (3) self-regulation. The first stage, object-regulation, happens when learning is regulated by objects. Lantolf and Thorne (2006) give an example of object-regulation is when children learn mathematics may find it difficult to carry out simple addition inside of their heads and have to depend on objects for external support (e.g., blocks). The second stage, other-regulation, involves “implicit and explicit mediation (involving varying levels of assistance, direction, and what is sometimes described as scaffolding) by parents, siblings, peers, coaches, teachers, and so on” (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, p. 200). In other words, other-regulation happens when learning is regulated by other people. The final stage is self-regulation, which is made possible through internalization. Self-regulation happens when a learner has full control and ability to function independently, and takes over complete responsibility for performing the goal-directed task (Wertsch, 1985). Self-regulation thus becomes the goal of internalization.

2.3.4 The Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)

Another important interrelated concept of sociocultural theory is the zone of proximal development (ZPD). It is defined by Vygotsky (1978, p. 86) as “the distance between the actual development 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”. Essentially, it relates to the knowledge or skill that cannot be achieved or performed yet, but are capable of learning by guidance of expert or other. The stages of the zone of proximal development traditionally proceed from expert-to self-assistance and later from internalization, as concepts are automatized, to recurrence through earlier stages as the learners de-automatize what they have learned (Gallimore & Tharp, 1990). According to Roosevelt (2008), the central goal of education from Vygotskian perspective is to keep learners in their own ZPDs as often as possible by providing them with interesting and culturally meaningful learning and problem-solving tasks that are slightly more difficult than what they do alone. The learners need to work with another, more competent peer or with a teacher or adult to complete the task. In addition, learning or instruction should “focus
on how interpsychological functioning can be structured such that it will maximize the growth of intrapsychological functioning” (Wertsch, 1985, p. 71).

Teacher’s zone of proximal development can similarly be thought of as a learning space between his present level of teaching knowledge consisting of content (theoretical) and pedagogical knowledge and skills and his next (potential) level of knowledge to be attained with the support of more knowing others. How those more knowing others organize, or “scaffold”, the task at hand predict the potential capacity for development (Blanton, Westbrook, & Carter, 2005). Borko (2004, p. 19) defines scaffolding as the steps taken to minimalize the degrees of freedom in carrying out some task so that the individuals can concentrate on the difficult skill they are in the process of acquiring. It involves helpful, structured interaction between an expert and a novice with the aim of helping the novice achieve a specific goal.

If the prospective novice teacher is determined to improve his act of teaching, he must engage in that shifting process and continuously define new ZPDs. Otherwise, he would remain as an experienced non-expert teacher with a stagnant ZPD (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1993). However, to keep teachers ZPD in motion and move from the current ZPD to a more advanced ZPD, requires assistance from knowledgeable others such as a colleague or a supervisor. Therefore, activities such as lesson video recordings, observations, or collegial dialogues, may provide scaffolding and have a direct effect on the teachers’ zone of proximal development and professional growth.

Building on Vygotsky’s notion of ZPD, Polman (2010) posits a notion of a zone of proximal identity development (ZPID) to explain the development of individual’s identity. Polman (2010) defines ZPID as:

The distance between the actual identity development level as determined by an individual’s past positioning and the level of potential identity development as determined through mutual negotiation of positioning and stance during actions associated with an identity, under adult guidance or in collaboration with peers (p. 134).

Individuals might have different zone of proximal identity development (ZPID) but all will hopefully be able to develop their identity as a result of their participation in the learning environment. Further, Polman (2010) explains that individuals are in the zone of proximal identity development (ZPID) if they are looking to move beyond the
already-achieved state and if they are capable of recognizing and willing to explore the pathways that lead beyond their past understanding.

Further, in order to generate change in their practice, teachers need to get through conflicts or tensions, known as “dramatical collisions” that was firstly highlighted in Vygotsky’s work by the Russian scholar, Nikolai Veresov. Veresov (2004) calls these dramatical collisions, the “hidden dimension” of the ZPD. Dramatical collisions are defined as the tensions that are inherent to activity that functions as the moving force of development since it pushes the ZPD to its outer limits (Veresov, 2004, p. 4). It means that dramatical collisions experienced by the individuals bring about development as Veresov (2004) claims:

Collision brings radical changes to the individual’s mind, and therefore it is a sort of act of development of mental functions – the individual becomes different, he becomes higher and above his own behaviour. Without internal drama, an internal category, such kind of mental changes are hardly impossible (p. 7).

Accordingly, teacher self-evaluation as a mediational activity in this study might produce dramatical collisions in Indonesian teachers as a meaningful source of reflection to develop their professional identity and their instructional practice. In this study, Veresov’s term “dramatical collisions” is described as “productive disruptions” making clear to the tensions that challenge teachers’ thinking in order to help them develop as teachers. The next subsection of this chapter describes some studies on sociocultural theory in teacher professional development.

2.3.5 Research on sociocultural theory in teacher professional development

Various studies on sociocultural theory in teacher professional development have been conducted. Some researchers (Belz, 2007; Golombek & Johnson, 2004; Harvey, 2011; Haugan, Moen, & Karlsdottir, 2013; Johnson & Dellagnelo, 2013) particularly focus on the concept of mediation in sociocultural theory to help teachers grow as professionals. Harvey (2011), for example, conducted a case study to examine the impact of verbal mediation on language teacher learning, in particular whether and how changes come about in the teachers’ learning. That verbal mediation was the mediational discourse of a series of post-observation conferences (POC), which is the discussions that occur after the mentor has observed the teacher in the classroom.
Harvey involved two practicing English teachers as the participants and he himself as a mentor teacher. Semi-structured interview, classroom observation, and video recording were used as the data sources during the process of post-observation conferences, and post-interviews. The findings of the study indicated that POC offered an ideal occasion for fostering the interaction between the teacher’s already lived experience, and the scientific concepts of language teaching, and thus promoting conceptual thinking about language teaching. However, the POCs as conducted for the purpose of this study lacked one important element in this teacher learning equation – the discussion of scientific concepts. To conclude his study, Harvey emphasized that it was beneficial for the mediator to actively seek opportunities for encouraging and modeling conceptual thinking.

In addition, Johnson and Golombek (2004) examined how narrative inquiry functioned as a culturally developed tool that mediated teachers’ professional development. They analysed narrative written by three ESL/EFL teachers set in three different instructional contexts: university-level freshman composition, elementary-level science, and secondary-level language arts. The findings indicated that teacher-authored narratives could be a semiotic tool that facilitated teacher development by documenting how teachers participated in and constituted their social reality. In addition, teacher-authored narratives provided rich evidence of the cognitive and emotional dissonance with which teachers struggle and the resources they exploit to mediate their learning. Johnson and Golombek (2004) concluded that narrative inquiry provided teachers with a way to recognize and promote the unique path of professional development that each teacher pursues.

Some studies (Ash & Levitt, 2003; Flores et al., 2007; McCullagh, 2012; Warford, 2011) highlight the concept of ZPD in relation to teacher professional development. For example, McCullagh (2012) conducted a study as a response to Eva Lundqvist, Jonas Almqvist and Leif Ostman’s account of how the manner of teaching can strongly influence pupil learning by recommending video supported reflection as a means by which teachers might transform the nature of their practice, by presenting an example of case study of a mentor teacher. McCullagh described how video could empower teachers to take greater control of their progress. He claimed that video was a key agent in initiating change in two ways: (1) it allowed teachers to see for themselves and empowered them to take control of their own development; and (2) it widened the focus of reflection from ‘problems’ to ‘missed opportunities’. Using Vygotsky’s zone of
proximal development and the notion of scaffolding, McCullagh proposed that video offered a Video Supported Zone of Proximal Development (VSZPD). Within the VSZPD, video played a central role in initiating and enriching interaction and communication between teachers. McCullagh further explained that a teacher might be drawn into the VSZPD by the dissonance between what they observed in the video recording and their own memory-based perception of the same event. The realisation of this difference constituted the first step towards development.

Further, based on a view that teacher candidates as learners need assistance through their ZPD from knowledgeable others, Flores and Claey’s (2011) conducted a case study with the participation of 69 teacher candidates. The study examined the effectiveness of the Academy for Teacher Excellence’s (ATE) support provided by the Teacher Academy Induction Learning Community (TAILC) to assist the transition of teacher candidates from their teacher preparation program into the teaching profession as novice teachers. Surveys, individual and group interviews, and induction mentors’ classroom observations were used as the data sources. The preliminary analysis indicated that through participating in a community of practice, teacher candidates’ movement in their zones of proximal development was supported to help assure their success and retention. Flores and Claey’s concluded that effective teacher induction support helped teacher candidates through their zone of proximal development and become members of a community of practice. They suggested that constant professional contact, goal setting, and self-efficacy promotions were valuable tools anchoring teacher candidates’ learning.

Sociocultural theory has also been taken into consideration in online teacher professional development (Chen, Chen, & Tsai, 2009; Ecclestone, 2004; Ernest et al., 2013; Gray, 2004; Schlager & Fusco, 2003). For instance, following Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory (1978) which argues that social interaction is fundamental to learning, Ernest et al. (2013) conducted a small-scale professional development programme set up and piloted by two distance universities in the United Kingdom and Barcelona, Spain. The study, which used quantitative and qualitative data, involved a group of 20 language teachers in examining some of the skills that are needed to successfully collaborate in virtual environments, and presented the skills that teachers need to foster online collaborative learning in the virtual classroom. The competences identified include planning and managing the collaboration, designing appropriate activities, giving clear instructions and getting students to negotiate ground rules for
participation, moderating at the right level, and choosing the right environment and the appropriate tool(s).

As showed in the studies reviewed above, sociocultural theory with its interrelated concepts, mediation, internalization, and the ZPD, functioned as a useful lens studying teacher professional development. Therefore, I also use sociocultural theory to examine self-evaluation practice as a form of a mediational activity in promoting the effectiveness of teachers’ instructional practice. A series of teacher self-evaluation activities in this study will provide effective sources of scaffolding to support teacher development and lead to possibilities for teachers to develop their professional identity, which is discussed further in the next section of this chapter.

2.4 Teacher professional identity

Teacher professional identity is a crucial factor for teacher development. Beijaard, Meijer, and Verloop (2004) point out that teacher professional identity significantly influence the way teachers teach, their professional development, and their attitude toward educational changes. This suggests that the effectiveness of teachers’ instructional practice is also affected by their professional identity. Hence, it is necessary for teachers to continuously negotiate and reshape their professional identity in order to grow as professional. Moreover, “from the Vygotskian perspective, the overall aim of a teacher education program is best conceived as the development of professional identity” (Huizen et al., 2005, p. 275).

Teacher professional identity has been defined variously. It is simply defined as a ‘kind of person’ within a particular context (Gee, 2001). Timostsuk and Ugaste (2010, p. 1564) refer teacher professional identity to “the person’s self-knowledge in teaching-related situations and relationships that manifest themselves in practical professional activities, feelings of belonging and learning experiences”. Further, Clarke (2008) includes the role of others in relation to teacher professional identity. He defines it as teachers’ knowledge and identifying of themselves, as well as others’ recognition of them as a particular sort of teacher (p. 8). Accordingly, in this study, teacher professional identity is related to a teacher’s perception and others’ recognition of himself/herself as a teacher.

The formation of teacher professional identity is determined by some factors including his/her personal history, social interactions, and psychological and cultural conditions (Cooper & Olson, 1996). However, teacher professional identity is dynamic
and changes over time since it is “negotiated through experience and the sense that is made of that experience” (Sachs, 2005, p. 15). Further, Beauchamp and Thomas (2009) said:

Reflection is recognized as a key means by which teachers can become more in tune with their sense of self and with a deep understanding of how this self fits into a larger context which involves others; in other words, reflection is a factor in the shaping of identity (p. 192).

To develop their professional identity, therefore, teachers need to reflect on their teaching practice and one of effective ways to do reflection is through self-evaluation. The next section of this chapter discusses the concept of possible selves that plays the significant role in the crafting of teacher professional identity.

2.5 Possible-selves theory

Possible selves can be a mediator for teacher cognition and development. Possible selves theory, developed by Markus and Nurius (1986), is described as the individuals’ ideas of the selves that they would very much like to become, they could become, or are afraid of becoming (Markus & Nurius, 1986, p. 954). Possible selves therefore represent three distinct aspects including the expected self, the hoped-for self, and the feared self. The expected self represents a future self that an individual feels confident to attain. The hoped-for self refers to a highly desired possible future. A feared self represents what an individual is scared of becoming in the future.

Possible selves relate to individuals’ motivation or potential to change. They influence the motivation process in two ways: (1) by making an apparent goal to attain (if they are positive) and to avoid (if they are negative), and (2) by energizing the individuals to take the needed actions to succeed in achieving the goal (Markus & Ruvolo, 1989). It means that to realize future oriented selves, individuals need to set goals, create plans, and engage in considerable efforts toward their goals.

Possible selves, in particular, function for evaluating individual’s current self and are “derived from individually salient desires, hopes, reservations, and fears, but these aspirations and fears are influenced by an individual’s current (and past) specific social, cultural, and environmental experiences” (Hamman, Gosselin, Romano, & Bunuan, 2010). In addition, Hamman et al. (2013) point out that possible selves are dynamic and “their origins and longevity influence, and are influenced by personal
goals, interactions, and outcomes that occur within a relevant environment (p. 310). Accordingly, teacher self-evaluation in this study could possibly mediate teachers’ understanding of their current and past selves that further function as incentives to lead to future-oriented representations of the selves or a certain type of teacher in the future. Hence, teacher possible selves play a crucial role in motivating for changes and directing teachers’ behavior that, in turn, lead to their professional growth. As the aim of my study is to explore teachers’ pedagogic habitus and the extent teachers’ pedagogic habitus are capable of change as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation, the next section reviews the Bourdieu’s sociological theory including his concepts of habitus, capital, field, and practice.

2.6 Bourdieu’s sociological theory and teacher professional development

Sociological theory of habitus, capital, field, and practice as offered by Pierre Bourdieu has attracted increasing interest in social science research in general and has “long been used by sociologist of education to develop their explanations of class, status, and power in pedagogic contexts” (Pratt & Associates, 1998, p. 1) in particular. Bourdieu’s’ sociological theory “provides a lens through which the individual sees the world, affecting her interaction and participation in it and, as such, supplying access to better understanding the dynamics of the individual as part of a social group” (Timostsuk & Ugaste, 2010, p. 19). Accordingly, Bourdieu’s sociological theory provides a useful lens to examine teacher professional development from teachers’ pedagogic habitus and capital they bring to their practice within their field.

I particularly adopt the notion of habitus, which is at the core of Bourdieu’s sociological theory to argue that teachers’ instructional practices are not dependent on just their conscious action or beliefs. The notion of habitus works to explain how it is that teachers behave in predictable and particular ways that feel natural in their field. Habitus is often misunderstood which is not surprising since Bourdieu defines habitus in somewhat abstract language. However, the notion of habitus is extensively cited and has been used in variety of practices and contexts, “becoming part of the lexicon of a range of disciplines, including sociology, anthropology, education, cultural studies, philosophy and literary criticism” (Maton, 2008, p. 49). Bourdieu (1977) defines habitus as:
Systems of durable, transposable dispositions, structured structures predisposed to function as structuring structures, that is, as principles of the generations and structuring of practices and representations which can be objectively regulated and regular without in any way being the product of obedience to rules, objectively adapted to their goals without presupposing a conscious aiming at ends or an express mastery of the operations necessary to attain them...orchestrated without being the product of the orchestrating action of a conductor (p. 72).

The above definition implies that habitus is a structured and structuring structure. It is structured by an individual’s past and present circumstances; it is also structuring in that habitus that shapes an individual’s present and future practices; it is a structure that is systematically ordered. Bidet (1979, p. 203) interprets it more simply as “the culture (of an epoch, class or any group) as it is internalized by the individual in the form of durable dispositions that are at the basis of his/her behavior.” In other words, habitus is embodied and becomes an engine to generate individual’s activities, including perceptions, expectations, and actions. Wacquant (2005) interprets Bourdieu’s concept of habitus as “the way society becomes deposited in persons in the form of lasting dispositions, or trained capacities and structured propensities to think, feel and act in determinant ways, which then guide them” (p. 16). This interpretation indicates that environment or society affects individuals in the form of their habitus. What they consider as appropriate or good is shaped by the people who surround them.

Webb, Schirato, and Danaher (2002) describe habitus as durable and transposable values and dispositions gained from cultural history that generally remain across contexts. These values and dispositions allow for improvisations and respond to cultural rules and contexts in different ways but the responses are always mostly constrained where and who we have been in a culture. Furthermore, Webb, Schirato, and Danaher (2002) explain that there are four aspects associated with Bourdieu’s notion of habitus: (1) structure of the mind characterized by beliefs, values, and the way to understand the world; (2) the critical role of cultural trajectories and personal histories in shaping the specific attitudes, values or ways of behaving of individuals or groups; (3) the key role of implicit understandings or ‘feel for the game that the habitus is always constitute in moments of practice; and (4) the dual, partly calculated, partly unconscious nature of habitus suggesting that it is at least part arbitrary; “there is nothing natural or essential about the values we hold, the desires we pursue, or the
practices in which we engage” (p. 38). In this sense, habitus concerns on action that is done unconsciously in everyday life as a matter of routine.

Ling (1999) suggests that habitus can be understood at three stages as illustrated in Figure 3.

\[ \text{Habitus} \rightarrow \text{Dispositions} \rightarrow \text{Perception} \rightarrow \text{Conception} \rightarrow \text{Appreciation} \rightarrow \text{Various kinds of practices} \]

\textbf{Figure 3: Stages of habitus}  
\textit{(From Ling, 1999, p. 70)}

From the above figure, habitus becomes more concrete and context-specific from the deep stage to the most surface stage. At the deepest state, habitus is a system of dispositions to a particular practice; at the second stage, habitus is a system of schemes of perception, conception/thought, and appreciation; and at the third or most surface stage, habitus is a system of models for production of practices, the perception and appreciation of practices. In this sense, practice can be seen as the product of habitus and disposition can be seen as the essence of habitus. Accordingly, in interpreting teachers’ habitus in this study, this study includes teachers’ perception, conception, and appreciation consciously and unconsciously towards their teaching as parts of their dispositions.

Bourdieu (1994) explains that habitus is structured by one’s past and present circumstances, such as family background and educational experiences. Furthermore, habitus “refers to something historical, it is linked to individual history and it belongs to genetic mode of thought” (Bourdieu, 1990, p. 86). Hence, habitus focuses on
individuals’ ways of acting, feeling, thinking, and being and individual histories are crucial to understand the concept of habitus because dispositions are always historical and biographical products. Furthermore, Bourdieu emphasizes that “habitus ensures the active presence of past experiences within individuals in the forms of schemes of perception, thought and action” (Bourdieu, 1977, p. 72). Similarly, individual’s history and how the individual brings this history into his present circumstances and how he then makes choices to act in certain ways and not in others are captured through habitus (Maton, 2008). However, Bourdieu’s sociological theory is often viewed as being deterministic (see, for example, Adams, 2006; Jenkins, 2002, Nash, 1990). In this study, I refute that criticism, which is discussed further in Subsection 2.6.3 of this chapter.

Habitus can be seen in two ways: as individual and collective practice. Wolfeys (2000) remarks that habitus offers the means by which the social game is inscribed in biological individuals. In this view, habitus is considered as the uniqueness of individuals. Each individual’s habitus will be different to some degree since “no two biographies are exactly the same…however…the individual belongs to a group or variety of groups and develops his or her habits therein. Thus, the individual habitus tends to manifest many group specific characteristics” (Crossley, 2001, p. 83). Accordingly, having similar experiences in similar sociocultural conditions creates the homogeneity of habitus and to make agents possible to have collective habits. Therefore, individuals demonstrate their dispositions common to others in the same group. In addition, “within a group each individual system of dispositions can be thought of as a variant of the others in the group, yet it is possible to distinguish the habitus of different groups due to the common style or way of living of each group” (Kang, 2002, pp. 38-39).

In the case of teaching, becoming a teacher therefore means reshaping the habitus that is originally formed by experiences as student during their years of schooling where they have been taught about appropriate ways of being, within the school context. In other words, schooling plays a significant role in shaping teacher’s habitus. Roth (2002, p. 47) notes:

When novice teachers first begin teaching, they often act in ways consistent with past experiences and thereby re/produce the structures that they themselves had been subject to. Although they have not yet (or little) participated in teacher-student interaction from the teacher’s point of view, their habitus (system of structured structuring dispositions) structures the way they question, itself
having been structured by the questioning sequences they experienced with their own teachers.

This implies that past experiences of novice teachers have critical influence in the way they teach in the class. They know what teaching and learning should look like because of thousands of hours they have spent as a student in school.

Habitus is only an aspect of Bourdieu's theoretical framework and it does not act alone. In Distinction, Bourdieu (1984) proposes an analogy that (Habitus x Capital) + Field = Practice. Bourdieu uses the concepts of habitus, field, capital, and practice to explain the meaning of social actor’s actions and determine why certain people from certain groups or classes perform certain acts and how it comes to be viewed by people in that class as natural. Wacquant (1998) notes that the system of dispositions that individuals acquire depends on the position they occupy in society. In this study, I use the term “pedagogic habitus” referring to the habitus that is related to teachers’ practice. In exploring teachers’ pedagogic disposition, that generates their actions, I link it with their teaching contexts (field) and their capital. I discuss this further in the next section.

2.6.1 Capital

Capital is productive assets or resources an individual(s) possesses that produce profit. Capital, in conjunction with habitus and field, shapes possibilities for action and it is not solely in the form of economy. According to Bourdieu (1986, p. 46), capital is a resource that can be in objectified or embodied forms “which can potentially produce different forms of profits” but it takes time to accumulate. Bourdieu also equates capital with power. In this view, capital is resources to get power that can be used to control others. Bourdieu (1986) presents three fundamental forms of capital: (1) economic capital; (2) cultural capital; and (3) social capital, which have been illustrated in figure 2. Economic capital, which is given little attention by Bourdieu, relates to capital in the everyday sense as in the form of money, commodities, property rights, and other material assets. The next form of capital is cultural capital that refers to the dominating culture in a society forged through the incorporation of economic resources and education. Bourdieu (1986) presents the notion of cultural capital in three forms: embodied state, objectified state, and institutionalized state that will be discussed in greater detail below. Social capital that will also be explained further below reflects the network of relationships and memberships in a group that have productive benefits.
Bourdieu claims that these forms of capital (economic, cultural, and social capital) must be understood in relation to each other. In this view, “the distribution of social capital is related to that of economic capital, and together with cultural capital is used (consciously and unconsciously) to reproduce power relations and forms of access to resources that tend to reproduce existing distributions of power and capitals” (Bebbington, 2009, p. 165). Further, economic, cultural, and social capital can be considered symbolic capital (on the basis of honor, prestige or recognition) when the possession is socially legitimated. Importantly, Bourdieu claims that social, cultural, or economic forms of capital can be accumulated and transformed from symbolic forms to more powerful, material, economic forms. We see this, “when wealthy people convert their economic capital into cultural capital through the purchase of a privileged education for their children, who then acquire qualifications which give them an entrée into occupations which confer high economic rewards” (Purdue, 2001, p. 6). The types of capital considered most valuable depend on the particular field in which they are evaluated. In the field of education, for example, having a specific skill such as fluency in a foreign language is viewed as something valuable that can be traded. In addition, Smart (1993, p. 393) mentions that “social capital is the most tentative and least secure of other forms of capital, while economic capital is the most “objective”, certain, and enforceable.” Figure 4 below summarizes the forms of capital by Bourdieu (1986).

![Figure 4: Forms of capital](image)

### 2.6.1.1 Cultural capital

Bourdieu’s notion of cultural capital has been used extensively in the research of social sciences. He originally conceptualized cultural capital as a way to explain the unequal academic achievement of children from different social classes. Cultural capital
refers to the system of attributes (e.g. cultural knowledge, values) that are often connected to class status (Gonzales, Stoner, & Jovel, 1998; McDonough, 1998). Smart (1993, p. 392) argues that cultural capital “consists of what the agent knows and is capable of doing; it can be used to generate privilege, products, income, or wealth”. Smart (1993) further notes that cultural capital has the ability to engage in particular kinds of practices, and in the most powerful forms it accords a monopoly over such practices (for instance, medical doctors or accountants). Bourdieu and Passeron (1977) divide the ways of transferring cultural capital into three modes of “pedagogic action”: diffuse education, which occurs through social interaction; family education (linked to the parents’ level of education); and institutionalized education (school). As mentioned above, cultural capital exists in three distinctive states: embodied, objectified, and institutionalized. These are explained below.

Embodied cultural capital
For Bourdieu, the embodied cultural capital is the most significant. He remarks, “most of the properties of cultural capital can be deduced from the fact that, in its fundamental state, it is linked to the body and presupposes embodiment” (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 244). The embodied cultural capital included “long-lasting dispositions of the mind and body” (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 47). It cannot be transmitted instantaneously by gift, purchase or exchange like money, property rights, or nobility. It includes particular styles, modes of presentation, including use of language, forms of social etiquette and competence, as well as a degree of confidence and self-assurance (Bourdieu, 1986). In other words, embodied cultural capital is external wealth transformed into an integral part of the person. It takes time and a degree of effort to acquire and is transmitted most commonly from parent to child. For example, a child brought up in a music-loving family is far more likely to develop her own love of music. In addition, Bourdieu (1986) states that the transmission and acquisition of embodied cultural capital are more disguised or diffused than those of economic capital.

Objectified cultural capital
Objectified cultural capital describes the possessions in the form of cultural goods (paintings, books, dictionary, art works, or musical instruments) that require embodied capital to completely appreciate and use it beneficially. Unlike the embodied cultural capital, objectified cultural capital can easily be transmitted legally in its materiality, but
does not constitute the precondition for specific appropriation. For example, having possession of a physical painting does not guarantee its appreciation (Bourdieu, 1986).

_{Institutionalized cultural capital}_

Institutionalized cultural capital takes the form of academic qualifications, formal recognition, or other rewards of independent credentialing processes, which are, “a certificate of cultural competence which confers on its holder a conventional, constant, legally guaranteed value with respect to culture” (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 50). Bourdieu (1986) further mentions that an individual needs embodied cultural capital to appropriate and use institutionalized cultural capital. In addition, Smart (1993, p. 393) argues that the institutionalized cultural capital (degrees or accreditations) can be removed, but the knowledge (which is considered as embodied cultural capital) on which these accreditations were based cannot easily be removed.

To provide more systematic categorization of capital, in this thesis, Bourdieu’s forms of embodied and institutionalized cultural capital are elaborated diagrammatically below.

![Figure 5: Forms of embodied and institutionalized cultural capital](image)

As illustrated in the above figure, embodied cultural capital consists of both physical and personal cultural capital. Physical embodied cultural capital refers to the embodied attributes an agent has that relate to his/her physical appearance such as ‘good looks’, a muscular body, etc.; personal embodied cultural capital refers to embodied attributes an agent has that relates to his/her personal competency such as being able to play music, to draw, etc. Institutionalized cultural capital is divided into two forms: personal and
professional. Personal institutionalized cultural capital is someone’s attributes that have relevance to their jobs such as having a good English accent, ability to type fast, ability to speak many languages. Professional institutionalized cultural capital is in the form of academic qualification. In analyzing embodied and institutionalized cultural capitals attained by research participants in this study, I refer to the above categorization.

2.6.1.2. Social capital

Social capital is defined broadly as resources, or capital, existing in social relations, social networks, and societal organizations. Bourdieu (1986) defines social capital as:

The aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition – or in other words, to membership in a group – which provides each of its members with the backing of the collectivity owned capital, a “credential” which entitles them to credit, in the various senses of the word. (p. 248-249)

This definition implies that social capital includes obligation, the advantages of connections, and trust. Similarly, Coleman (1994) and Bryk and Schneider (2002) remark that some of the resources to increase social capital involve relational attributes such as responsibility, respect, and trust. In addition, social capital is viewed as one of many resources enabling individual to pursue interests and positions.

Bourdieu further explains about the measurement and reproduction of social capital. He asserts:

The volume of the social capital possessed by a given agent…depends on the size of the network of connection he can effectively mobilize and on the volume of the capital (economic, cultural or symbolic) possessed in his own right by each of those to whom he is connected (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 250).

The measurement of social capital has two key elements: the extent of an individual’s network and the amount of the capital that the other parts of the network have. Bourdieu (1986) further explains that the network of relationships in social capital is the product of investment strategies, individual or collective, consciously or unconsciously aimed at establishing or reproducing social relationships that are directly usable in the short or
long term (Bourdieu, 1986). In other words, social capital is acquired as a result of exchange, for example, services, concern, or gifts. However, those exchanges “tend to be characterized by unspecific obligations, uncertain time horizons, and the possible violation of reciprocity expectations” (Portes, 2000, p. 45). As with other forms of capital, the acquisition and maintenance of social capital needs time and “presupposes an unceasing effort of sociability” (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 250).

As argued by Hodgkinson (2008), social capital is important, but so are economic and cultural capital. I will view teachers’ capital in all its forms (economic, social, and cultural capitals) in my study, as these shape teachers’ pedagogic dispositions. These capitals reflect the distinctive values, beliefs and ideas that form the basis of social action within a teacher’s experience, and result in teacher practice within the field. For Bourdieu, the conversion of any form of capital whether economic, cultural, or social is through negotiation and dealings within the field, a social space which will be further described below.

2.6.2 Field as a social space

The notion of field is the spatial metaphor for the context in which the habitus performs. Involvement in a field shapes the habitus that, in turn, shapes the actions that reproduce the field. For Bourdieu (1990, p. 87), fields are social sites in which actors, imbued with particular social dispositions developed over time, engage with one another in a process of contest over the forms of capital. More specifically, field is structured systems of social positions on which actors compete for access to and control over specific resource. The social world as a whole forms a field (Bourdieu, 1990, p. 87). However, the social world also consists of many different fields, such as the education, politics, or scientific field, which all have “historically constituted areas of activity with their specific institutions and their own laws of functioning” (Bourdieu, 1990, p. 87).

For Bourdieu (1990), any social field can be analogically read as a game in which the players or actors use their capitals as tokens. Within a field, one deploys one’s capital as one uses tokens in a game. The game has tacit rather than explicit rules, and players can try to change those rules through strategies aimed at discrediting the form of capital, upon which the force of their opponents rests and to valorize the species of capital they preferentially possess. Education, for example, is characterized by
competition for prestigious titles, grades, and positions, and the structure of that field consists in a distribution of the capitals they afford.

Bourdieu (1983) further claims that the individuals who engage in a field have a number of essential interests in common, i.e. interests linked to the very existence of the field. There is agreement about the object of dispute: all share belief in the value of what is in dispute. To get in to the field, one has to share the recognition of the game value and the knowledge of the principles of the functioning game. Similarly, Martin (2003) notes, “for something to be understood as a field requires that its agents are interpersonally related or orientated towards each other or that they share the same goal” (p. 29).

Different fields give different values to the forms of capital with varying requirements for success within them. In addition, Crossley (2002b, p. 180) remarks:

Specific fields will often have their own forms of social control, their own structures of opportunity and their specific types of resource, and thus the possibility of movement formation, development and success within them may be quite specific to them […] a campaign which is eminently newsworthy in the media field may be quite hopeless from a political or legal point of view, and vice versa.

This indicates that each field has its own constraints and logics. In my study, the private university as the study’s setting is an example of field. It can be described as a small community of individuals and professional groups with hierarchies based on specific areas of knowledge and historical background. This private university has different faculties, departments, facilities, student and teacher expectation, curriculum, academic standards, administrative support, available resources, or students’ outcomes that will be an arena for teachers’ action involving their habitus and capitals. For Bourdieu (1993), field functions as a possible space linked to chances of access, aspirations and expectations, which are perceived and appreciated by the habitus. In this view, the field and habitus must be understood together. Therefore, to explore teachers’ pedagogic habitus, I will also include the discussion of the field or the teaching contexts of the teachers in a separate chapter. In addition, Bourdieu (1990, p. 99) claims that to analyze a field, it is necessary to consider power (e.g., is the field in a dominant or subordinate position in relation to others) and to map out the structure of the relations among “agents or institutions” in that field. As mentioned before, the aim of my study is
to explore teachers’ pedagogic habitus and the extent to which those pedagogic habitus are capable of change following teachers’ engagement in teacher self-evaluation as a mediational activity. Therefore, I next discuss the reproduction and transformation of habitus.

2.6.3 Reproduction and transformation of habitus

Habitus is often criticized as having a tendency to be constraining and deterministic, as prioritizing social reproduction above transformation (e.g., Canagarajah, 1993; Giroux, 1983; Jenkins, 1992). Such critique is understandable since Bourdieu remarks that structured and reproductive nature is important for its formation and operation (Setten, 2009). Nash (1990) claims that the Bourdieu’s theory of practice contradicts “the theory of action, blurs the concepts of choice, and introduces confusion, circularity, and pseudo-determinism” (p. 445). Similarly, Adams (2006) and Reay (2004) point out that Bourdieu’s theory is criticized as overly deterministic and poorly articulated. In addition, habitus is viewed as rigid and deterministic, creating limited space for agency (Lovell, 2000). However, some argue that habitus has the potential of transformative (e.g., Browne-Yung et al., 2013; Crossley, 2002a; Harker & May, 1993; Horvart & Davis, 2011; Mills, 2008; Tobin, et al., 1999) and some consider that habitus has a tendency to be both reproductive and transformative (e.g., Ilyenkov, 1977; Reay et al., 2001; Roth, 2002).

Nevertheless, Bourdieu himself argues that habitus can transform and be transformed by the social fields we negotiate during our life course (Bourdieu, 1990). In addition, Bourdieu and Wacquant (1992) point out:

Habitus is not the fate that some people read into it. It is an open system of dispositions that is constantly subjected to experiences, and therefore constantly affected by them in a way that either reinforces or modifies its structures. It is durable but not eternal (p. 133).

In line with the above arguments, it can be said that the experiences make an important contribution that affect the opportunity for habitus to reproduce or transform. Furthermore, Browne-Yung et al. (2013) remark that the habitus does not restrict an individual’s strategic capacities and when an individual challenges experiences or ideas, the habitus can potentially be transformed.
In this study, I believe that there is possibility to change teacher’s habitus since they are “active players whose personal views influence the degree to which they consciously wish to enact change in this field” (Oliver & Kettley, 2010, p. 740). In addition, Mills (2008) argues that teachers can act as agents of transformation rather than reproduction by broadening the types of cultural capital that are valued in the classroom. Similarly, Roth (2002) points out that it is possible to change teachers’ habitus:

Because of the conservative tendency of habitus, it takes considerable time and effort to bring about changes in practices — changes in practices requires a change in habitus. But change in habitus does not come easily, as habitus is formed and transformed in and through practical experience. However, habitus can also be changed through considerable socio-analysis, that is, through an awakening of certain forms of self-consciousness and self-work that enables the practitioner to get a handle on their disposition. One way to enacting such self-work is through reflection on practice (p. 5).

That above statement implies that transforming teachers’ habitus could be done through a form of self-study, and doing a reflective practice is one form of self-studies. Seen this light, mediated self-evaluation, in my study is a form of reflective practice that facilitates teachers to reflect on their teaching. Hence, it has the potential to assist teachers to transform their habitus and practice in order to improve the effectiveness of their instructional practice. Some studies of Bourdieu’s theory (habit, capital, field, practice) in education will be described in the next subsection.

2.6.4 Research on Bourdieu’s sociological theory in education

Bourdieu’s sociological theory with its key concepts of habitus, capital, field, and practice have largely been used to uncover educational inequalities (Ash & Levitt, 2003; Belz, 2007; Golombek & Johnson, 2004; Haugan et al., 2013; Schlager & Fusco, 2003). Dumais (2002) conducted a study to analyze cultural participation and created a model to measure habitus. The sample of her study was eighth-grade boys and girls. The findings indicated that students who were female and had higher socioeconomic status were more likely to participate in cultural activities, and cultural capital had significant effect on the grade of female students. Dumais argued that the lack of cultural participation by male students was because of the traditional gender stereotypes and that female students might be encouraged to make use of their cultural capital to
succeed in school. Reay (1995) explored the presence of habitus in the children’s practices in two primary classrooms. The findings suggested, “habitus as method with its emphasis on domination in everyday practices and subjective vocations can provide valuable insights into the power dynamics of gender, class and 'race' relations within classrooms” (p. 369).

The studies mentioned above imply that habitus and capital dictate an agent’s participation in a field. An agent with the most capital is more able to “play the game” within his/her field than others and the manner in which he/she makes use of his/her capital is based on his/her habitus. In the education field, for example, the amount of capital (economic, cultural, and social), a student possesses, that are received from his/her families, communities, and prior experiences and valued in the field, affects his/her academic or educational success.

Griffin et al. (2012) conducted a study to examine the role of habitus. They specifically addressed the following question: “what role does habitus play in the ways in which black immigrant college students engage in the predisposition, search, and institutional choice phases of the college-choice process?”. This qualitative study of 23 black immigrants attending a public, selective research university used a demographic questionnaire (consisting questions about academics, family background, residency status, engagement in work and out of class activities, and country of origin) and interviews as the data sources. The research findings indicated that participants’ habitus was strongly influenced by culture, prestige, and the value parents placed on education. Participants’ habitus shaped about educational choices and options, and a college education was viewed by some participants as a critical and important component of social mobility for themselves and their family.

Similarly, based on the fact that few state students apply to elite universities (for example Oxford or Cambridge), Oliver and Kettley (2010) examined the influence of teacher habitus on students’ applications to elite universities. Their qualitative study involved teachers and students in six institutions and used questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, and focus group interviews as the data sources. The finding indicated that teachers’ personal beliefs, experiences, and connections shaped their agency in being either facilitators or gatekeepers for students’ applications. The study suggested widening participation practitioners must pay attention not only to state schools students, but also their teachers since “they play important roles in laying
foundations that will ultimately shape the educational and occupational destinations of their students” (Oliver & Kettley, 2010, p. 752).

Research also exists supporting the view that habitus is transformative. Horvat and Davis (2011) conducted a mixed-method study (quantitative and qualitative) of 57 students who took a 10-month-long YouthBuild program (an educational/vocational program for high school dropouts). The curriculum of the program was a mix of job-site experience renovating a house, classroom work, and community service. The program also provided counseling and assistance in developing a personal growth plan. Using narrative and thematic analysis of in-depth interviews, the finding of the study revealed that the YouthBuild program touched many aspects of students’ lives and transformed elements of their habitus. Students typically characterized their attitude on life as pessimistic prior to joining the YouthBuild program. The program then helped them to develop greater self-esteem and self-knowledge and to improve their material conditions, and to develop the ability to accomplish something of value, and the capacity to contribute to the welfare of others.

2.6.5 Research on Bourdieu’s sociological theory in teacher professional development

Unfortunately, little research on habitus has been done to explain teacher professional development. Employing a naturalistic inquiry method, Kang (2002) examined pre-service science teachers’ beliefs about teaching and student motivation and their development of teaching habitus throughout their student teaching programs. Three pre-service teachers (student teachers) were chosen as the research participants. Interviews, classroom observation, and documents were used as the data sources. The findings indicated that the participants initially had transmissionist beliefs about teaching and student motivation. Subsequently, the participants' student teaching experiences reinforced their naive beliefs and developed a habitus that was reproductive of the current culture of science teaching.

Although he does not use the theory of habitus, but discusses teaching in terms of teacher identity, Clarke (2008) provides an example of significant change in pre-service teachers' knowledge and beliefs as the result of participation in a four-year degree program. The change includes shifting from belief in passive, transmissionist or instructionist models of teaching and learning (memorization and rote learning), in
which a teacher or lecturer ‘transmits’ information to students, to a constructivist model which attributes an active role in learning to students.

Based on my review on Bourdieu’s theory of habitus, it seems that there are few studies illustrating teachers’ pedagogic habitus. Exploring teachers’ habitus can provide information to develop their professionalism since habitus generates action. In this sense, teachers’ practice can be seen as the product of habitus so that the theory of habitus can be used to interpret practice. Hence, my study adds to the limited scholarly literature on the use of habitus to explain teacher professional development opportunities, in particular, with regard to teachers in Indonesia. In addition, as noted before that Bourdieu’s concepts cannot be considered as discrete entities but rather each concept interrelates with the others; however, most studies focus more on just one aspect of Bourdieu’s theory. In this sense, my study considers and uses Bourdieu’s notion of habitus, capital, and field together to interpret teachers’ practice. Furthermore, some studies have been done to describe existing habitus and provided explanation of why changing habitus is difficult. Accordingly, my study explores the possibility that the teachers can transform their pedagogic habitus through mediated self-evaluation and adds another way to explain of why and how habitus might be both reproductive and transformative.

2.7 Summary

Three fundamental areas in this study have been reviewed in this chapter. They are teacher self-evaluation, Vygotsky’s sociocultural perspectives, and Bourdieu’s sociocultural theory with its components of habitus, capital, field, and practice. The reviews of studies on teacher self-evaluation suggest that teachers should engage in teacher self-evaluation regularly in order to create ongoing improvements in their practice. Unfortunately, most studies focus solely on the use of the use of a single teacher self-evaluation instrument (e.g., Lynes, 2012, Wright, 1998, and Morgan, 2000). Therefore, this study utilizes various teacher self-evaluation tools: teacher self-reflection questions, student feedback, lesson video recording, and collegial dialogue in order to facilitate Indonesian teachers to get more comprehensive information about their instructional practice.

Based on the review of studies on Vygotsky’s sociocultural perspectives, sociocultural theory functions as a useful lens to be applied in teacher professional development. Hence, this study uses sociocultural theory with its corresponding
concepts of mediation, internalization, and the ZPD to examine self-evaluation practice as a form of mediational activity to reflect teachers’ practice and promote its improvement. The activities in teacher self-evaluation such as class video-tape, observations, or focus group discussion provide scaffolding that may have a direct effect on the teachers’ zone of proximal development and professionalism.

The review of studies on Bourdieu’s theory of habitus indicates that few studies have been done to examine teachers’ habitus in relation to their teaching. Therefore, this study will fill this gap and provide more scholarly literature on the use of habitus to explain teacher professional development opportunities. It will also be the first study of its kind to be conducted in the context. The review also reveals that most research concerns solely on one notion of Bourdieu’s theory. Concerning this issue, this study uses Bourdieu’s notion of habitus, capital, field, and practice to interpret the development of Indonesian teachers. Moreover, this study explores the possibility that the teachers might transform their habitus through teacher self-evaluation; hence, it adds another way of explanation of why and how habitus has a tendency to be both reproductive and transformative. Overall, this chapter argues that teacher self-evaluation may provide effective sources of scaffoldings to support teacher development and serve as a mediation tool opening up the possibility of transforming teachers’ habitus. The next chapter on methodology discusses the research design employed in this study. It firstly explains the study epistemological position reflecting social constructivism. It then outlines the theory, approach, strategies and analysis used in this study. Secondly, the chapter discusses the research procedures including details pertaining to sampling, entire data collection process, and teacher self-evaluation activity. Thirdly, the chapter outlines research ethics including researcher position and other ethical considerations.
Chapter 3
Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction
The previous chapter outlined the literature related to teacher self-evaluation. It also elaborated on how Vygotsky’s sociocultural and Bourdieu’s sociological theories were used to frame this study’s research questions. The research questions in this study are:

1. What is the nature of Indonesian English language teachers’ pedagogic habitus (dispositions and beliefs)?
2. To what extent are Indonesian English language teachers’ pedagogic habitus capable of change as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation?

This chapter presents the methods through which the above research questions were addressed. The chapter first describes the research design used in this study. This includes an outline of epistemology, theory, approach, strategies and analysis. The second section of this chapter then outlines the research procedures, including details pertaining to sampling, entire data collection process, and teacher self-evaluation activity. Lastly, this chapter discusses research ethics including researcher position and other ethical considerations.

3.2 Research design
This section includes five main discussions: (1) epistemological position; (2) theory; (3) approach; (4) strategies; and (5) analysis, which are discussed further below.

3.2.1 Epistemology
All research studies make a particular claim about knowledge. According to Dimitriadis and Kemberinis (2005, p. 13), “Epistemologies are concerned with knowledge and how people come to have knowledge”. There are two principal epistemologies: objectivism and constructivism. Objectivism postulates an objective world in which meaning is independent of what is ascribed by human beings and their cultural systems. Alternatively, constructivism postulates meaning as a function of our engagement with the world. In addition, Kundi and Nawaz (2010, p. 30) assert that
constructivism is not “predictable in total, rather most of it depends on the human interaction with the situation resulting into human perception which in turn draws the pictures/image of reality”. This implies that the meaning of reality is likely to be constructed differently as a function of the position or perspective taken by culture, a social formation, or an individual person. Hence, this study is guided by constructivism as the epistemological position because the meaning of reality in this study is not only considered an individual construction; it is also considered a social construction pervaded by common sense.

Dimitriadis and Kamberelis (2005, p. 14) assert, “it has only been in the last couple of decades that qualitative approaches to social science rooted in constructionist epistemologies have gained scientific legitimacy, and the struggle for legitimacy continues in many domains, including language and literary studies”. Therefore, in adopting social constructivism as the study’s epistemological position, and in assuming that how the knowledge is constructed or generated in this study depends on particular action, belief, and contextual challenges, the researcher is mindful of the need to address the concerns of a potentially sceptical audience. Every effort is made to do so throughout this study.

3.2.2 Theory

Dimitriadis and Kamberelis (2005) claim that a qualitative inquiry needs to involve theories, which are defined as “abstract sets of assumptions and assertions used to interpret and sometimes explain psychological, social, cultural, and historical processes and formations” (p. 15). Positivism and interpretivism are two broad abstract theories that underlie sociological research. On the one hand, positivists assume a meaningful reality that is independent of experience and can only be revealed through empirical observation and experiment (Dimitriadis & Kamberelis, 2005, p. 15). Positivists, therefore, are concerned with testing theories and hypotheses and presenting the reality by empirical means. The goal of positivist research is to produce objective generalizations because human actions can be explained as a result of real causes that precedes their behaviors (Carson et al., 2001; Hudson & Ozanne, 1988).

On the other hand, interpretivists believe that realities are relative and multiple, and are perceived through socially constructed and subjective interpretations (Carson et al., 2001; Hudson & Ozanne, 1988). The central assumption of interpretivist research is that social actors generate meaningful constructs of the social world in which they
operate. Hence, the interpretivist research aims to understand and interpret human behavior including how they think and feel, and how they act/re-act in their contexts. This study is conceptualized within interpretivism since I examine, understand, and interpret the instructional practice of Indonesian teachers through their pedagogic habitus and to what extent those habitus are capable of change following engagement in self-evaluation as a mediational activity. In addition, I use Vygotsky’s sociocultural and Bourdieu’s sociological theories, which are compatible for interpretivism. The next subsection of this chapter discusses the research approach used in this study.

3.2.3 Approach

The research approach in this study includes qualitative case study design elements because this design is ideal for understanding and interpreting observations of educational phenomena (Merriam, 1998). This study also explores the phenomena of teachers’ habitus in education. Case study is defined as “an empirical study that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (Yin, 2009, p. 18). Accordingly, an in-depth analysis of teachers’ habitus is conducted. A case study design is interpretive, naturalistic and personalistic because the researcher explores phenomena directly from human experience. Teachers’ habitus including the teachers’ experiences and history is the focus of this study. As stated by Merriam (1998, p. 1), “research focused on discovery, insight, and understanding from the perspectives of those being studied offers the greatest promise of making significant contributions to the knowledge base and practice of education”. Hence, this study employs a qualitative case study approach, that is, a case study of Indonesian teachers trying to improve their instructional practice through self-evaluation.

Case study methodology relates to the situatedness of context (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Gillham, 2000; Stake, 2010; Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2009). Stake (2010, p. 3) points out that a qualitative case study is developed to study the experience of real cases operating in real situations. Similarly, when discussing research methods, Gillham (2000, p. 1) explains, “a case study is one that examines a unit of human activity embedded in the real world, that can only be studied or understood in contexts to answer specific research questions”. Teachers’ habitus can only be understood in the context of the institutional and socio-political settings. According to Cassell and Symon (2004), “case studies are useful where it is important to understand how the
organisational and environmental context is having an impact on or influencing social processes” (p. 325). This study shows how the instructional practices of Indonesian college teachers are influenced by the implementation of teacher self-evaluation as a mediational activity.

This study, in fact, comprises a holistic multiple-case design (Yin, 2009). That is, a separate case study is conducted on the one phenomenon involving three teachers employed at the same university. In a multiple-case design, each case must be selected carefully in order to (a) predict similar results or (b) predict contrasting results but for predictable reasons (Yin, 2009). Option (b) is used in this study because the aim is to compare individual differences among three single cases. Therefore, the results from each case, including the teacher’s developing habitus, are compared to highlight the differences. In addition, each single case in this study is explored and understood in depth to learn about its “self-centring, complexity, and situational uniqueness” (Stake, 2006, pp. 6-7).

3.2.4 Strategies

This subsection introduces the instruments used in this study and the rationale for their use. When conducting a case study, Yin (2009) suggests using multiple sources of evidence such as documents, archival records, interview, direct observation, participant observation, and physical artefacts to increase its quality substantially. Accordingly, in this study different instrument types were used for data collection to facilitate the acquisition of reliable data to best answer the research questions and to increase the quality of the study. The instruments chosen for data collection in this study were interviews, direct field observations/lesson video recordings, and documentation. Each of these is discussed below.

3.2.4.1 Interview

Interviews are a popular method for data collection in qualitative research. Conducting an interview is an excellent way to uncover the interviewee’s subjective perceptions of the world (Weber, 2004). Cassell and Symon (2004) assert, “interview remains the most common method of data gathering in qualitative research, employed in various forms by every main theoretical and methodological approach within qualitative [research]…” (p.11). Similarly, Yin (2009) considers interviews to be one of the most important sources of case study information. Thus, in this study, interview was an
important instrument for collecting evidence. Kvale (1996, p. 6) defines interview as “a conversation that has a structure and a purpose. It goes beyond the spontaneous exchange of views as in everyday conversation, and becomes a careful questioning and listening approach with the purpose of obtaining thoroughly tested knowledge”. With that definition in mind, both semi-structured, around a set of guiding questions, and unstructured interviews were conducted.

Semi-structured interview uses both close-ended and open-ended questions to obtain information. This type of interview has its own advantages and disadvantages. The advantages of semi-structured interview are the participants have the opportunity to describe what is important to them without being restricted to predetermined response categories, the credibility is high, and interesting and unexpected ideas or themes raised by participants can be explored (Morgan & Symon, 2004, p. 130). Barribal and While (1994, p. 330) point out that semi-structured interviews “are well suited for the exploration of the perceptions and opinions of respondents regarding complex and sometimes sensitive issues and enable probing for more information and clarification of answers”. Hence, in this study, during the interview process, the participants were probed and encouraged to expand upon specific issues they deemed to be significant to explore them in greater depth. The disadvantages of semi-structured interview are it is time consuming and the data are more complex for analysis and interpretation (Klenke, 2008, p. 130).

Semi-structured interviews were conducted on two different occasions: (1) prior to the participants engaging in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities. The aim of this interview was to explore the participants’ family and education backgrounds and their beliefs about teaching and learning in order to understand their capital; (2) following the participants’ engagement in the series of teacher self-evaluation activities. The aim of this interview was to obtain from the participants comments, ideas, and feedback on the implementation of the teacher self-evaluation activity and to ascertain their reflections relating to the changes they may make to their teaching. All nine research participants were interviewed twice; whereas the three case study teachers were interviewed three times: once prior to the self-evaluation activities and twice following the activities. A sample of the questions used to guide the interview is presented as Appendix G and H and a sample interview transcription is presented as Appendix L.
After interviewing the case study teachers, a short semi-structured interview was conducted with the English department head and other managers, 17 English lecturers, and 25 students. They were regarded as community members of the research setting. Therefore, their opinions and perspectives of the research setting and the teaching practices would subsequently provide valuable insight into the field. The interview was semi-structured and lasted 15 to 30 minutes. Appendices I, J and K present the interview guides for these sessions.

Unstructured interview was also conducted in this study to seek the needed information from the participants. In unstructured interview, the questions depend on the situation and are not pre-set. On the one hand, unstructured interviews enable the interviewer to explore more complex issues, clarify the answers, and create a more relaxed research atmosphere that contributes to the elicitation of more in-depth as well as sensitive information (Morgan & Symon, 2004, p. 126). On the other hand, unstructured interview may lead to interviewer bias and ask closed questions, time-consuming and cannot be used for a large number of people, and the outcome is a less systematic and comprehensive set of data which may make the organization and analysis of the data difficult (Tuckman, 1995, p. 349).

An unstructured interview method was employed to interrogate teachers’ instructional practices as revealed in the video recording of their lesson. Fontana and Frey (1994, p. 366) explain that unstructured interviews seek to “understand the complex behaviour of members of society without imposing any priori categorisation that may limit the field of inquiry”. Accordingly, after analysing the video recordings of the lessons to examine the teachers’ pedagogic habitus and explore the possibility of changes in their pedagogic disposition, aspects of the lessons were used as discussion points during the unstructured interviews. In addition, several follow-up interviews were conducted with the case study teachers (either by email or over the telephone) to clarify points of discussion as required.

Although the research participants were English college teachers, all interviews were conducted in Indonesian as this was the interviewees’ first language and it would assist them to express their ideas and feelings more fluently. Furthermore, all interviews were audio-taped with the permission of the participants to ensure accuracy and to avoid loss of data when transcribing the interview responses. In addition, participants were informed that all data were to remain confidential between them and the researcher. The next subsection describes the observation data collection method employed in this study.
3.2.4.2 Classroom observations/lesson video recordings

Observation is the most direct way of obtaining data. Gillham (2000, p. 46) states that observation “is not what people have written on the topic. It is not what they say they do. It is what they actually do”. Therefore, the primary goal of observation in a case study is to bring the researcher toward a fuller, richer understanding of the case in question (Stake, 2006). Furthermore, Merriam (1998, p. 89) supports that “observation is the best technique to use when an activity, event, or situation can be observed firsthand, when a fresh perspective is desired, or when participants are not able or willing to discuss the topic under study.” In other words, observations clarify what the participants say in the interviews and facilitate the researcher to obtain a broader perspective of the topic under study.

Bell (1999) suggests that researchers should decide what they are going to observe. Specifically, Merriam (1988, p. 89) explains that the most important factor determining what is to be observed relates in the first place to the purpose of the study; that is, the conceptual framework, the problem, or questions of interest. Observations in this study were focused on the teaching actions of the three case study teachers including the methods they used, the way they talked to or interact with the students, how they managed the class, and how they managed themselves as teachers. These elements were selected for observation because they reveal the teacher’s habitus. Indeed, habitus is embodied and enacted in practice manifested from an individual’s physical conduct, competence and stance, as well as ways of speaking, vocabulary and accent (Thomson & Holdsworth, 2003). Two observations were conducted for each participant in this study: (1) classroom observation and (2) observation of the video recorded lesson (which are also watched by the participants). Classroom observations were performed on three separate occasions for each participant: before, during, and after their engagement in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities. In addition, the observations of the video recorded lessons before and after the participants engaged in the self-evaluation activity were performed several times. These observations were conducted to have a better understanding of what is happening in the context under study to help answer the research questions. Sample lesson observation notes are
presented in Appendix N. The use of documentation as an instrument for data collection in this study is discussed in the next subsection.

3.2.4.3 Documentation

In addition to conducting interviews and observations, documents were used as complementary evidence. Merriam (1991, p. 118) justifies this practice in the assertion that “documents of all types can help the researcher uncover meaning, develop understanding, and discover insights relevant to the research problem”. Similarly, Yin (2009) considers that the main use of documents in case studies is to corroborate and augment evidence from other sources. Documents were collected related to each teacher’s instructional practices such as lesson plans, completed student feedback, completed teacher self-reflection questions, and teaching materials. Additionally, documents were collected related to the Indonesian higher education sector in general (e.g., various published articles sourced from the internet) and KUM in particular (e.g., university regulations, policies, reports, and plans, as well as published articles about the university). Furthermore, documents were also collected related to the KUM English Department, such as its policies, curriculum, and administration management protocols. All documents were obtained to assist with the description of field presented in Chapter 4. The data analysis of this study is further discussed in the next subsection.

3.2.5 Analysis

Qualitative research has a tendency to be more inductive than deductive where emergent themes are identified directly from the participants’ data. Yin (2009, p. 126) mentions that “data analysis consists of examining, categorising, tabulating, testing, or otherwise recombining evidence, to draw empirically based conclusions”. However, analysis of case study evidence is not straightforward. Yin (2009, p. 128) suggests:

You might start with questions (e.g., the questions in your case study protocol) rather than with the data. Start with a small question first, and then identify your evidence that addresses the question. Draw a tentative conclusion based on the weight of evidence, also asking how you should display the evidence so that readers can check your assessment. Continue to larger questions and repeat the procedure. Keep going until you think you have addressed your main research question(s).
In relation to the above statement, the analysis of data in this study was conducted according to an eight-step process as illustrated in Chart 1 below:

![Chart 1: Data analysis process for each case study](image)

The above chart is not as “linear” as it seems and involves a lot of moving back and forth between steps. The first step in analysing the data was to transcribe all interviews responses (from both the semi-structured and unstructured interviews). Transcription is considered as a translation, both from spoken to written language, and from living and personal conversation to a “frozen” text which is to be read analytically (Kvale, 1996, p. 165). Oliver, Serovich and Mason (2005) mentioned that there are two dominant mode of transcriptions: naturalized, in which utterances are transcribed in as much detail as possible and denaturalized transcription, in which idiosyncratic elements of speech are removed. In this study, a denaturalized mode was used since I concern more with the substance of the interview, that is, the meanings and perceptions created and shared during the interviews. In addition, the entire interviews in this study are transcribed since “preselecting parts of the tapes to transcribe and omitting others tends to lead to premature judgments about what is important and what is not” (Seidman, 2006, p. 115). As the transcription process is time consuming, a transcriber was hired.
for this task. The research participants were invited to check the interview transcriptions to clarify meanings.

Because the interviews were conducted in Indonesian, they were all translated into English and subsequently transcribed. In this study, the researcher acts as the translator of the transcriptions so that there is an opportunity to check the validity of interpretations and for “close attention to cross cultural meanings and interpretations and potentially brings the researchers up close to the problems of meaning equivalence within the research process” (Ferguson & Ladd, 1996, p. 168). In addition, an Indonesian PhD student majoring in EFL education assisted to check the English translation.

The data analysis process then commenced with reference to the two research questions: (1) what is the nature of Indonesian English language teachers’ pedagogic habitus (dispositions and beliefs)? and (2) to what extent are Indonesian English language teachers’ pedagogic habitus’ capable of change as a result of engagement in mediated teacher self-evaluation? The initial focus of the analysis was therefore on examining the pedagogic habitus of each case study teacher. To do this, the analysis moved to the third step: identifying evidence that addresses the question. Each case study teacher’s video recorded lesson taken before he/she engaged in the teacher self-evaluation activities was analysed. During the process of identifying the teacher’s pedagogic habitus reference was made to Bourdieu’s theory of habitus (see step four in Chart 4). Having in mind the formula [(habitus) (capital)] + field = practice enabled consideration to be given to the case study teachers’ practices from the perspective of their habitus and their capital developed in the field. Other aspects of Bourdieu’s notion of habitus were also considered throughout the data analysis process.

The fifth step of the data analysis process was to draw tentative conclusions. Following the examination of each teacher’s video recorded lessons tentative conclusions were formed on his/her pedagogic habitus. The next step was to confirm or refute the validity of the tentative conclusions through reference to other evidence sources including interview transcripts and field notes. The interview transcriptions and field notes were read and reread to identify any evidence to substantiate the initial tentative conclusions drawn. Following the review of all data (lesson video recordings, interviews, and field notes), a final conclusion was formulated.

The last step in analysing the data was to repeat steps two to six. This was performed to answer the second research question: To what extent are teachers’
pedagogic habitus capable of changing through self-evaluation as a mediational activity? Thus, the focus of the analysis shifted towards the identification of any changes to teaching practices – and possibly to habitus – made by the teachers following their engagement in the self-evaluation activities. The video recordings of the lessons made after the self-evaluation activities were therefore the primary data sources for analysis. Again, reference was made to Bourdieu’s notion of habitus as well as to Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory during this process. Particular focus was given to the ways in which the series of teacher self-evaluations may have become a mediational activity, which provided teachers with the scaffolding to affect their zone of proximal development and to improve their professional practice.

Following the completion of these steps of analysis, a cross-case analysis was initiated to identify similarities and differences. The comparative case analyses explored the possible factors accounting for differences in pedagogic habitus among the teachers and any changes to pedagogic habitus that may have emerged in similar contexts. In addition, the analysis also considered the issue of support for teacher professional development.

3.3 Research procedures

This section focuses on the research procedures. It begins by describing the participants in the study and the recruitment process. This is followed by a presentation of data collection procedures in this study, which are divided into two main parts: (1) the entire data collection process; and (2) the series of teacher self-evaluation activities.

3.3.1 Sampling

This subsection introduces the study sample, the principles of case selection, and the procedures followed for selecting case study teachers.

3.3.1.1 Information about participants

Ten English language teachers from Kanjuruhan University of Malang (KUM), East Java, Indonesia were invited to take part in this study as research participants. The reason for a study sample of this size was to allow for a balance to be achieved between the breadth and depth of the research data collected, as well as for pragmatic considerations of proper data manageability. Teacher selection was based on the determination to meet four criteria: gender balance (5 male and 5 female teachers);
diversity of teaching experiences (5 teachers were junior staff members with 2 to 5 years of teaching experience and 5 teachers were senior teachers with 6 or more years of teaching experience); teacher willingness to participate in the study; and English college teachers at KUM (the research setting of this study and the researcher’s place of employment). During the process of data collection, one teacher withdrew his consent. Nine English language teachers were subsequently recruited as research participants. Table 3 summarises the key details pertaining to the participants in this study:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant (Pseudonym)</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Number of years teaching English</th>
<th>Number of hours teaching English per week</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hani</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sandi</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ira</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andi</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selia</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arifin</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maya</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joko</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nuri</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 3: Research participants - key details*

From the details presented in the above table, it is evident that the participants varied in terms of their weekly teaching duties. Moreover, some teachers also taught at another university in addition to KUM. Furthermore, the junior teacher participants had two to four years of experience in teaching English; whereas the senior teacher participants had between 10 to 25 years of experience in teaching English. After the initial interviews, most of the participants were deemed likely cooperated in further data collection. From these, only three were selected to be the case study teachers. According to Brown (2008), “the richness of case studies is related to the amount of detail and contextualization that is possible when only one or a small number of focal cases and issues are analyzed” (p. 30). Therefore, I decided to learn from three teachers, in a
comparative logic, and did not use the data concerning the other six teachers to yield a detailed description and breadth and depth findings. The steps taken when selecting the three case study teachers are elaborated in the next subsection.

3.3.1.2 Selection principles for case study teachers

In relation to the selection of the case study teachers, reference may first be made to Yin’s (2009) insight that the selection of the candidate case(s) can be straightforward due to a) the uniqueness of the case; b) if the identity of the case has been known from the outset of inquiry, c) when the researcher has a special arrangement with or access to the participant. In other words, the selection of the case(s) is based on purposeful sampling technique, that is, the subjects are selected because of some characteristics for very specific need or purpose. Merriam (1998, p. 61) justifies the use of purposeful sampling as follows, “purposeful sampling is based on the assumption that the investigator wants to discover, understand, and gain insight and therefore must select a sample from which the most can be learned.” Accordingly, the three teachers were purposefully selected based on two considerations. First, the identity of the potential recruits was known and they were regarded as suitable cases with the most potential to generate useful research data. Reference was made to Bourdieu’s theory (1994) that habitus is structured by one’s past and present circumstances, such as family background and educational experiences. Hence, the personal histories and educational background of each case study teacher were considered.

In order to maximise the likelihood of finding differences in the pedagogical dispositions of the teachers, the teachers were then selected according to the different universities where they receive their formal education. Yin (2009) suggests that adequate access to the potential data is needed, whether it is interviewees, review documents, or field observations. Hence, the second consideration when choosing the three case study teachers related to ease of access. I was able to conduct more follow-up observations and interviews with the three case study teachers I selected. Therefore, I did not choose the more experience teachers (>20 years) because I was not able to conduct additional observations and interviews needed for the study. To avoid conflict of interest or ethical issue of personal obligation, the three case study teachers were informed of the research and asked to voluntarily consent to participate. In addition, they were informed that they had the opportunity to withdraw at any time and that their anonymity would be protected as far as possible.
Key details pertaining to the three case study teachers, all given pseudonyms in this study, selected for participation is outlined in the Table 4 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant (Pseudonym)</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Year of Teaching English</th>
<th>Education Background</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maya</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Public Universities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andi</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Private Universities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joko</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Public Universities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Selected case study participants - key information

The above table shows Maya is an English college teacher who has comparatively longer teaching experience than the other two participants. She earned her Bachelor’s degree from a prestigious public university in Malang and is now in the process of earning a Master’s degree in Education from the same university. Andi, by contrast, is a novice teacher with three years of experience in teaching English. He obtained his Bachelor and Master’s degrees from two different private universities in Malang. Joko is the oldest case study teacher, but he is nonetheless a novice teacher with four years of experience in teaching English. He completed his Bachelor and Master’s degrees at different public universities.

An overview of the case selection process implemented in this study is illustrated in Chart 2 below:
As can be seen in Chart 1, the first step in the case selection processes was contact the potential participants to gauge their willingness to participate in the study. Participants were contacted by email and by Facebook. All ten contacted teachers agreed to participate in this study. The next step was to obtain approval for the study from the UNSW Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) and Human Research Ethics Advisory (HREA). This approval was required in order to recruit, interview, and observe teachers. The process to gain approval involved contacting the Rector of KUM to obtain a letter of support given the university was the work setting of the research participants. The letter of support from the rector of KUM is included as Appendix B. When approval was obtained, the first phase of the data collection process was initiated (specific details of the data collection procedures are discussed in Subsection 3.3.2 of this chapter). The next step involved the selection of the three case study teachers and the initiation of the second round of data collection. The second data collection phase was completed three-and-a-half months after the first data collection phase.

3.3.2 Data collection process

The entire data collection process (including the first and second data collection phases) is illustrated in Chart 3 below. The step in the first data collection phase are numbered one to five and the steps in the second data collection phase are numbered six to nine.
The initial step in the first data collection phase involved conducting a meeting with the ten participants (which became nine participants at the end of this phase). The meeting was held during the first week of the study to inform the participants about the aims and procedures of this study, including the need for participants to conduct a series of teacher self-evaluation activities. The meeting was conducted at the university meeting room and it was also used to introduce the notion of self-evaluation to the participants and to answer their questions about the research. In addition, informed consent forms were discussed and signed by the research participants. Furthermore, timelines for the interviews were discussed as well as other activities (lesson video recordings, participation in collegial dialogues, and my observations of classroom practices) included as part of this study.

The second step involved conducting the first semi-structured interview with the participants. This interview had a biographical focus and aimed to gather background information on the participants’ historical life experiences (including their family, educational background, and teaching experiences), and activities to improve their professional practice. Interviews were conducted during the second week of October, 2011 and were recorded in support of Seidman’s (2006, p. 114) view that “the primary method of creating text from interviews is to tape-record the interviews and to transcribe them”.

The third step in the data collection process was the first observation of each participant’s lesson. The observations focused on the teachers’ instructional practices including the way they taught, talked to or interacted with the students, as well as the way in which they managed the class prior to their engagement in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities. Participants then engaged in these activities as the fourth step in the data collection process, which is discussed in detail in the next subsection of this chapter. The fifth step was to conduct the second interview of participants following their participation in the teacher self-evaluation activities.

The sixth step in the data collection process marked the commencement of the second phase. At this point the three case study teachers were selected from the nine participants in the study. The procedure for selecting the case teachers was outlined in Subsection 3.3.1.2. As part of step seven of the process, the three case study teachers were invited to video record their teaching practices during a lesson so that they could later reflect upon their practices in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities. I also observed the lessons and observation notes were recorded.
The eighth step in the process was to conduct unstructured interviews with the three case study teachers, in addition to semi-structured interviews with the university managers, other lecturers, and students. As noted in Section 3.2.4.1, the final interviews were conducted to primarily to obtain comments, ideas, and feedback from the participants regarding the teacher self-evaluation activities and their thoughts about making changes in their teaching practices. Furthermore, unstructured interviews were conducted with the three case study teachers, which included questionings about the observed lesson, or other matters to emerge from analyse of the video recorded lessons. The semi-structured interviews with the university managers, other English lecturers, and students were conducted to gather information about their beliefs and perspectives of teaching and learning as well as the research setting. Finally, documentary data from university managers, the head of English, and the university staff at KUM was collected as complimentary data for the interpretation of results. The next subsection describes the process involved in implementing the series of teacher self-evaluation activities in this study.

3.3.3 Teacher self-evaluation activity

This subsection describes the process undertaken to implement the self-evaluation activities in this study. A visual representation of the process is provided in Chart 4 below:

![Chart 4: The teacher self-evaluation activity implementation process](image)
As shown in the Chart 4 above, the first step in the teacher self-evaluation activity was to assist the participants to videotape their teaching practices on two separate occasions. The classes were recorded using a handycam positioned on a tripod. Following the completion of the first video recording, there was an interval of six or seven days before each participant’s teaching practices were recorded again. As discussed in Subsection 2.2.1 of Chapter 2, lesson video recordings enable teachers to notice particular aspects of their teaching practice, which cannot be recalled. However, it does not mean that by video recording the lesson, everything that happens in the class can be captured since video recording of lesson only offers a partial rather than a comprehensive view/perspective. In addition, Airasian and Gullickson (1997) claim that one of disadvantages of a video recording of lesson is that “it is only appropriate for only evaluating certain teaching competencies such as behaviours that are readily observable during classroom instruction” (p. 60).

The second step was to administer the teacher self-reflection questions to the teacher at the end of their lesson. The student feedback questionnaire was also administered to students immediately following the lesson (step three in the self-evaluation activities). A sample of the questionnaire is included as Appendix F and sample completed student feedback are presented in Appendix O. Prior to the completion of the feedback forms, the students were informed of the form’s purpose and were required to sign consent forms.

The fourth step was to invite the teachers to individually explore the content of the video recorded lesson, teacher self-reflection questions, and student feedback forms. This was a non-guided individual activity. At the conclusion of each input session, the participants received the feedback from the students and the self-reflection questions. These data sources were then combined with data from the video recorded lesson. The three sources then provided the participants with varied information pertaining to their teaching practices. This information was then to be as a significant source for identifying specific issues relating to their teaching practices.

The participants then were asked to address these issues through participation in collegial dialogues (the fifth step in the self-evaluation process), which were performed on four occasions and were recorded on tape. The participants were 10 lecturers originally chosen for the research. I organized the collegial dialogues by dividing them into two groups. I also arranged the place and time for conducting collegial dialogues and became the moderator in the discussions. The collegial dialogues lasted around 40 –
45 minutes in each meeting. A sample collegial dialogue transcription is presented in Appendix M. The final (sixth) step in the self-evaluation process included observation of the teacher’s teaching practices following his/her engagement in the self-evaluation activities. The aim of the final observation was to examine the effects of the activities on their teaching.

This subsection described the data collection processes employed in this study both from an overall perspective and, more specifically, in relation to the series of teacher self-evaluation activities. Discussion of research ethics is introduced in the next section.

3.4 Research ethics

As explained in the previous section of this chapter, this study is guided by the the epistemology of social constructionism and the theory of interpretivism. Interpretivists consider humans as active and conscious beings so that they actively make choices. Accordingly, social reality is always determined by the subject and, thus, there is no such thing as objective knowledge (Weber, 2004). This subjective construction is receptive to interpretation and meanings in human interaction. In reference to interpretivism, the finding of this study leads to adopting a position and opening for discussion. Adopting a position means that I enter the field with some sort of prior insight about the research topic by using particular theories, from particular background, and from particular theoretical bias. Opening for discussion means that this study is not the last word of this topic; I just offer findings for other researchers to take up, do something with, argue with, agree with, and disagree with. Phillips and Jorgensen (2002) points out:

Critical research should take responsibility for providing a particular scientific description of reality on the basis of a particular epistemic interest; that is, critical research should explicitly position itself and distance itself from alternative representations of reality on the grounds that it strives to do something specific for specific reasons. At the same time, critical research should make clear that the particular representation of reality it provides is just one among other possible representations, thus inviting further discussion (p. 205).

This responsibility to adopt a position, yet also to recognise the tentative nature of one’s research claims, is in itself ethical, to the extent that ethics involves decision-
making in contexts where there are no hard-and-fast rules or prescriptions to follow (Biesta & Egea-Kuehne, 2001; Cornell, Rosenfeld, & Carlson, 1992; Derrida, 1988). Further, in this study, I interact with research participants intensely in order to collaboratively construct social reality. Hence, while I am conducting this research, there is a possibility that I enter participants’ private spaces (Silverman, 2000). Clearly, this raises some ethical issues about participating in the study that should be addressed. Creswell (2003) asserts that the researcher is required to respect the rights, needs, values and desires of the participants. In addition, the researcher must inform the participants why the research is being carried out and what it hopes to achieve, and they must be assured of confidentiality (King, 2004; Morgan & Symon, 2004). Accordingly, in order to uphold the privacy, confidentiality, rights, and anonymity of the research participants, the following steps have been taken.

First, prior to commencement of this study, I obtained ethics approval from the UNSW Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) and Human Research Ethics Advisory (HREA). I also obtained a letter of support from the rector of KUM as the work setting of the participants. Further, the participants were clearly informed about the purpose, nature, data collection methods, extent of the research, their typical roles as well as the potential risks involved. In line with this, the consent forms were obtained from the participants. The participants were also informed that this study was only for academic purpose and their participation in it was voluntary so that they could withdraw from the study at any time without consequence.

Second, to maintain high confidentiality and anonymity, the participant identities were protected by the use of pseudonym and were not revealed in any published material arising from the study. In addition, hard copy of the raw data of this study was stored in a locked filing facility on the researcher’s premises and only my supervisors and I were able to access the transcriptions and video recording files.

### 3.5 Summary

This chapter justified the research methodology employed in this study including its research design (epistemology, theory, approach, strategies and analysis) and research procedures (sampling, entire data collection process, and teacher self-evaluation activity). Steps to address the ethical issues were also presented. What was established if that the three case study teachers were selected according to purposeful
sampling techniques and that interviews, classroom observations/lesson video recordings, and documentation were used as research instruments for data collection. This chapter also discussed the sequence of steps involved in the overall data collection process and, in particular, the series of teacher self-evaluation activities. Data analysis in this study was conducted through eight comprehensive steps and each step was described in detail. The discussion of methodology in this chapter builds a foundation and framework for the data analyses to be presented in the following four chapters. The institutional context (i.e. KUM) or field of social space in which the teaching practices were demonstrated is discussed in the next chapter.
4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the institutional context or field of social space for the phenomenon of teachers’ practice at Kanjuruhan University of Malang (KUM). Field can be defined as “historically constituted areas of activity with their specific institutions and their own laws of functioning” (Bourdieu, 1990, p. 87). Therefore, this chapter specifically discusses KUM with its own particular structure and policies. This chapter utilizes documentation data made available through the internet and Kanjuruhan University authorities such as the School of English Education, Quality Control Unit, and Student Administrative Service. In addition, it utilizes data obtained during interviews conducted with the Head of the School of English Education and other managers, 17 English lecturers, and 25 students of Kanjuruhan University of Malang. James and Grenfell (2004) describe education as a field constituted by all that is possible within it, as well as its numerous subfields (e.g., a classroom or the football team). Accordingly, in describing the field in this chapter, a range of subfields are also included which are explained in detail in the sub-sections of this chapter.

Fields are not hermetically sealed but relate to super-ordinate and sub-fields. Therefore, I need to explore the related aspects/levels of the field where my research participants as the players/actors do their practice, which is illustrated in Chart 5 below.
Chart 5: Field and sub-fields of education in Indonesia
The above chart indicates education as the social space of university teachers can be considered as one large “field”. The resource at stake in this large field are knowledge and credentials (Thomson & Holdsworth, 2003, p. 382). Bourdieu (1990, p. 169) points out that this large field consists of a series of interconnected smaller spaces or sub-fields. These sub-fields are the terrain of class struggle and have some degree of autonomy, but are also able to influence each other in relation to particular issues. In addition, each sub-field has its “distinctive principle of hierarchisation” (Margison, 2008). In reference to the above chart, this chapter discusses three main sub-fields including a) Indonesian higher education; b) Kanjuruhan University of Malang (KUM); and c) School of English Education at KUM. This chapter therefore comprises the following sections. First, it describes the Indonesian higher education sector including public and private higher education institutions (HEI). Second, it provides a profile of KUM and discusses the institutional policies that govern teachers’ professional practice, including teaching and learning and examination processes. Third, this chapter discusses the School of English Education at the KUM in relation to its curriculum, the nature and availability of facilities and materials, its teachers and its student.

4.2 Indonesian higher education

The education system in Indonesia is divided into three stages: primary, secondary, and higher education. Primary education for children in Indonesia takes six years to complete. The junior secondary stage of education generally involves three years of schooling followed by three years of general or vocational higher secondary education. Secondary education paves the way for higher education, which takes one up to four years to complete depending on the selected program at the institution. In Indonesia, roughly 23% of the population attends college or universities. Based on the National Education System 2003 law (Undang-undang no. 20 Tahun 2003 tentang sistem pendidikan nasional), there are five types of institutions within the Indonesian higher education system: universities, institutes, advanced schools, polytechnics, and academies. Universities comprise at least four different faculties that provide training and research in various field of study. The study length for earning an undergraduate degree is normally four years, two years for a Master’s degree, and four years for a Doctoral degree. Institutes consist of a number of faculties, which provide training and research in related fields. They offer mainly theoretical degrees and also vocational degrees in some fields of common origin (such as technological sciences). If the
institute is accredited to do so it may offer some professional degrees. Advanced schools offer training in a single cluster of disciplines such as hospitality. Polytechnic schools offer vocational degrees in various sciences and technological sciences. Academies provide professional training at the associate degree level in a single field such as public health, the military, and nursing. Academies have a shorter study length, three years on average.

As previously noted, research participants of this study teach in a private university which offers the students a Bachelor’s degree majoring in English, S.Pd. for Sarjana Pendidikan (literally translated as “Bachelor of Education”), which is a domain-specific degree. This degree attains more capital in the field, hence many students, especially women, are interested to earn it. Moreover, English is the most popular foreign language in Indonesia so that the students will be able to play in the “game” by attaining more capital, in particular, institutionalized cultural capital, because of the degree they earn.

Each HEI in Indonesia develops its own curriculum. Curriculum in higher education is defined as a set of plans, objectives, contents, and materials as well as methods used as guidelines for the implementation of learning activities, to achieve the objectives of higher education (Law on Higher Education no.12/2012). The Indonesian Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE) (2004) pointed out that HEIs must be able to develop a holistic curriculum so that the process of higher education not only emphasizes the development of knowledge but also emotional capacity and spiritual intelligence. In addition, DGHE (2004, p. 22) suggested:

In order to improve the quality of the teaching and learning process, HEIs need to creatively develop new concepts of education which are more comprehensive as well as competitive. This can be done by updating the more flexible teaching method, by placing students as subjects (student-centered learning), rather than as an object of education. The concept of education also needs to create an entrepreneurial spirit and improve soft skills and success skills, so that college graduates will have the character of high confidence, have the wisdom of the social values and cultural nation, independence and strong leadership.

As mentioned in the above statement, improving the effectiveness of instructional practice is to be accomplished by encouraging more student-centered learning and by providing more needed skills to students to support better student academic outcomes.
Hence, teachers as the knowledge providers for their students have a crucial role to play. This implies that there are new pressures/expectations on Indonesian teachers to create more student-centered instruction that will improve the quality of students’ learning. The teachers are therefore expected to continuously improve their teaching. Through the lens of Bourdieu’s sociological theory, the covering content in curriculum that encourages more student-centered learning can be seen as a game in HEIs. The player in this field must create their own curricular strategies or address each of the curriculum content objectives to create better learning opportunities for the students. The players who are able to play the game can access the most capital. The penalty for not playing the game according to the rules could be accused as being unprofessional. The next subsection of this chapter discusses the differences between public and private HEIs.

4.2.1 Public vs. private higher education institution in Indonesia

HEIs in Indonesia are categorised into two types: public and private, both of which are supervised by either the Ministry of National Education (MONE) or Ministry of Religious Affairs (MORA). According to Wicaksono and Friawan (2011, p. 163), “the public HEIs are under the jurisdiction of the State Treasury Law, Education System Law and Civil Servant Law and are treated as part of the ministry. Private HEIs are regulated under the foundation and Education System Law, and are considered the business arm of foundation”. The number of Indonesian HEIs is shown in Table 5 below, which is taken from the statistics of Ministry of Higher Education 2009/2010.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>MONE Public</th>
<th>MONE Private</th>
<th>MONE Total</th>
<th>MORA Public</th>
<th>MORA Private</th>
<th>MORA Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>412</td>
<td>460</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institute</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced School (Sekolah tinggi)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,314</td>
<td>1,316</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>441</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academy</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1,015</td>
<td>1,015</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polytechnic</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>83</strong></td>
<td><strong>2,928</strong></td>
<td><strong>3,011</strong></td>
<td><strong>52</strong></td>
<td><strong>522</strong></td>
<td><strong>574</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Indonesian higher education institutions in 2009/2010
As described in the above table, the current higher education system in Indonesia consists of 135 public and 3,450 private HEIs. Advanced schools occupy the largest number. The World Bank (2010, p. 8) stated that “although the public institutions only account for 4 percent of the total number of institutions, they account for 32 percent of the total enrolments with the remaining 68 percent enrolled in private institutions. Among public universities nearly half evolved from teacher training institutes (LPTK, FKIP)”. Hence, the process of student admission in public universities is very competitive. In addition, teacher training programs in Indonesia have attracted a number of students due to its popularity that, in turn, provides more capital for the students.

There are differences between public and private HEIs including their quality, admission process, sources of financing, and academic staff. There is a widely-held perception about the quality difference between public and private HEIs. Fahmi (2007, p. 4) pointed out that “private schools in developed countries have a high quality learning system and environment, however, the opposite conditions apply in Indonesia. The private schools in Indonesia are a second choice after public schools for Indonesia prospective students”. In addition, Buchori and Malik (2004) remarked that even though the number of private HEIs is much higher than public HEIs, most of them are of a relatively lower quality because of poor resources. Furthermore, when asked about this concern, students of KUM (pseudonym) stated:

To me, umm… studying in a public university is so exclusive because everybody knows that it’s not easy to be admitted there. It has also more teaching and learning facilities with the qualified lecturers. In contrast, private universities lack of necessary facilities so that the students cannot study effectively and maximally (Rara, Interview 1, 30/05/2012).

The system of teaching and learning in public universities is better than private ones. The students of public universities also have more motivations to learn and they get better teaching facilities so that they are more qualified. However, the rules in public universities are stricter (Budi, Interview 1, 30/05/2012).

The above statements show the students’ view that public HEIs provide better facilities to support their learning and that the public HEIs entrance system is a highly competitive process. The students who are able to study at public universities in Indonesia are considered to have more capital, and to have dominant position in the
field. As a result, a lot of students compete in the field to be able to attain educational credential through studying at a public university.

Nizam (2006, p. 42) mentioned that:

Every year, more than 450,000 high school graduates take the national public university entrance examination to compete for 75,000 seats in public universities. In addition, many public universities scout for and recruit potential students from the provinces, accounting for 10-20 percent of the total capacity. This leaves a shortfall of more than 360,000 high school graduates who can either apply to private universities or enter the job market with limited skills and formal education.

The above statement indicates that large numbers of students in Indonesia consider enrolling in HEIs because like other countries, “most Indonesians still regard education as the only viable choice for vertical mobility in economic and social status” (Nizam, 2006, p. 37). The above statement also shows that public universities are considered to have better qualities than private universities and attract a greater number of students to compete in the admission process. Studying at a private university or getting a job becomes the “second” option if the student cannot pass the entrance examination. Nizam (2006, p. 42) claimed that to be admitted into a public university “requires access to a quality high school education and extra tuition to prepare for the examination”. As a result, students from lower income families cannot afford to pay the extra tuition. In addition, Buchori and Malik (2004) mentioned that most of the students who do not pass the public university entrance examination and then choose to enroll at a private university are from low socioeconomic backgrounds. Accordingly, as the sub-field of teacher participants in this study is at a private university, it is occupied by a majority of lower-class students with low-ability. The teachers therefore have more challenges to teach in a private university. They need to provide the students with more reinforcement for accomplishment, appropriate level of the teaching materials, nonthreatening environment, and so forth.

There is also a difference in financial sources between public and private HEIs. Moeliodihardjo (2000, p. 14) stated that in the past, “public institutions receive a government subsidy and charge minimal tuition from students. Most or all staff are civil servants and have to follow the universal civil service salary structure”. However, the funding of public HEIs is now from government subsidies, student tuition fees, support from donors and charities, and collaboration with other parties, especially in the private
sector. In contrast, the main funding of private HEIs is derived from student tuition fees. Other sources are from charitable donations and collaboration with other parties. In addition, the government subsidizes private HEIs in the form of employment of academic staff (Buchori & Malik, 2004). Moeliodihardjo (2000, p. 8) claimed that “among the 2,766 private institutions, only a handful have successfully attracted an adequate number of students, whilst the majority are small and are struggling to survive”. In other words, student enrolment is a critical issue for private HEIs. Emirbayer and Williams (2005, p. 691) state that, “capitals function both as weapons and as stakes in the struggle to gain ascendance within fields”. Accordingly, private universities in Indonesia compete for attracting students. In order to fight for prime position in the field and to have the access to attain more capitals, private universities in Indonesia, including Kanjuruhan University of Malang (KUM), need to do more promotion and innovation such as creating an effective and distinct curriculum that is suitable with students’ need or offering a student exchange program to attract the student enrollment. They need to equip themselves with the brand to improve the credibility in the community since “players follow strategies to try to distinguish themselves within the field by accumulating higher level or different types of capital from their competitors” (Brosnan, 2010, p. 647).

4.2.2 Accreditation in the Indonesian higher education system

In the Indonesian context, one way of gauging the relative positioning of HEIs and how much capital they possess is through their accreditation level. Accreditation is used a means of ensuring quality control in the Indonesian higher education system. Buchori and Malik (2004) explained that in the past, accreditation was administered only for private HEIs as public HEIs were already considered as suitably qualified. The accreditation recognized the quality of private HEIs in three grading levels: disamakan (equalized), diakui (recognized), and terdaftar (registered). Disamakan is the highest level and is awarded to faculties that demonstrate good quality. This allows the HEI to administer its own final graduation examinations. In contrast, private HEIS with a diakui or terdaftar accreditation level means that “students would have to go through final examinations organized by the kopertis, the private higher education coordinating body, and conducted at a designated public university” (Buchori & Malik, 2004, p. 264).
The new accreditation system now requires both public and private HEIs to be assessed on their practice. The National Accreditation Board for Higher Education (Badan Akreditasi Nasional Perguruan Tinggi, BAN-PT) conducts accreditation in all programs every three to five years. In addition, according to the law on higher education (UU 12/2012), every individual HEI study program must be reviewed when its accreditation period ends. Assessment in the accreditation process focuses on a range of aspects: curriculum, the quality and quantity of lecturers, student welfare, the institution’s facilities and infrastructure, and the management administration (Wicaksono & Friawan, 2011). Nizam (2006) further explained that for undergraduate and diploma programs, the accreditation given ranges from A (satisfactory) to D (unsatisfactory); whereas for post-graduate programs, there are three levels: U (excellent), B (good), and T (fair). Chart 6 below, taken from BAN-PT, illustrates the accreditation levels (A,B,C) of undergraduate accredited study programs for different types of HEIs.

![Chart 6: Accreditation levels (A,B,C) of undergraduate accredited study programs for different types of HEIs in 2014](image)

The above chart indicates that the quality of HEIs is still poor because most HEIs were accredited as B and C. In addition, public HEIs are higher in A accreditation level but lower in C accreditation levels than private HEIs. Therefore, the accreditation levels of
public HEIs are considerably better than private HEIs. Public HEIs in turn can be seen to equate to possessing high levels of symbolic capital because a high accreditation level in itself confers prestige upon the HEIs. Clearly, public HEIs are able to attract the students with the highest grades. Further, because the accreditation level of HEIs is associated with quality, the level also represents a measure of cultural capital of being viewed as a ‘good’ university. The next section of this chapter introduces the setting of this study, Kanjuruhan University of Malang. It provides a general profile of the institution and the policy that governs teachers’ professional practice.

4.3 Kanjuruhan University of Malang (KUM)

The previous section discussed public and private HEIs in Indonesia emphasizing that public HEIs have higher capital (symbolic and cultural) than the private ones. This section focuses on more specific field, KUM, and is divided into two subsections: (1) general information and (2) institutional policy that governs teachers’ professional practice.

4.3.1 General information about Kanjuruhan University of Malang

Kanjuruhan University of Malang is an accredited private university located at southern Malang East Java, Indonesia. It is a new university, but it is also one of the oldest universities in Malang. Initially, its name was Teacher Education (IKIP) PGRI Malang, established in 1955. Its objective was to provide an opportunity for teachers to continue their study because at that time few teachers were supported by the government to study. Because there were a number of teachers who wanted to continue their study, IKIP PGRI then had extension courses that facilitated teachers to study without leaving their jobs. The classes were held over the weekend. However, due to political development in Indonesia in 1966, IKIP PGRI could not continue to operate for almost 10 years. On 20 May, 1975 IKIP PGRI was re-established. In 1983, IKIP PGRI obtained a diakui (recognized), accreditation level and later obtained the terdaftar (registered) level in 1990. Based on the law on higher education (UU 12/2012) that every study program must be accredited by BAN, IKIP PGRI required all study programs to have accreditation in 2000. IKIP PGRI then merged with the Advanced School of Foreign Language (STIBA) Kanjuruhan on 2 August, 2001 and adopted the new name, Kanjuruhan University. The merger was undertaken in order to provide more programs as stated in the document of World Bank (2010, p. 4).
The over 3,000 private institutions comprise a wide variety of academies, schools of Religions, colleges, institutes, and universities and cater to nearly 3 million students. Many of these institutions are quite small, offering only one or a few programs. But in recent years, some premier private universities start to emerge.

KUM which is one such ‘premier private university’ has nine faculties. Table 6 below shows the number of undergraduate students by program enrolled at Kanjuruhan University of Malang from the academic years 2010 to 2012.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Faculty of teacher training and education</th>
<th>School</th>
<th>Academic year</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Faculty of teacher training and education</td>
<td>Guidance and counseling</td>
<td></td>
<td>172</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Economic education</td>
<td></td>
<td>105</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pancasila and citizenship education</td>
<td></td>
<td>53</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Geography education</td>
<td></td>
<td>139</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mathematics education</td>
<td></td>
<td>254</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Physic education</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Indonesian language and Literature education</td>
<td></td>
<td>175</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English education</td>
<td></td>
<td>536</td>
<td>379</td>
<td>389</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kindergarten Teacher education</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary School Teacher education,</td>
<td></td>
<td>163</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty of letters</td>
<td>English literature</td>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Japanese literature</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty of informatics and engineering</td>
<td>Engineering informatics</td>
<td></td>
<td>84</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Information management</td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6: Numbers of students enrolled at KUM for academic year 2010-2011
(Source: document of student administrative services of KUM)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Faculty of economics</th>
<th>Information systems</th>
<th>Management</th>
<th>Accounting</th>
<th>Law</th>
<th>Poultry</th>
<th>Social Science education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>120</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>90</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>111</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>387</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>2,163</strong></td>
<td><strong>2,074</strong></td>
<td><strong>2,422</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows that the school of Social Science education increased its student enrolments significantly in 2011 and 2012. However, the number of student enrolments at the school of Economic education fell considerably in 2011. The table also shows that the school of English education has the most students and that the school of Information Management has the least amount of students. It indicates that school of English Education attains the most capital (symbolic and cultural capitals) among other schools at KUM which strengthens its position in the field that, in turn, yields greater advantages within the field. Since student enrolment is a critical issue for private universities in Indonesia, School of English Education therefore need to always provide and improve the service for the students to preserve its capital in order to be able to compete in the field.

The chart below describes the organizational and leadership structure at KUM.
Chart 7: The structure of leadership at KUM

Chart 5 above indicates that like other universities in Indonesia, KUM is led by a rector. The rector has four assistants that have different responsibilities. The first rector assistant works in the academic division; the second rector assistant works in finance and personnel, the third rector assistant deals with student matters, and the fourth rector assistant works in the division of cooperation and communication equipment. Each faculty at KUM is governed by a Dean and some assistants who report to the rector. The Dean’s responsibility is to coordinate the academic activities in the faculty. Generally, the organizational structure in each faculty at KUM consists of: Dean and assistant, Head of School and Secretary, Head of Laboratory, lecturers, staff, and other supporting units. The Dean and assistant, Head of School and Secretary, and Head of Laboratory are appointed by the rector and their tenure lasts for four years. However, they may be reappointed if they are still eligible. The Head of School is also a lecturer in that school and he/she is required to report to the Dean.

The motto of “brilliant bright future” at KUM appears as the aspiration to attain more capital. The motto means that KUM aims to provide the students with relevant knowledge to address the challenges in their workplace to secure a better future. As
stated by Purwo (pseudonym), one of university managers of KUM, “this motto means KUM prepares and creates brilliant students who will have bright future”. The total number of permanent teaching staff at KUM is 290 teachers, most of whom have a Master’s degree. There is also a large number of part-time academic staff that teaches at KUM. However, KUM still needs more competent teaching staff to accommodate the needs of the large number of students enrolled at the university. As stated by Purwo (Interview 1, 02/06/2012).

KUM is developing now and has more students than previous years so that it really needs more teaching staff. Most of teaching staff at KUM have a lot of classes to teach and it has an impact on the quality of their teaching. Moreover, I think I’m not really happy with teachers’ competency at KUM because most of them still have master degree with low academic position (jabatan academic) as well. There are only a small number of teachers who have doctoral degree with professor position. As a result, the building capacity of teachers at KUM becomes the main target. Improving teachers’ quality is a must because they are the agent of change.

The above statements indicate that KUM should be concerned about improving the number and quality of its teachers. KUM needs to hire a number of new teachers and support teachers to continue their study and to improve their professionalism. If KUM had sufficient teaching staff, teachers would not need to endure such full teaching schedules and they would be able to pay more attention the effectiveness of their teaching.

As mentioned in the previous section of this chapter, private universities in Indonesia compete to attract the students to enroll. KUM attempts to position itself strategically within the field through a number of strategies. First, KUM offers cheaper tuition fees to the students compared to other private universities in Malang. Purwo (2012) explained; “the students don’t need to pay too expensive for their tuition fee if they enroll at KUM and they can get enough learning facilities here. Besides, KUM has an education study program that has been established long time ago compared to other private universities”. Therefore, cheaper tuition fees are a significant reason why many students decide to study at KUM after they failed to be admitted at a state university. Rio (Interview 1, 30/05/2012) explained:
I decided to study at Kanjuruhan University of Malang because I couldn’t pass my entrance test at state university and also because I know that I don’t need to pay huge money for my tuition fee if I study at KUM. I know this after I compare the tuition fee from other private universities in Malang.

In addition, Atik (Interview 1, 30/05/2012) presented a similar view:

After I knew that I couldn’t be admitted at state universities, I decided to study at one of private universities in Malang. When I read the brochure of Kanjuruhan university of Malang, I could get the information that KUM offered cheap tuition fee. That encouraged me to enroll there. Moreover, KUM is really close to my house.

Second, KUM creates an image as a multicultural university because its students come from a range of cultural backgrounds and ethnic groups such as Javanese, Madurese, Banjarese, Sasak, Batak, Balinese, and Ambonese. In addition, a range of different religions are represented through the student body at the university such as Islam, Christian, Buddhism, and Hindu. Furthermore, KUM provides multicultural subject, to students in all faculties. In the Multicultural subject, the students are taught about how to think and act in the society with varied cultures and ethnics in order to uphold unity in diversity. As one of the university’s managers, Purwo (Interview 1, 01/06/2012) stated, “a special distinction of KUM is its multiculturalism that attracts the society from various ethnic groups, races, and religions”. KUM also provides an art organization for the students to accommodate and develop their interests and talents in the arts. In addition, KUM provides a wide array of opportunities for the students to get involved in cultural activities. For example, students perform their cultural dance in the national ceremony:

What I love from Kanjuruhan University is because of its multiculturalism. The students are from many cultures and they can express their art talent here. I can learn other cultures. I think this is the reason why Kanjuruhan University has attracted many students including me (Reni, Interview 1, 30/05/2012).

Mada (Interview 1, 30/05/2012) all expressed an appreciation for the multiculturalism at the university:
One of the good things I can see from Kanjuruhan University of Malang is because it is a multicultural university. Its student comes from various ethnic groups with different language, culture, art, etc. Studying at KUM provides a good chance for me to know different cultures in Indonesia.

As expressed in the above statements, multiculturalism has attracted many students to KUM because only a few universities in Indonesia have this characteristic. Most of universities in Indonesia are dominated by students from Java Island and around the area. However, the students of KUM are mostly from East Nusa Tenggara, Kalimantan, Maluku, and Papua.

The third strategy conducted by KUM to enhance its capital is by providing various organizations for the students to support their creative and fitness needs such as sports groups, art clubs, and activities for nature lovers, religious groups, and social events. Fourth, KUM improves its facilities to support the teaching and learning process. New buildings are currently under construction which will provide more office space and lecture rooms, a modern library equipped with computerized systems, and greater support for students to pursue master and doctoral programs. In addition, KUM is establishing collaborative working relationships with various social sectors such as industry, banking, and hospitality, as well as government agencies. In addition, KUM provides a number of facilities for teachers and students to engage in rest and recreation such as campus Wi-Fi; a variety of laboratories; badminton, volleyball, and basketball courts; and a mosque. One major change at KUM is that all classrooms are now equipped with LCD televisions to create more effective teaching and learning processes.

The strategies mentioned above have been effective in attracting the students since enrollments in KUM are increasing every year. This suggests KUM is able to “play the game” with other private universities. Although the majority of the students in KUM are from lower-class family and have low-ability, KUM has the potential to improve its quality by always increasing its capital. The information about institutional policy that governs teachers’ professional practice is described in the next section of this chapter.

4.3.2 Institutional policy governing teachers’ professional practice

As through the lens of Bourdieu’s sociological theory, social fields is similar to a game which are “constructed with specific structures and rules” (Nolan, 2012, p. 204),
KUM has created and implemented specific policies to govern teachers’ professional practice. This section therefore focuses on the policies that govern teachers’ instructional practice. Within the following discussion, descriptions of teaching and learning process will be provided along with the assessment procedures.

4.3.2.1 Teaching and learning process

The hours for the teaching and learning activities in KUM are listed in the Table 7 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching period</th>
<th>Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>07.00 – 07.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>07.50 – 08.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>08.40 – 09.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>09.30 – 10.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>10.20 – 11.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>11.10 – 12.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>12.00 – 12.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>12.50 – 13.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>13.40 – 14.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>14.30 – 15.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>15.20 – 16.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>16.10 – 17.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>17.00 – 17.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>18.40 – 19.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>19.30 – 20.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>20.20 – 21.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 7: Lecture hours at KUM*
(Source: document of quality control unit of KUM)

The above table shows the lecture hours for each day consists of 16 hours of lectures, each lasting for 50 minutes. The two-credit course takes 100 minutes in one meeting. A four-credit course that takes 200 minutes is usually conducted twice a week. A teacher at KUM is usually required to teach around 20-24 credits per week. The above table indicates that like other universities in Indonesia, study demand at KUM is significant. The students need to study around 20 hours per week. As a result, the schedule of teaching and learning is overcrowded and more classrooms and teachers are constantly needed.
The teaching and learning activities at KUM are illustrated in Chart 6 below:

![Chart 8: Procedure for conducting teaching and learning activity](image)

As shown in the above chart, the teaching and learning process at KUM is delivered through a series of steps. The teaching journal mentioned in the above chart refers to teaching record consisting of date, activity, and teaching materials used in each class session. A series of steps above indicate that teachers at KUM are already familiar with following routine for conducting teaching and learning activity. As such, they did not mind participating in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities in my research that required them to do various steps, including recording their lessons, completing teacher self-reflection questions, asking student feedback, and joining in collegial dialogues,
that were conducted several times. The next section of this chapter discusses the procedures for conducting examination.

4.3.2.2 Examination

The two main examinations administered by teachers are the mid-term and final tests. Therefore, all teachers usually coordinate to conduct the mid-term and final test during the same week. In addition to the two tests, teachers are allowed to administer other tests or quizzes on their own. Before conducting the mid-term or final test the teachers should check the attendance records of the students. Students must attend at least 75% of the lectures in order to participate in the mid-term or final test. If they have attended less than 75% then they are given additional duties as a condition for participating in the mid-term or final test. The procedure for conducting the mid-term or final test is shown in Chart 9 below:

![Chart 9: Procedure for conducting mid-term/final test
(Source: document of quality control unit of KUM)](chart9)

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The above chart indicates that mid-term or final test examination is conducted through a series of steps. In other words, to continue engaging in the game, KUM teachers, as the actors in the field, should follow the rules/policies made by KUM leaders. If the teachers are able to follow the rules, they might attain forms of cultural capital that enable them to perform well as the KUM teachers as Nolan (2012, p. 204) mentions that, “the relative smoothness of the game/field often depends upon the players blindly accepting and following these rules, regardless of how arbitrary they might seem.” As a teacher continues to engage in the game, he/she willingly follows the rules so that he/she will be able to feel the game (Bourdieu, 1990). The next section of this chapter describes the School of English Education that acts many of the rules teachers are required to follow. This is the school that has the largest enrolment of students at KUM.

**4.4 School of English Education of Kanjuruhan University of Malang**

This section provides details of the School of English Education, one of 10 schools for teacher training and education at KUM. The School of English Education at KUM was established to provide the students with the opportunity to learn to be competent English teachers. This section is divided into four subsections: curriculum, facilities, lecturer, and students.

**4.4.1 Curriculum**

The curriculum at the School of English Education is designed to provide the students with the opportunity to engage with relevant and meaningful learning material. The nature of the material is such that it develops the necessary hard and soft skills in the students that can be applied in various situations. In addition, the curriculum at the School of English Education is expected to produce students with academic, pedagogical, social and personality competencies Accreditation Borang of the School of English Education (2011). Moreover, it provides a range of compulsory and elective courses to the students. The compulsory courses consist of English skills courses that include grammar, speaking, writing, reading, and listening. Other options include the various content courses such as Teaching and Learning Strategy, Instructional Media, Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), Language Testing, and Curriculum and Material development. The elective courses are worth two credits and include Introduction to Educational Research, Discourse Analysis, English Semantics,
Pragmatics, Bilingualism, English for Tourism and others. The students of the English education program commonly take a total of 24 credits every semester and are required to complete 146 credits from both the compulsory and elective courses to graduate as described in Table 8 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course type</th>
<th>Credit</th>
<th>Note</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compulsory courses</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>Students must take all compulsory courses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elective courses</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Students can take a minimum of 6 elective courses from the 14 courses on offer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>146</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 8: Course credit that must be taken by the English students (Source: the accreditation Borang of School of English Education, 2011)*

As shown in the above table, the total number of credit points required to graduate is 146. The 134 credits from compulsory courses include Kuliah Kerja Nyata (field work), teaching practice, and thesis writing. Kuliah Kerja Nyata (field work) is a form of community service by students which is completed over one month. In this fieldwork, the students in their final years are required and given the opportunity to apply the knowledge and skills they learnt to assist community (especially in a particular village). This fieldwork is worth four credit points and the students are required to do fieldwork when they are in their seventh semester. Following the completion of their fieldwork, the students are required to complete their teaching practice. This course is worth five credit points and is undertaken at various schools around Malang. At this time, the students are also required to start to write their thesis, which is worth six credit points. This implies that the more credit given to a course, the more capital the course has. Accordingly, the school carefully considers which courses need to have more credit and which courses have less credit. These courses will determine the knowledge the students acquire from their study at the School of English Education that, in turn, influence student skill.

The curriculum at the School of English Education is reviewed every four years by the head of the school and the first rector assistant. The final curriculum is approved
by the rector. Minor changes such as developments to the teaching materials, syllabus components, and the teaching model are completed every semester. When asked about the current curriculum, Fina (Interview 1, 02/06/2012), the Head of School of English Education, stated:

Generally, the curriculum of School of English Education is already good enough but still we need to make some changes. There are some compulsory courses from university that I think have the same content as courses from English education program such as multicultural course with cross cultural understanding (CCU), English with some English skill courses, counseling with development of learners course. Moreover, English education programs need to add more credits for grammar course because of the low competence of student inputs. They lack of grammar ability especially if we check their thesis writing. It’s just frustrating.

Clearly, to create a more effective curriculum, the School of English education needs to review and make some changes in its curriculum. There are courses that need to be replaced by other courses due to their similarities and developed in response to the students’ need to gain access more English skills courses. As mentioned previously in this chapter, an effective and distinct curriculum that accommodates student need enables KUM to attain more symbolic capital by attracting greater student enrollments. Further, some English teachers at KUM also state similar comments as Fina’s opinion above. For example, Angga (Interview 1, 03/06/2012) stated:

School of English Education of KUM needs to make some changes on the offered courses. They need to replace some courses that have similar contents and add more credits to English skill courses such as speaking, grammar, and pronunciation practice because the students are in English major. Pronunciation practice, for example, is only given once. It should be given more than once so there will be pronunciation practice 1 and 2.

Similarly, Nia (Interview 1, 03/06/2012) explained:

I think there are too many elective courses that are not needed by English students such as English for tourism, English for hotels, and business correspondence. The curriculum should be relevant to English education. Moreover, there are some courses that are similar. For example, English correspondence and business for office. Why don’t they just become one
course? Next, the credit of English skill courses need to be added since I still find English skill courses with only have two credits. They all should be four credits.

The above statements emphasize that the School of English Education needs to review its curriculum to create more comprehensive courses for the English students to facilitate their skills development towards becoming qualified English teachers.

The Head of the School, with the help of the secretary, arranges the teaching schedule. However, some teachers often complain that the courses they have to teach are frequently changed and this does not allow the teachers to specialize in teaching a particular subject. This view is expressed by Toni (Interview 1, 03/06/2012) in the following statement:

I love teaching the writing course. I taught writing for two semesters and already had a collection of various teaching materials to teach writing. I’m not happy when I know that this semester I have to teach content course, linguistics since I don’t have any experience to teach linguistics before. I need to have an extra time to learn it more then.

A similar complaint was made by Ida (Interview 1, 03/06/2012):

What I want from the school is to give me the same course to teach every semester. I used to teach reading course but then now I have to teach writing course. I know it’s still skill English course but I already have a lot of materials for teaching reading and keeps searching new methods in teaching reading. It’s much better if the school requires me to teach reading again this semester.

The above statements indicate that the teachers of the School of English Education are not empowered or respected as professionals who can contribute to curriculum. Since teachers are the ones who must implement the curriculum in their classrooms, they are the ones who know well what the curriculum should look like. As such, they should play an integral in creating the curriculum. If teachers are given the opportunity to provide input, they will have more ownership of the curriculum and gain more confidence in implementing it since the curriculum is shaped from their concerns for their students’ needs. Furthermore, referring to the above comments, if the School of English Education consider providing its teachers with the opportunity to specialize in
the teaching of certain subjects by giving them the same subject to teach every semester, the teachers will have more opportunities to provide better quality teaching. This, in turn, opens more possibilities for KUM to attain more cultural capitals that empower KUM to compete with other private universities to increase the student enrollment. The next section of this chapter focuses on the nature and availability of the facilities and materials in the School of English Education.

4.4.2 The nature and availability of facilities and materials

As explained in the previous section of this chapter, the School of English Education at KUM attains more capital because of the number of students who enroll in the school. This section focuses on a number of important issues related to the nature and availability of the facilities and materials at the school that influence the effectiveness of teacher’s practice. In order to maintain and increase its capital, the School of English Education therefore will need to address the issues. The types of facilities available at the School of English Education include classrooms, a micro teaching laboratory, student organization rooms, a language laboratory, and an English Access Centre. However, the school does not provide a separate room for teachers. Teachers are only able to use shared rooms with the teachers from the other faculties at KUM. As a result, teacher productivity is adversely impacted as the following comment from Nia (Interview 1, 03/06/2012), one of the English teachers, indicates:

The crucial facility I need is a special room for English teachers. I don’t feel convenient to use the shared room because it’s too crowded. For example, when I wanted to do some marking, some teachers came and greeted me. As a result, I couldn’t work effectively. Moreover, if there are some students who want to consult about their thesis with me, I don’t feel free to talk with them. It’s like I don’t have any privacy.

The above statement indicates that the School of English Education of KUM should provide an office for English teachers as it is necessary for them to improve their productivity and professionalism. This following section provides a detailed discussion of two of the facilities available to teachers: the classroom and the language laboratory.
4.4.2.1 Classroom

A lack of classrooms at KUM is acknowledged by Purwo (Interview 1, 02/06/2012), a university manager at KUM: “KUM lacks of classrooms and offices. The quality of its library also needs to be improved.” In this regard, the School of English Education is impacted by the university-wide lack of classrooms. Although the School of English Education has the most students of all of the schools at KUM, only 11 classrooms are available for use. As a result, the teaching schedule as arranged by the Head of the School includes day and night classes up to 40 to 50 students. This significantly influences the effectiveness of the teachers’ instructional practice as indicated in the following statements from three of the teachers at the School of English Education:

I’m not happy to have night schedule to teach. Night class is not effective at all because the students already feel tired since they have the class started in the morning. No matter how hard I try to create more interesting teaching, the students seem unmotivated. I found difficulties to change the schedule because there were not many classrooms available for school of English education (Dila, Interview 1, 02/06/2012).

Well you know, the number of the student in one class is too many since English class is ideally only for 25 students. Learning language is not science but a habit, so if there are too many students in the class, the chance to practice the language is less effective. The students who have the chance to practice English more are only the ones who are active in the class (Ira, Interview 1, 02/06/2012).

Ideally each English class should have around 20 or 25 students but English class in this university has more than 40 students. The problem is because KUM has a lot of students but has limited classrooms. Therefore, KUM needs more funding to build more classrooms and hire new teachers (Edo, Interview 1, 02/06/2012).

The above statements show that the lack of classroom space has an adverse effect on the teaching and learning processes. As Ira notes, ideally, English classes should have fewer students to provide more opportunities for students to practice their English language skills. The only way to address this issue is to allocate more class rooms to the School of English Education. However, KUM must provide extra funding to do this, which is another issue altogether.
Recently, all classrooms of KUM, including the English classrooms, were equipped with LCD projectors. This up-grade assisted teachers to provide more variety in their teaching and learning activities. However, teachers still require their own laptop if they want to use the LCD. Unfortunately, KUM still needs to improve its maintenance system as the LCD is often out of order as mentioned below by Yeni (Interview 1, 02/06/2012), an English teacher of School of English Education:

I’m happy when I know that every classroom is now equipped with LCD. Unfortunately, I often find it out of order so that I can’t teach like what I planned. It happens many times. I really need it as a medium of my teaching. I think the university should improve its maintenance system.

Facilities are of limited use or value if they are not serviced and maintained, while a well maintained system, particularly the maintenance of the LCD projector, will support more effective teaching and provide a platform for improved student learning outcomes. The next section of this chapter describes the language laboratory at the School of English Education.

4.4.2.2 Language laboratory

The School of English Education has two language laboratories: ‘traditional’ and multimedia, both of which are managed by the Head of the laboratory. The laboratories are commonly used to teach listening courses, but due to the limited classroom space available, some courses such as grammar, writing, and speaking also use the laboratories. The ‘traditional’ language laboratory is a tape-based system equipped with audio equipment and an LCD projector only. The audio equipment comprises a master console, which is connected by electrical cord to rows of student booths. The students have headset with a boom arm microphone. The teacher can use cassette or VCD as the media. If the teacher wants to use video, he/she has to connect the video to the LCD projector. Unfortunately, the teacher often cannot use the LCD projector because it is frequently out of order, as stated by Toni (Interview 1, 3/06/2012), an English teacher at the School of English Education:

Actually uhm..it’s quite frustrating to teach listening course at traditional laboratory because the LCD is often out of order. I planned to show some videos
to my students to create more interesting teaching activities but then I ended up using only the cassette. The school should pay more attention on the maintenance of this laboratory.

Students at the School of English Education also raise the issue of faulty student headsets:

What I dislike if I have listening course in the traditional laboratory is when I have a seat with broken headset. It’s annoying because I can’t communicate well with my teacher so that I have to speak up. It happens many times actually and I have reported this to the teacher but I know that it needs a technician to fix it (Nia, Interview1, 01/06/2012).

On the contrary, the multimedia language laboratory has more modern equipment including a computer with Internet connection, video and television. This equipment allows teachers to use more interesting and interactive teaching material. The laboratory is still quite new and was only used for the first time in 2011. Teachers and students at the School of English Education prefer this laboratory, as stated by one of the English students, Rio (pseudonym) during the interview; “I love this multimedia laboratory. The equipment is still new and works really well. Moreover, the class is livelier because every student has a computer” (Interview 1, 01/06/2013). Unfortunately, not all teachers at the School of English Education can use the multimedia laboratory because of its limited capacity. The Head of the School of English Education schedules the teachers’ use the multimedia laboratory. The next subsection of this chapter discusses the teachers at the School of English Education.

4.4.3 Teachers

The total number of permanent teachers at the School of English Education is 35. There are approximately 20 part-time (casual) teachers. Twenty-seven of the 35 permanent teachers have a Master’s degree and eight teachers have a Doctoral degree (Accreditation Borang of school of English education, 2011). Moreover, all part-time teachers have a Master’s degree.

There are a number of differences in the job responsibility of the permanent and part-time teachers at KUM’s School of English Education. First, permanent teachers have more academic tasks to do than part-time teachers. For instance, each permanent teacher is required to be an academic supervisor of allocated students from their
enrolment to their graduation. Academic supervisor in this context means one who assists the student with their academic problems. In addition, all permanent teachers need to be a supervisor to guide students in their thesis writing; although some part-time teachers can be student supervisors as well. Furthermore, full-time teachers need to write textbooks with the funding they receive from the university. They are also encouraged to do research with the funding they receive from the university or government. Second, permanent teachers are required to be more available at university than part-time teachers. Permanent teacher attendance is monitored via finger scan. In contrast, part-time teachers generally only attend university when they are scheduled to teach, to meet with other teachers, and to attend conferences or workshops. Third, permanent teachers have more classes to teach than part-time teachers.

Informally, the School of English Education organizes meetings with all teachers two times in one semester: at the beginning of semester and at the end of the semester. These meetings provide an opportunity for teachers to share their thoughts about anything related to their teaching and learning processes. Because every teacher (both permanent and part-time) is required to create a course syllabus and course outline for their subject, the meeting conducted at the beginning of the semester is focused on teachers discussing and sharing their syllabus as well as the textbooks they intend to use.

The monitoring of lecture activities, both for permanent and part-time teachers, is done by the school by checking the teaching journal. In the first two months of lectures, teachers who have not conducted enough class meeting are given a notice letter. In addition, before the week of final examination, teachers should have conducted at least 12 lessons.

In order for actors to cooperate to achieve the same goals, they should trust each other. However, monitoring of permanent teacher attendance via finger scan and lecture activities (both for permanent and part-time teachers) and via teaching journals indicate that the trust relationship between the university leaders of KUM and teachers is not well established. Purdue (2001) claimed that “ambivalence over trust between individuals and organizations in both partnership and community reveals difficulties in accumulating social capital” (p. 2211). Hence, the university leaders and teachers of KUM cannot gain advantage from obtaining social capital through mutual cooperation.

Furthermore, monitoring the effectiveness of teaching practices is accomplished by the university through student questionnaires at the end of each semester. The items
on the questionnaire are the same for all schools. However, the questionnaire is not considered to be relevant for the School of English Education as stated by one of English teachers below:

    The student questionnaire for all departments is just the same. We need a specific one for English Education Department. There is a question, for example, “Did your teacher talk much in your class?” We will get high points if the students answer “Yes”. In fact, we should have student-centered learning in English class in which the students are required to talk more in class (Toni, Interview 1, 01/06/2012).

    The above statements indicate that the School of English Education should have its own questionnaire that more appropriately represents the characteristics of English teaching. The questionnaire should also be appropriately designed to help teachers to obtain useful feedback on their instructional practice.

    Teachers are a key element in providing the knowledge and opportunity for their students to learn and their way of teaching has a great influence on the students’ progress. When asked about their expectation about English teachers, some students of School of English Education remarked:

    I love fun teachers. We’re not high school students anymore so we don’t need very strict teachers. I can share my academic problem with fun teachers and I can easily understand the material they give in the class because I am not under pressure. Moreover, fun teachers are always friendly to their students (Wina, Interview 1, 03/06/2012).

    School of English needs teachers who have studied abroad with enough English environment experience because learning language is not only from books but also from competent teachers. Those teachers must be fun too so that the class atmosphere is lively. They don’t need to talk all the time in front of the class because it just makes the students get bored and sleepy. Therefore, they need to use interesting teaching media at least with power point (Cindi, Interview 1, 03/06/2012).

    I need communicative and friendly teachers. Especially, I’m at school of English in which learning language becomes more effective if the teachers are communicative so that I can easily talk to them in English. If the teachers are friendly, they will treat the students like friends with warmth and respect. Everyone loves friendly teachers I think (Soni, Interview 1, 03/06/2012).
As mentioned in the above statements, some students at the School of English Education at KUM prefer fun, friendly, and communicative teachers as they are considered to be helpful to the students. In addition, the students feel more comfortable in class and enjoy the teaching and learning if the teachers are fun, friendly, and communicative. In other words, some students of school of English education at KUM value competent, friendly, fun, and kind teachers. Accordingly, if the teachers are able to follow the rule in their field by having the characteristics the students want, they then have dominant position in the field and attain more capital. Consequently, the teachers are able to “play the game” in their field. The next section of this chapter discusses the students at the School of English Education at KUM.

### 4.4.4 Students

As previously mentioned, the School of English Education is attended by more students compared to other schools at KUM. In 2011, the total number of students enrolled at the school was approximately 1998, as shown in Table 9 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic Year</th>
<th>Capacity</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Participate in the entrance examination</td>
<td>Admitted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>348</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>515</td>
<td>515</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>540</td>
<td>537</td>
<td>536</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>540</td>
<td>425</td>
<td>379</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>2280</strong></td>
<td><strong>2072</strong></td>
<td><strong>1998</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 9: Number of students enrolled in school of English education of KUM (Source: the accreditation Borang of school of English education, 2011)*
The above table shows that in 2010, the School of English Education had the highest number of student enrolments from 2007 to 2011. In addition, student selection is not competitive. In 2010, for instance, 537 of the 537 student applicants were admitted. In 2009, 515 students applied for enrolment in the School of English Education and all were accepted. Since the School of English Education does not administer a test to the select the student candidates, it encourages heterogeneous classrooms in which the students have various strengths and abilities in English. However, it creates a problem for teachers to select the level of teaching material they give to the students. This point is acknowledged in the following statement by Nina (Interview 1, 01/06/2012), one of English teachers:

KUM should concern more on the input of the students and should have more criteria to accept the students itself. The students in the class have various inputs that can be significantly different from each other. Some of them have high input but some are low. As a result, I find difficulty on how I should teach them. If I adjust my teaching materials for low input students, it will be boring for high input students. Meanwhile, if I adjust my teaching materials for high-input students, the low ones cannot follow it.

As mentioned in the above statements, the low input of students influences the instructional methods used by the teachers during lessons. Teachers must find appropriate materials and activities that are suitable to the students’ learning needs otherwise the students will be passive throughout the teaching and learning process. Through the lens of Bourdieu’s field theory, this indicates a clear rule for teachers of the School of English Education for playing the game. Acceptance of this rule is a marker of being a good teacher (of English) and facilitates access to attain capital in the field since “each field is characterized by an internal struggle for resources or capital” (Brosnan, 2010, p. 644).

Furthermore, the following comments indicate the English teachers at KUM perceive the input from the students to be a concern as most are still at the low level ability in English:

I can see that KUM now has huge number of students and can be competitive with other good private universities in Malang. However, I can also see that KUM really needs to improve the quality of the students. In other words, KUM should focus not only on the quantity but also the quality (Heru, Interview 1, 01/06/2012).
I can say that the majority of students of school of English at KUM still have low English abilities. In one class, for example, there are around 35 students and among them, only around five or eight students have good English. I do not know what should be improved. The curriculum of school of English is already good I think because it has facilitated the students to learn more about English skill courses. The input of the students could be the issue (Ira, Interview 1, 02/06/2012).

KUM could improve the quality of its students by holding a more competitive entrance test. However, as mentioned in the previous section, tuition fees are one of the major funding sources for KUM, so holding a more selective entrance test would mean reducing the funding source. KUM is therefore in a difficult position. Since KUM does not have competitive admission requirements, it is not difficult for the students to be admitted.

Most English students decide to study at KUM because they are not admitted to a state university. In addition, most of the students decide to major in English education because they love English. This is revealed in the following comments from three of the students:

I decided to choose English education as my major because I love English. Moreover, I ever won in English debate in my school, so that my parents really supported me to choose English as my major. I hope that I can be a professional English teacher after I graduate from KUM (Soni, Interview 1, 03/06/2012).

I love English! That’s why I choose English as my major. My parents even sent me to English private course when I was still in elementary school and at that time, not many children were as lucky as me. I want to improve my English and I hope KUM can help me to do that (Nita, Interview 1, 03/06/2012).

I love English since I was in senior high school. At that time, I thought that if I can speak English well, it means I’m cool. Moreover, I really want to go abroad one day so that mastering English is a must. I’m now working part-time at a hotel at Malang and I find that English is useful in my workplace (Ima, Interview 1, 03/06/2012).

The above statements suggest that English is widely recognized as an important language to learn in Indonesia and has a special status among the foreign languages. In
the Indonesian context, English is “presently the only foreign language which is a compulsory subject in schools” (Lauder, 2008, p. 13). By mastering English, an individual is seen to have a certain amount of prestige. It, therefore, enables him/her to access symbolic capital. Further, many types of employment in Indonesia require the knowledge of English so that a number of students make a priority to learn it.

Overall, a number of crucial issues in the School of English Education identified in this section include the need to provide an office for English teachers, allocate more classrooms to the School of English Education, improve the maintenance system of the school facilities, provide more multimedia language laboratories, create channels for student feedback, and improve the linguistic and academic quality of students. Paying attention to these issues is crucial to improving the effectiveness of teachers’ practice and students’ learning that, in turn, might improve KUM’s capital and increase the student enrollment.

4.5 Summary

This chapter has discussed the social field relevant to my case study teachers. The chapter started with a discussion of the general field of higher education in Indonesian; that is public and private institutions. The discussion then focused on the more specific field of the School of English Education at KUM. Public HEIs in Indonesia are widely perceived to have better quality and attain more symbolic capital than the private HEIs. As a result, a larger number of students compete in the national public university entrance examination to gain entry. If students are not successful, the secondary option is to enroll at a private university. KUM is one of fast growing private universities in terms of student enrolments. To attract the student enrollment, KUM creates a brand that is famous for its multiculturalism. However, KUM requires more teaching staff that are more highly qualified, as only a small number of teachers have doctoral degrees.

It was also established that the School of English Education at KUM has the largest student enrolment numbers compared to the other school at the university that provide the school with more capital. The students are generally motivated to learn English however the school must improve the effectiveness of the English teachers’ instructional practice as an effective strategy to maintain and improve its capital. Furthermore, even though a more challenging entrance exam may reduce student enrolment numbers and therefore reduce funding based on tuition fees. This is a
challenge the school must confront in order to raise the standard of student learning outcomes. The next chapter of this study focuses on the first case study teacher, Maya. Particularly, it examines Maya’s pedagogic habitus and the durability and changes in her pedagogic habitus as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation.
5.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the pedagogic habitus of one research participant, Maya (pseudonym), as manifested in her everyday practice. The description includes a focus on the changes that emerge in her pedagogic habitus as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation. Data were gathered by means of video recordings of Maya’s lessons, semi-structured interviews, and research observations in her classroom practices. With regard to the interviews with Maya specifically, they were conducted three times, once before and twice after she engaged in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities. This chapter is driven by the following research questions:

1. What is the nature of Maya’s pedagogic habitus (dispositions and beliefs)?
2. To what extent is Maya’s pedagogic habitus capable of change as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation?

The organisation of this chapter comprises five main sections: 1) Maya’s background; 2) Maya’s capital; 3) Maya’s initial pedagogic habitus; 4) productive disruptions resulting from teacher self-evaluation as a mediational activity; and 5) durability and change in Maya’s pedagogic habitus. The first section of this chapter provides a brief account of Maya’s background including details of her family history, educational experiences, and teaching experiences. The second section describes Maya’s capital which, together with her habitus, provides her with the power to act in her field. Next, Maya’s initial pedagogic dispositions are analysed through the lens of Bourdieu’s theoretical framework of habitus. The fourth section then focuses on the apparent productive disruptions resulting from teacher self-evaluation as a mediational activity in Maya’s identity and teaching practice. The last section examines the durability and changes in Maya’s habitus as a result of engagement in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities. Vygotsky’s sociocultural perspective is employed alongside Bourdieu’s sociocultural theory in this section to describe how Maya’s use of mediational tools influence brought about changes in her pedagogic habitus.
5.2 Maya’s background

Maya, a 32-year-old female, is an English teacher who has been teaching English for more than ten years. Her professional experiences range from teaching pronunciation, speaking, and listening at university level, to being a private teacher for elementary and junior high school students while an undergraduate student at a well-known public university in Malang. During the semester in which this research was undertaken, Maya was pursuing a Master’s degree at the same university. Although her parents did not really support her in her decision to become a teacher (because of the low rate of pay), Maya pursued her decision to be an English teacher as she had no other job options. Her parents work as traders and earn a considerable income. As a result, they perceived teaching to be a career, which provided little opportunity for wealth creation. After teaching for several years, however, Maya realised that she enjoyed working as a teacher because it provides her with the opportunity for on-going learning. She asserted:

Initially, I did not want to be a teacher, but then I changed my mind. I know now that by teaching I receive many things. Teaching is a learning process for me. Before teaching, I have to learn and prepare first so that I will be ready to teach. Being teacher also requires me to dig more knowledge (Interview 1, 17/10/2011).

Maya’s ways to improve her professionalism are by reading English books, watching English movies, sharing ideas and practices with her colleagues informally to develop new teaching methods, and joining an academic workshop at least once per semester. She points out that joining the academic workshops assists her to acquire new information about interesting class activities to apply in her English class to help the students to enjoy the class. Maya mentioned that her friends who are novice English teachers sometimes join her class to observe her teaching practices in order to learn how to teach more effectively. As such, Maya is considered to be an experience teacher by her friends. In addition, during the interview Maya expressed her willingness to take a short course:

I want to take a short course in any kind of education and field. Now, I’m searching for the information. There is a kind of longing to be student. I want to learn more. It’s like recharging the batteries of my knowledge. I want to have it sometimes. When I knew some of my friends took a short course in Australia I really wanted to follow them (Interview 1, 17/10/2011).
As stated in the above excerpt, Maya believes in the need to always improve her professionalism as an English teacher and believes that taking a short course abroad can be an effective way to achieve that outcome. Moreover, she understands that taking a short course in a country in which English is used as the first language will improve her mastery of the English language as well as provide her with a great opportunity to learn a new culture.

When asked what she needs to do to improve as an English teacher, Maya indicated that she still needed to develop her English vocabulary. Towards this objective, Maya choose to read a lot of books written in English and to watch English language movies. She also mentioned that if she encountered difficult words, she tried to look up the meanings in an English dictionary more often. In addition, she commented that she sometimes experienced difficulty with correct grammar usage, such as the use of articles and prepositions, when she wrote in English. Hence, she is always trying to develop her grammar knowledge and skills, often seeking assistance from a friend who helps her by providing feedback on her writing.

Maya expressed her desire to be a permanent teacher at a particular university; however, up to now, she continues to work as a casual English teacher at two private universities in Malang, including Kanjuruhan University of Malang (KUM), the institution where this research was conducted. Although Maya is a casual teacher, she has a full teaching schedule with Sunday as her only day off. She is required to teach listening, pronunciation, and reading. Being a part-time teacher means that Maya goes to the institution only when she is required to teach. She is only required to teach and does not have administrative duties or other responsibilities.

5.3 Maya’s capital

Over the course of many years, Maya has attained institutionalized cultural capital, which “refers to educational credentials and the credentialing system” (Belz, 2007, p. 46). In reference to the categorises of embodied and institutionalized cultural capitals explained in Chapter 2, Maya has obtained personal institutionalized cultural capital because of her experiences in teaching English over an extended period of time and her ability to speak English correctly with good pronunciation. Maya’s extensive experience in teaching English means that she has developed her professionalism and this provides her greater power as an English teacher as she is considered to be a better English teacher than her inexperienced colleagues. Maya also has greater power in her
English class because of her native-like English with good pronunciation. Teachers with developed English language skills are more highly appreciated in Indonesian education contexts as English is considered to be the most important foreign language to learn (Hamman et al., 2013).

Maya has also attained professional institutionalized cultural capital because she has graduated from a public university. As explained in Chapter 4, in the Indonesian education context, state universities are regarded to be of a higher quality than private universities. The training Maya received from a number of professional teachers at the public university provided her with more opportunities to develop as a competent English teacher. Maya is therefore regarded as a qualified English teacher and this becomes a resource to attain power in the field of English language teaching. The next section of this chapter discusses Maya’s initial pedagogic habitus.

5.4 Maya’s initial pedagogic habitus

Given that Maya is a teacher in the English education department, she has to use English as the medium of instruction in the class. During the semester in which this study was conducted, Maya was teaching listening to the students. As mentioned in Chapter 4, KUM has two types of English laboratories: traditional/manual and multimedia. Unfortunately, the department requires Maya to teach in a manual language laboratory that only has tape and a white board as teaching media and which also has some broken headsets. The department does not require Maya to use a specified textbook to guide the teaching and learning activities in her listening class. This means she has autonomy to decide which books or sources to use as long as she follows the department’s syllabus.

The term “pedagogic habitus” used in this study refers to the habitus in relation to teachers’ instructional practice. To examine Maya’s pedagogic habitus, data were gathered by means of video recordings of her lessons, semi-structured interviews, and observations of her classroom teaching practices. According to Braun (2012, p. 234), “habitus is always constituted in practice, it is embodied and includes physical conduct, competence and stance, as well as ways of speaking, vocabulary and accent”. Accordingly, Maya’s habitus was considered in relation to her dialogue and actions as a teacher as well as her statements during the interviews. Three aspects of Maya’s pedagogic habitus which (consciously or unconsciously) shape her teaching actions are identified: (1) pedagogic disposition to dominance; (2) pedagogic disposition to
formality and distance; and (3) pedagogic disposition to accuracy/perfectionism. These three aspects are discussed further in the subsections below.

5.4.1 Pedagogic disposition to dominance

The findings show that Maya has a pedagogic disposition to dominance that shapes her practices. This includes having a control over the students’ learning, high levels of teacher talking during her class, and nominating which students answer her questions. In accordance with Bourdieu’s sociological theory, Maya’s pedagogic disposition to dominance does not act alone, but together with her capital generates certain practices within her field (summarised in the Figure 6 below). The discussion of Figure 6 is divided into two separate sections: (1) manifestation of Maya’s pedagogic habitus to dominance in her practice; and (2) the relation between Maya’s pedagogic disposition to dominance and capital, field, and practice.

Figure 6: Relationship between Maya’s pedagogic disposition to dominance and capital, field, and practice
5.4.1.1 Manifestations of Maya’s pedagogic disposition to dominance in her practice

The collected data indicates that Maya has control over the students’ learning. She is the one who decides what the students need to learn, she initiates and leads activities in the class, and she tells the students what to do and when to do the tasks. The following excerpt taken from a recording of her lesson is one example of how Maya controls the class activities:

MAYA: Now we are going to listen to what is it…. some people say about their friends whether they are same or different. Okay for part A, what you have to do is just to think whether they are same or different. Okay. If you think they are different so have to think or put a check on the box saying different. Okay if you think they are same, you have to think or check or centang in Indonesian on the box saying same. Okay, that’s for part A. For part B, you’ll listen again and you have to find or circle the words describing their friends; yup the characteristics of the friends. Okay be ready please.

The above excerpt is an example how Maya controls the students’ learning. Maya said; “… what you have to do is just to think whether they are same or different and you’ll listen again”; and “… you have to find or circle the words describing their friends; yup the characteristics of the friends. Okay be ready please”. These are her instructions to the students pertaining to the class activities. Instead of using the word “can” or “might”, Maya used the words “have to” when she gave the instruction. This reflects her control over the students’ learning. In addition, the students do not have the opportunity to ask questions or to choose the type of learning tasks or assignments or which problems to work on. Hence, they are not involved in the decision making process as to what they need to learn.

Maya’s lesson is monologic rather than interactive in that she speaks much more than the students during the lessons. In one class meeting, Maya spoke for the majority of the time during one lesson, telling the students what to do, explaining the topic, and discussing and guiding the activities. She does not require a high level of student participation during lessons and the students do not have the opportunity to interact with each other during the teaching and learning process. She also does not provide the students with an opportunity to ask questions, for example after she finishes explaining how to engage with the lesson materials. Students passively receive the information/knowledge from her and only speak up if Maya ask them to do so.
Maya often asks the students to participate in the class activity by nominating which students are to answer the questions, as demonstrated in the following excerpt taken from a recording of one of her lessons:

[Before continuing her discussion to a new topic, Maya asks some warm up questions to the students]

MAYA: Okay now I will ask you some questions before we move on to listening 1. You said that you have good friends right? Are your friends different from you? I mean in the characteristics. Let’s say your friends are … what is it … funny, and then easy going and then … what is it … like jokes and you maybe are quite serious so you and your friends are different. Okay. What about you? [Looking to a student]

BUDI: Different

MAYA: Different [repeating Budi’s answer]. Tell us what make you different.

BUDI: My friend is so quiet person, but I’m talkative.

MAYA: Okay. What about you? (looking to a student)

INDAH: My friend is funny and easy going, but I’m serious person.

MAYA: Okay. Your friend is funny and you’re a serious person. What about you? [Looking to a student]

INDAH: I’m serious, loyal, but my friend is not serious, funny, and easy going.

MAYA: Okay. You’re serious and loyal and your friend is not serious.

As in the above excerpt, Maya limits the opportunities for the student to participate or answer voluntarily in the class by nominating students to answer her questions. Her instruction; what about you? is an indication of her intention to control student participation in the class. In addition, in reference to classroom discourse, the above excerpt shows Maya demonstrates the minimum interaction pattern by implementing the initiation-response-follow-up (IRF) pattern proposed by Sinclair and Brazil (1982). Most of the time, Maya initiates a question, the students respond, and Maya then provides feedback on the response. An example taken from the above excerpt is:

Initiation: What about you?

Response: My friend is funny and easy going, but I’m serious person.

Feedback: Okay. Your friend is funny and you’re a serious person

The example indicates that Maya dominates the interaction because the type of feedback she provides to the students is repetitive, and she does not provide the third turn to
facilitate further opportunities for interaction. This interaction pattern minimises the students’ productive thought and further participation in classroom activities.

Further example of how Maya nominates which students are to answer her questions in class is presented in the excerpt below:

MAYA: Okay, now for part two. You will listen to the professor’s questions and you have to write down the questions [playing the cassette in which the professor asks about full name and hobby].
MAYA: [Students are writing down the questions based on the cassette] Finished?
STUDENTS: Finished [students answer all together].
MAYA: Now answer the questions [Maya points to Risa].
Yup, just say your full name.
RISA: [Murmuring].
MAYA: Louder. I can’t hear your voice.
RISA: My full name is Risa Anggraeni. I love watching movies.
MAYA: What about you? [pointing to Indra]
INDRA: My full name is Indra Purnama. I love traveling.
MAYA: Okay. What about you? [pointing to Siti]
SITI: My full name is Siti Maryani. I love reading novels.

As the above excerpt illustrates, after asking the students to listen to the stimulus material, Maya does not invite them to discuss their answers voluntarily. Instead, she says, “how about you?” to control which student is to answer the question. Furthermore, Maya does not provide feedback on the students’ response or use the third turn of the IRF pattern to provide more opportunities to speak up. Her interaction only focuses exclusively on the material so that the students have limited opportunity to be more active in the classroom activities. The next subsection of this chapter discusses the relationship between Maya’s pedagogic disposition to dominance and capital, field, and practice.

5.4.1.2 Relationship between Maya’s pedagogic disposition to dominance and capital, field, and practice

As discussed in Chapter 2, habitus, capital, combine to generate an agent’s practices within his/her field. Accordingly, Maya’s pedagogic disposition to dominance alongside her institutional professionalism and personal cultural capital drive her teaching practices within her field. Maya’s ability to speak English fluently with good
pronunciation and her public university training empower her pedagogic disposition to dominance. This disposition then produces her teaching actions in the particular sub-field (smaller field); that is, a large listening class in a traditional language laboratory with a majority of low-input students. Maya exercises control over the students’ learning, dominates the talk during the lesson, and nominates which students are to answer the questions. She commented, “I’m the one who controls the students in the class, so I will give them instructions and then they have to follow and ask some questions. That’s it” (Interview 1, 17/10/2011). This statement supports the research finding that Maya’s practice is shaped by a pedagogic disposition to dominance.

It may be argued that Maya’s pedagogic disposition to dominance in her listening class leads to monotonous teaching. Maya considers listening to be a monotonous subject and finds it difficult to include interesting and challenging activities in the class. This view is demonstrated in her comment, “I’ve had plenty experiences to teach listening subject, but I lack teaching methods” (Interview 1, 17/10/2011). She relies on the same routine of class activities: explaining and discussing difficult words embedded in the conversation as a pre-activity; playing the tape, asking the students to answer the questions and discussing the correct answers as during-activities; and asking some referential questions as a post-activity. Moreover, Maya’s class is text book dominated. Indeed, she stringently follows the exercises provided the text book and tends to spend the whole lesson on one activity without any variation. Based on both the observation of the lesson and the class videotape, Maya also seldom used the whiteboard to help explain the teaching material to the students and she preferred to remain seated in her chair while teaching rather than move about the class. Maya confessed, “I see myself as a monotonous person in listening class” (Interview 2, 30/01/2012).

When asked about her experience with her teachers during listening classes, Maya reported:

The first time I got listening subject was when I entered university. My teacher at that time was really dominant in the class and her teaching activity lacked in variety and interest. My teacher just asked the students to listen to a tape, answer questions, and retell the conversation. There was no variation. My teacher did not discuss difficult words and she also had a lot of control over her students’ learning (Interview 3, 06/06/2012).
From the above statements, it is evident that Maya herself experienced monotonous listening classes during her training. Borg (2004) stated that many teachers uncritically reproduced pedagogies from their own school experience. Accordingly, Maya’s experience with her listening teacher seems to have significantly influenced the way she teaches. The suggestion that her pedagogical practice is consistent with what she experienced as a student reflects the notion of “the apprenticeship of observation” (Lortie, 1975). Lortie noted that students spend thousands of hours as observers of their teachers’ instructional practice and that this has a great impact on their conceptualisation of teaching. Student teachers will therefore unconsciously imitate the way their former teachers taught. This apprenticeship of observation transforms into “ready-made recipes for action and interpretation that do not require testing or analysis while promising familiar, safe results” (Hamman et al., 2010, p. 161). In Maya’s case, her apprenticeship of observation resulted in her perception of how to teach listening as a subject. Specifically, Maya tends to be the dominant figure in the classroom and relies on a monotonous teaching routine.

Jenkins (1992) explained that habitus does not stand alone, but it is connected with the environment, other actions, and other interactions. The sub-field (smaller field) where Maya did her practice— a traditional language laboratory as her environment with tape and a whiteboard as the only teaching media to support the teaching and learning process (as discussed in Chapter 4) — encourages monotonous teaching practices as a result of her pedagogic disposition to dominance. It may have been the case that with more facilities, such as a video camera, screen projector, or computer, Maya would have been more likely to develop more interesting and challenging activities. Maya is unsatisfied with the condition of the low-tech laboratory and expressed her desire to use the multimedia laboratory. However, she is unaware of the correct procedures to follow to book the multimedia laboratory due to her status as a part-time teacher. Maya therefore struggles to create a more interactive classroom context in which the students enjoy greater participation in the activities.

Given that Maya has control over the students’ learning, dominates the talk in the classroom, and nominates which students are to answer her questions, the students invariably play a passive role in the lessons. The students are not given the opportunity to express themselves and direct their own learning. They are also demotivated because Maya’s pedagogic disposition to dominance leaves no space for them to exercise agency. Exploring ways of getting the students to ask questions rather than asking all of
the questions, and involving the students in the decision making in relation to what they want and need to learn might contribute to positioning the students as independent and agentive language learners. In addition, if there is greater balance in the amount of productive talk generated in the classroom might encourage the students to participate more actively in learning activities. The next section of this chapter describes another of Maya’s pedagogic disposition that shapes her teaching practice.

5.4.2 Pedagogic disposition to formality/distance

Figure 6 below describes the relationship between Maya’s pedagogic disposition to formality/distance and capital, field, and practice. The detailed discussion of Figure 7 is divided into two separate subsections: (1) manifestations of Maya’s pedagogic disposition to formality/distance in her practice; and (2) relationship between Maya’s pedagogic dispositions to formality/distance and capital, field, and practice.

Field
- a private university at Malang, Indonesia
- listening class in a traditional language laboratory
- large class with mostly low-profficency students

Pedagogic disposition to formality and distance

Capital
- an experienced English teacher
- able to speak English correctly with good pronunciation

Professional institutionalized cultural capital
- graduated from a public university

Practice
- makes discouraging comments to the students
- seldom mentions students’ names
- seldom give compliments to students

Figure 7: Relationship between Maya’s pedagogic disposition to formality/distance and capital, field, and practice
5.4.2.1 Manifestations of Maya’s pedagogic disposition to formality/distance in her practice

This subsection focuses on Maya’s pedagogic disposition to formality/distance in her teaching practice. This disposition manifests through the discouraging comments she often makes to the students, her tendency to not refer to the students by name when interacting with them, and by the fact she seldom compliments the students. The following excerpt is an example of Maya’s pedagogical practice that reveals her disposition to formality/distance through the way she acts and talks to the students in the listening class. In particular, it demonstrates how Maya makes discouraging comment to the students:

[After listening to a conversation about an invitation to a party, Maya asks some questions to the students]

MAYA: Do you think they will go the party?
STUDENTS: Noooo [answering all together].
MAYA: No? Why not?
SINTA: Boring and stupid [answering confidently].
MAYA: Who is boring and stupid?
SINTA: Birthday party.
MAYA: The party is boring? How do we know that the party is boring? It hasn’t started yet [with raised voice].
SINTA: Opinion mam.
MAYA: Your opinion? But your opinion must be logic … logical! [with raised voice and then the students are suddenly silent] Okay, any other opinions?
HERU: Because he throw up an invitation?
MAYA: Okay. Because he threw the invitation. Okay I’ll repeat once more.

Not surprisingly after Maya said, “… but your opinion must be logic … logical!” with a raised voice when responding to Sinta’s answer, all of students then went silent. Her node of providing feedback surely discouraged and demotivated the students from actively participating in class discussions, especially Sinta, who answered her question.

Another example of how Maya discourages the students through the comments she makes is presented in the excerpt below:
The students are sitting in two rows and Maya stands in the middle between the rows. After Maya plays the conversation, discusses and explains the answers with the students, she then asks some referential questions relating to topic of discussion by pointing to certain students to answer. The topic for the lesson is “good friend”.

MAYA: Still talking about good friends. What do you usually do when you have free time with your friends? [pointing to Siska]

SISKA: Talking about our future

MAYA: You talk about future [repeating Siska’s answer]. So you have chat. Okay. Is it really activity you do?

SISKA: Yes.

MAYA: Okay. You never go out somewhere?

SISKA: No.

MAYA: Never. What about you? [pointing to Teguh]

TEGUH: Ee … [murmuring and thinking] talking about future.

MAYA: Where do you usually have the talk? Where do you usually have the conversation?

TEGUH: Kantin [answering with wrong pronunciation].

MAYA: Okay. Canteen [reframing Teguh’s answer with the correct pronunciation]. Next, what about you? You please [pointing to Sita]. Yes, you sitting in the middle.

SITA: [Remains silent]

MAYA: Do you have good friends?

SITA: [Remains silent]

MAYA: Do you have good friends? [raising her voice] Do you have good friends? Yes or no?

SITA: Yes.

MAYA: Yes. What do you usually do with your friends?

SITA: [Smiling and remaining silent].

MAYA: I need your answer not your smile [again, raising her voice]. Okay. Mas, please [pointing to Ahmad]. Do you have good friends?

AHMAD: Yes. Sometimes I’m talking about our lesson in the library and in the canteen and sometimes just kidding.

The above excerpt presents some clear actions that reveal Maya’s disposition to formality/distance. Maya again made a discouraging comment by saying; “I need your answer not your smile” to Sita when she did not answer her question. It appears to be the case that the student was finding it difficult to express her idea in English, especially when the entire class was waiting for her answer. She therefore just smiled and did not answer Maya’s question. However, Maya did not tolerate this response and made a discouraging comment. Maya seems not aware of the impact her verbal language may have on the students’ motivation. Such comments are likely to have a detrimental effect
on the responding student in particular but also on all of the students in general, further limiting their involvement in class activities. The above excerpt also shows that Maya rarely mentioned the student’s names while interacting with them. She referred to the students as “you” or sometimes pointed them with her finger if she wanted a student to answer. This implies that Maya was either not familiar with the students’ names or did not feel the use of names was important.

The next manifestation of Maya’s pedagogic disposition to formality/distance is her practice of seldom praising or complimenting the students, especially after the students have made a good effort to answer her questions, as demonstrated in the following excerpt:

[The students have just listened to a conversation on a cassette. They were then required to answer some questions from Maya regarding the information in the conversation. The questions are addressed to the whole class.]

MAYA: So we go to person one. The friend’s name, Jack. Is it right?
STUDENTS: Right [some students answer together].
MAYA: Okay. When did they meet?
STUDENTS: Three years ago [some students answer together].
MAYA: Three years ago [repeating and emphasizing students’ answer]. Where did they meet?
STUDENTS: At work [some students answer together].
MAYA: At work [repeating and emphasizing students’ answer]. All right. And what does his friend do now?
STUDENTS: Works in the bank [some students answer together].
MAYA: Works in the bank [repeating and emphasizing students’ answer]. Okay. They still keep in touch?
A STUDENT: Yes.
MAYA: Yes [again, repeating and emphasizing students’ answer]. Now we move on to person two.

As illustrated in the above excerpt, Maya’s way of acknowledging her students’ correct responses is by repeating and emphasizing the answer. Another example from the video recording of Maya’s lesson is presented in the below excerpt:

[After asking the students to listen to a conversation on a cassette, Maya discusses some question relating to the topic discussed. The questions are addressed to the whole class.]

MAYA: So, for the first person, what do they do? [Asking the students about the question in the textbook]
STUDENTS: Seeing movie [answering all together].
MAYA: Seeing a movie [repeating and emphasizing students’ answer]. Okay. When does it take place?
ADIT: Friday.
MAYA: Okay. Now we move on to number 2. What does his father say?
SINTA: He must have a job.
MAYA: Okay. He must have a job [repeating and emphasizing Sinta’s’ answer].

As both the above excerpts illustrate, Maya used two techniques to respond to the students’ answers. First, Maya mostly said “okay”, or she sometimes said “all right” when the students provided the correct answer. Second, Maya repeated the students’ answer to confirm that the answer was correct. At no time does Maya compliment or praise the students for providing a correct answer. This suggests that Maya is not concerned about trying to motivate the students through the provision of positive feedback since she did not use praise as a method of positive reinforcement to encourage the students to be more active in the learning activities. The following subsection of this chapter discusses the relationship between Maya’s pedagogic disposition to formality/distance and her capital, field, and practice.

5.4.2.2 Relationship between Maya’s pedagogic dispositions to formality/distance and capital, field, and practice

Habitus with the generation of capital structures an individual’s practices within a particular field. In other words, practice may be considered as the product of habitus. Maya’s extensive English teaching experience, her ability to speak English fluently with good pronunciation, and her educational background from a public university provides her with the potential to have a pedagogic disposition to formality/distance within her field. Hence, Maya’s teaching practices are characterised by her habit to provide discouraging comments to the students, her tendency not to refer to the students by their names, and her failure to praise the students.

Maya asserts that she does not want to be too formal with the students and that she hopes to establish a positive personal relationship with them. She is also aware however that she finds it difficult to make her teaching fun for the students:

I try to be my students’ friends so that they will be brave enough to ask questions in the class. It seems that they see me as an unfriendly and serious person so that they don’t have the confidence to talk to me. I realise that I cannot
easily make friends and I am not a humorist person. Yes, I’m not that kind of person (Interview 3, 06/06/2012).

The above statements indicate that Maya is aware of her pedagogic disposition to formality/distance as expressed through an image as a serious teacher. She perceives that creating a positive relationship with the students is not an easy task. The classroom observations of Maya’s teaching practices revealed that she tried to create a relaxed atmosphere in her class by smiling when she interacted with the students, such as when she was asking the students to answer the questions. However, it appeared the students did not enjoy the lesson because they were only allowed to speak when asked to by Maya and subsequently they had little desire to participate in the class activities.

Maya diminishes her chances of establishing positive relationships with the students by her pedagogic disposition to formality/distance. Her tendency not to refer to the students by name and the limited praise she offers to them discouraged participation, particularly in a class dominated by students with low-ability English skills. The students therefore did not have the confidence to express themselves in English. Moreover, Maya may have only compounded this problem when she called the students who need a long time to answer her questions ‘lazy’, as shown in the following excerpt:

I’m tried to point the lazy students to answer. It’s just wasting time because they just kept silent when I asked them. Then I tried to point another lazy student and it didn’t make any differences so that I just pointed certain students who are smart and active in the class (Interview 3, 06/06/2012).

As mentioned in the above statements, Maya is not patient enough to wait for an answer from the students so she focuses more on the students who have enough courage to speak up.

Maya mentioned that she was taught by an unfriendly English teacher while in the first grade of junior high school:

I did not know anything about English when I was a junior high school student. One day, my teacher asked me to do something and at that time, I really did not know how to do that. I even did not know how to look up a dictionary. The teacher then insulted me by saying that I was stupid in front of the class. It really hurt me. I felt shy as well with my classmates. I then have a kind of revenge that I will prove to my teachers I will become someone better than her (Interview 3, 06/06/2012).
The above excerpt recalls how Maya’s teacher made discouraging comment to her when she could not do what her teacher wanted. Maya regarded this as a bad experience which impacted her personally. On the one hand, Maya was self-motivated enough to want to do better. On the other hand, Maya have developed a tendency to be unfriendly and to sometimes say discouraging comments to her own students partly as a consequence of her bad experience. Bourdieu and Wacquant (1992) argued that habitus is created by past experience and produces present and future practices by providing schemes for perceptions and thoughts. In Maya’s case, her experience with an unfriendly teacher in the past may have contributed to her current disposition to formality/distance.

Maya’s pedagogic disposition to formality/distance diminishes Maya’s relationship with the students. She does not have a positive relationship with them and tends to distance herself from the students. A positive teacher-student relationship is one of many important elements for effective education. It ultimately promotes a “sense of school belonging” and encourages students to “participate cooperatively in classroom activities” (Veresov, 2004, p. 278). In other words, a positive relationship between teacher and students is likely to make the students more engaged in learning and create a more relaxed and comfortable atmosphere and environment in the classroom. The students are therefore more likely to be receptive and to understand what is being taught, which, in turn, can help to increase their level of academic achievement. To create a more positive and friendly relationship with the students, Maya might change from her formal and distant pedagogic disposition. She could try to be friendlier towards the students, get to know them as individuals, and praise them when appropriate. The next section of this chapter examines a third pedagogic disposition that Maya demonstrated through her teaching practices, that of a tendency towards accuracy/perfectionism.

5.4.3 Pedagogic disposition to accuracy/perfectionism

The video recording of Maya’s lesson, her interview statements, and my observation notes demonstrate that Maya has a disposition to accuracy/perfectionism that also shapes her teaching practice. Figure 8 below outlines the relationship between Maya’s pedagogic disposition to accuracy/perfectionism, capital, field, and practice.
As illustrated in the Figure 8 above, Maya’s disposition to accuracy/perfectionism and her accumulated capital, field, and practice are related to each other. The figure will be explained in detail in two different subsections below: (1) manifestations of Maya’s pedagogic disposition to accuracy/perfectionism in her practice; and (2) relationship between Maya’s pedagogic disposition to accuracy/perfectionism and capital, field, and practice.
5.4.3.1 Manifestations of Maya’s pedagogic disposition to accuracy/perfectionism in her practice

Maya’s pedagogic disposition to accuracy/perfectionism drives her to always speak in English in class as part of her teaching practice. This technique is designed to train the students to pronounce English words correctly and to use English grammar correctly. Data from the video recording of Maya’s lessons and my observation notes reveal that during one lesson Maya used the target language, English, 99% of the time during her teaching and in learning activities. In cases where the students did not understand the English expression, Maya tried to use a different expression which has the same meaning. For example, when she asked, “are you done?” to the students, they kept silent because they did not understand the meaning of the question. Maya then changed the question to include a more common expression, “have you finished?” This expression successfully invited the students to provide an answer. Maya speaks the first language, Indonesian only if the students do not understand the meaning of various versions English.

Maya’s teaching practices also demonstrate her desire to inspire the students to always improve their English pronunciation and grammar. Therefore, she focuses on how the students pronounce the words and always helps them to correct their pronunciation as illustrated in the excerpt below:

[Maya points to a student to speak up and she pronounces a word “eight” incorrectly]

MAYA: Age? It should be eight [eɪt ], not age [eɪd ]. Like I’ve told you for the first meeting if I’m not mistaken, how to pronounce angka delapan (number eight) in English? Eight [eɪt ], … not age [eɪd ], but eight [writing on the whiteboard]. So, if you say age we have AGE [spelling the word], but this one is eight [writing phonetic script for the word “eight”]. They have different consonant. You have that kind of symbol in your pronunciation class right? So be careful when you pronounce some certain words.

As the above excerpt illustrates, Maya is concerned about how the students pronounce English words and she tries to ensure that they pronounce them correctly. She prefers to correct the students’ pronunciation mistakes by providing further explanation about the word. As Maya’s previous professional experience includes teaching pronunciation, she has the confidence required to pronounce English words correctly and to teach others the correct pronunciation, also.
Maya likes to correct the students’ mistakes when answering questions by reframing their answers in the correct form. The following excerpt from her lesson is an example of how Maya corrects a student’s mistake:

MAYA: Next, how about you Mas, do you have good friends?
ANTON: Yes of course.
MAYA: How many good friends do you have?
ANTON: Five.
MAYA: When did you meet them?
ANTON: Vocational school.
MAYA: What do you like from them?
ANTON: They are kind, good, friendly.
MAYA: Do you think they have bad sides?
ANTON: Yes. They like gossip.
MAYA: Oh … They like gossiping [reframing Anton’s answer in the correct form]. How about you? Do you have good friends?
TANTI: Yes. Waktu pertama kali ketemu di P3T [using Indonesian meaning when we had student orientation].
MAYA: Okay then. So you meet them here in this university. So are they here now?
TANTI: Yes. She is [pointing to Tanti sitting next to Anton].
MAYA: So, she is one of them. What do you like from her?
TANTI: Friendly people.
MAYA: Friendly person [reframing Tanti’s answer in the correct form].

As illustrated in the above excerpts, Maya focuses on the correct use of English in her classroom. She helps the students to correct their mistakes by repeating and reframing their answers in the correct form. When the student said, “they like gossip”, and “friendly people”, Maya corrected him by saying, “they like gossiping”, and “friendly person”. Clearly, Maya perceives that it is important for students to understand and use correct English grammar.

Furthermore, when the students answered in Indonesian due to not knowing how to express the word in English, Maya assists them by directly translating and saying the word in English, as the following excerpt from her lesson shows:

[Before discussing a new topic, Maya asks some warm-up questions related to the topic to the students]
MAYA: When you are in the airport, what things you can find there?
TINO: Loket [answering in Indonesian; other students laugh].
MAYA: Counter?
TINO: Yes.
MAYA: Okay. What kind of counter is it? Ticket counter?
TINO: Ticket counter, immigrant counter.
MAYA: Immigrant or immigration?
STUDENTS: Immigration [answering all together].
MAYA: Immigration [emphasising the correct answer]. Immigrant is the person.

As demonstrated in the above transcript, Maya assists a student who does not know how to say “counter” in English by translating directly what the student says in English. Maya also supports the student to use correct English word form when she poses the question, “immigrant or immigration?”. In other words, Maya wants to encourage the students to use English with the correct grammar and pronunciation by correcting the mistakes they make. The next subsection of this chapter focuses on the relationship between Maya’s pedagogic disposition to accuracy/perfectionism and capital, field, and practice.

5.4.3.2 Relationship between Maya’s pedagogic disposition to accuracy/perfectionism and capital, field, and practice

Maya’s pedagogic disposition to accuracy/perfectionism was manifested in her teaching practices and reflected the particular make-up of her capital. Maya’s sub-field (her classroom and students) is the social arena for her teaching practices. Her extensive English teaching experience, her developed English speaking ability, and her educational history empower her to have a pedagogic disposition to accuracy/perfectionism in the field. As a result, Maya uses English at all times during her lessons, and she trains the students to pronounce English words correctly and to use correct English grammar. When asked why she prefers to speak in English during lessons, she replied, “I try to use plenty of English because my students are English department students so they need to get more English exposure” (Interview 2, 30/01/2012). In other words, Maya wants to provide the students with practice in listening and responding to spoken English. In turn, she sometimes asks the students to use a dictionary if they do not grasp her English usage:
I try to always use English when I teach because their environment must provide them with plenty of English. I want them to get used to English and try to understand what I say. If they find difficulties, they have to look up their dictionary to help them understand (Interview 2, 30/01/2012).

As evidenced in the above statements, the determination to expose the students to English underpins Maya’s decision to speak in the language all the times in the classroom, especially given that the students do not use English for communication outside the classroom. The students can therefore learn to use English based on the situations that unfold during lessons.

Maya’s habitus is shaped by her educational experiences. Bourdieu (1994, p. 170) stated, “habitus is ‘structured’ by one’s past and present circumstances, such as family upbringing and educational experiences. It is ‘structuring’ in that one’s habitus helps to shape one’s present and future practices”. Maya’s educational experiences with accuracy-oriented/perfectionist teachers inspire her to value correct English. She graduated from a quality public university where she was taught by (mostly) strict and competent teachers. She remarked:

I got many perfectionist teachers. This influences me in many things I do such as when I do my work, when I teach so that I have to be well-prepared. I have to be a good model for my students, especially to pronounce English words correctly (Interview 3, 06/06/2012).

The above statements indicate Maya’s determination (“I have to”) to apply what she has learned from her former teachers in her class. She wants the students to develop good English speaking skills like she has. In addition, Maya revealed, “when I was in junior high school, I admired my English teacher who had very good pronunciation. I liked the way she taught, too. From that time on, I feel like I need to imitate her. At least I can be like her” (Interview 3, 06/06/2012). This revelation also demonstrates Maya’s desire to live up to the practice of someone she sees as a role model and hence to develop her English language skills, including correct pronunciation and grammar, so that the students can learn from her. Maya’s experiences with teachers who had well-developed English language skills inspired her to be like them. Maya’s experience with her teachers taught her that it is right and important to speak English well and she carries
this belief into her teaching. The next section of this chapter discusses the disruptions of teacher self-evaluation as a mediational activity.

5.5 Productive disruptions resulting from teacher self-evaluation as a mediational activity

Teacher self-evaluation was something new to Maya. By participating in this study, Maya has video recorded her lessons for the first time, completed teacher self-reflection questions, asked for student feedback on her teaching, and participated in collegial dialogues. Previously, the only evaluation of her teaching she had undertaken was to share her thoughts and concerns informally with her colleagues. Maya said, “I sometimes talked with my friend informally. They suggested me to use certain methods or materials because those worked for them” (Interview 1, 17/10/2011). As such, Maya already recognised the value of sharing her ideas about teaching with her colleagues in order to develop different teaching methods to implement in her lessons.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, all research participants were supported to utilise four teacher self-evaluation instruments: lesson video recording, teacher self-reflection questions, student feedback, and collegial dialogue. When asked her opinion about the use of video recording to evaluate teaching practices, Maya said, “it was great. It was like a mirror to see myself, to see my teaching” (Interview 2, 30/01/2012). Hence, the video recording of Maya’s lessons provide a platform for her to see herself and her teaching practices from a new perspective. In addition, teacher self-reflection questions worked as a mediation tool for Maya to reflect on her teaching and better understand the strengths and limitations of her practice. She remarked, “to me, self-reflection questions are actually the same as video recording, but in written form. The questions helped me to reflect on my teaching practice” (Interview 2, 30/01/2012).

When Maya was asked about the use of student feedback, Maya asserted, “on one side I’m happy, but on the other side I’m not. I’m happy because I got some good comments from my students, but then I could not get more information about what I should improve” (Interview 2, 30/01/2012). That is, the students did not provide sufficient information to Maya regarding her teaching limitations as the students provided mostly favourable comments on her teaching. This may have been because the students were satisfied with Maya’s teaching practices or more likely, because they did not have enough courage to say something negative about her teaching for fear of reprisal. The students might be afraid if they provide negative feedback on Maya’s
teaching, they could not get good grade in their subject. However, student feedback still contributed valuable insights into Maya’s teaching practices.

Maya also felt that collegial dialogue helped her to improve, as suggested in the comment, “participating in collegial dialogues makes me a better teacher. I can improve my teaching methods and techniques by sharing with my colleagues, especially if we teach the same subjects” (Interview 2, 30/01/2012). In other words, Maya recognized the affordances of each mediational tool she has used as a means to identify the aspects that promote or hinder the development of her professional practice.

Specifically, a series of teacher self-evaluation activities provide Maya with some productive disruptions. These productive disruptions challenged or disrupted her usual thoughts about her teaching practice, as well as, about herself as a teacher. The productive disruptions were: (1) how Maya saw herself as a person; and (2) how Maya saw her teaching. The first productive disruption is related to professional identity which is defined as a “personal thing that indicates how one identifies with being a teacher and how one feels as a teacher” (Mayer, 1999, p. 7). Video recording Maya’s lesson functioned as a powerful mediational artefact for Maya to learn about herself and to assist her to realise that she was not a warm and friendly teacher to the students, but rather that she was critical and judgmental. She admitted, “after viewing my lesson video recordings, I feel a kind of shock. I admit that I’m less friendly and sometimes judgmental to my students” (Interview 3, 06/06/2012). Maya became more aware fully of her disposition to formality/distance (as discussed in Subsection 5.4.2.2). After reflecting on her practice, Maya gained new insights into her professional identity, a key aspect of which was her pedagogic disposition to formality/distance.

The next productive disruption Maya experienced as a result of her engagement in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities relates to the new perspectives she develops in relation to her teaching. Firstly, Maya realised that she presented a monotonous teaching style in her listening class. As mentioned in Subsection 5.4.1.2 of the chapter, Maya already felt that her teaching lacked in variety and interest. After watching the video recording of her teaching practices, considering her responses to the teacher self-reflection questions, and reading the student feedback on her teaching, Maya had concrete data that her teaching was indeed monotonous. She remarked, “some students said that my class was boring. When I viewed my teaching in the video, I agreed with them” (Interview 2, 30/01/2012).
Secondly, Maya realised that she seldom gave compliments to the students. The video recording and student feedback used as mediating artefacts during the teacher self-evaluation activity provided Maya with an opportunity to ‘know’ her teaching style. This revealed to her that she was too serious during lessons and that she needed to establish a better relationship with the students by praising them more often and by referring to them by their names. Maya pointed out, “I saw myself in the taped-performance and I found my weakness. I couldn’t see myself praising my students” (Interview 2, 30/01/2012).

Thirdly, the range of teacher self-evaluation instruments used by Maya to evaluate her teaching allowed her to realise that she needed to change the way she interacted with the students. She declared, “I need to improve my classroom interaction. I tended to ask to some active students and ignore the ones who were passive” (Interview 2, 30/01/2012). The mentioned productive disruptions are related to Maya’s pedagogic habitus to dominance and formality/distance as manifested in her practice. The extent to which Maya’s pedagogic disposition is capable of changing through her engagement in mediated self-evaluation is discussed in the next section of this chapter.

5.6 Durability and change in Maya’s habitus

Section 5.4 of this chapter discussed three aspects of pedagogic habitus that generated Maya’s teaching practices: dominance, formality/distance, and accuracy/perfectionism. This section will now turn to an examination of whether and how the three aspects of habitus changed following Maya’s engagement in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities using the four mediational means of teacher self-reflection questions, lesson video recording, student feedback, and collegial dialogue. In response to the video data of Maya’s lessons, her interview statements, and notes taken during classroom observations – conducted at the second round of data collection or after Maya engaged in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities – Maya was indeed able to transform into a different and better teacher. She changed her pedagogic disposition to dominance and formality/distance and maintained her pedagogic disposition to accuracy/perfectionism. A detailed discussion on durability and change in Maya’s habitus is provided in the subsections below.
5.6.1 Change in pedagogic disposition to dominance

The productive disruption in Maya’s teaching practice and her identity as a teacher as a result of mediated self-evaluation encouraged her to imagine her future identity as an English teacher. A comparison of Maya’s teaching practices in the video recording of her lesson before the self-evaluation activity with her teaching practices in the video recording after the self-evaluation shows a significant difference in Maya’s identity and expression as teacher. Maya transformed into a more ‘democratic” teacher. She does not try to exercise too much control over the students’ learning, she reduces the amount of time she spends talking during lessons by inviting the students to be more active participants in classroom discussions, and she provides more opportunities for the students to ask and answer questions voluntarily. As a result, Maya’s teaching practice is no longer determined by a pedagogic disposition to dominance.

Maya’s change in her pedagogic disposition to dominance was greatly influenced by her engagement in collegial dialogues. An example of collegial dialogue transcriptions is found below.

JOKO: Or maybe you can also do brainstorming when you test them?
HANI: Or maybe you can use movies? You never do it right?
JOKO: Where is your class? In traditional or multimedia language laboratory?
MAYA: In traditional language laboratory. If I want to move my Listening class to Multimedia one, who should I contact?
ANDI: Yes. You can move your class to the multimedia laboratory. You just need to contact Mr. Tamam or Mrs. Arining. I have Mrs. Arining’s phone number if you want. I think using video in your Listening class will be more effective. I am also teaching Listening subject this semester. My students are active and their grades are just fine. I have some good videos for teaching Listening as well. If you want to, I can lend them to you.
MAYA: Wow, that’s great.

The collegial dialogues provide Maya with opportunities to hear from other teachers how she might address the limitations in her teaching practices. By sharing her thoughts about the monotonous nature of her teaching with her colleagues, they were able to provide suggestions on how to use a greater variety of teaching materials during her listening classes. In addition, as a result of the collegial dialogues, Maya was motivated to move her class to the multimedia laboratory where she could utilise audio and video devices. Maya’s awareness of her teaching limitations and her inability to resolve her
issues alone encouraged to make use of collegial dialogue as a mediating tool in order to facilitate her development.

The multimedia laboratory enabled Maya to engage in more interesting teaching and learning practices. She decided to use more interesting teaching materials than simple pre-recorded cassettes. In addition to the use of the textbook, *Listen Carefully*, Maya also selected various videos from YouTube and the British Council for use. Some were authentic listening materials and others were adapted for listening classroom. The students now had their own computer with headsets to watch the videos. Maya’s teaching was reorganised to make it more varied including the introduction of the following practices: brainstorming activities emerging from referential questions provided to the students related to the discussion topic; introducing and discussing difficult vocabulary items in the video as pre-activities; playing the video and discussing the content; and answering questions related to the video as a post-activity. The brainstorming activity helped Maya to generate greater student interaction and to provide students with more opportunities to express their ideas in English. This is evidenced in the excerpt below taken from a recording of Maya’s lesson:

*The topic for listening class will be “Going Abroad”. Maya asks some referential questions before she comes to the discussion topic]*

MAYA: Do you have a plan to go abroad?
SANTI: Yes to German.
MAYA: Germany? Why Germany?
SANTI: Because I want to meet national team football.
MAYA: Football national team.
SANTI: Yes, football national team and I want to visit all cities.
MAYA: Okay, so you want to visit all cities in Germany. So you love Germany?
SANTI: Yes mam.
MAYA: Okay, how about others? [Chorifa raises her hand] Yes, Chorifa, where do you want to go?
CHORIFA: Singapore.
MAYA: Why?
CHORIFA: Nothing.
MAYA: So you want do nothing in Singapore?
CHORIFA: I want to visit Universal Studio.
MAYA: Only that place?
CHORIFA: I also want to visit Sentosa Island and Singapore Zoo.
As the above excerpt illustrates, Maya invited the students to express their ideas in English by asking a referential question, that is a question that has no specific answer and is used to encourage genuine communication. Furthermore, an analysis of the classroom discourse shows that rather than making evaluative comments, Maya provides an interactive type of feedback to expand or modify the students’ response. This is apparent when she replies to the students: “Germany? Why Germany?”; “Why? So you want do nothing in Singapore?”; and “Only that place?” In other words, Maya does demonstrate the minimum IRF interaction, but uses the third turn to invite further opportunities for the students to practice the target language. This is because the IRF pattern promotes further interaction more effectively if the teacher employs the third turn to facilitate further opportunities for interaction rather than using evaluative feedback (Anton, 1999; Hall, 1998; Hall & Walsh, 2002; Ohta, 2001; Walsh, 2002). In addition, in the above excerpt when Maya asks, “how about others?” she does not nominate which students answer her question. Instead, she lets the students answer voluntarily.

Another example of how Maya provides the opportunity for students to answer questions voluntarily can be seen in the following excerpt:

MAYA: All right. What about number two? Before I play the recording again, anyone wants to answer? [looking to entire class]
FEBRI: Yes Ma’am. Mexico City [Febri provides an answer voluntarily].
MAYA: Okay, Mexico City. And then, the departure time?
FEBRI: Um…..16:45.
MAYA: Yes 16:45. Good.

The above excerpt shows that rather than nominating which students answer her questions, Maya invites them to answer on their own accord by asking, “anyone wants to answer?” This implies that Maya has become more “democratic” and less “dominant” as a teacher.

Data from the video recording of Maya’s lessons conducted after she engaged in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities also demonstrates that she does not try to exercise too much control over the students’ learning. She not only employs more interesting teaching activities, she also listens to what the students want in the class activities. Moreover, she then asks students for their opinion about the teaching material
she has provided. The excerpt below shows how Maya listens to the students comments about what they want to learn:

MAYA: Okay, good. So we are finished with activity two and we still have 10 minutes.
STUDENTS: Song Ma’am song [some students say eagerly].
MAYA: Okay, I will give you music.

As the above excerpt illustrates, Maya does not try to over-control what the students need to learn. She allows the students to determine the content of some teaching time (10 minutes). She agrees to play a song as a variation in her teaching to create a more relaxed atmosphere. In addition, on a different occasion, Maya also asked the students about the level of difficulty of the material she provided to them as shown in the short excerpt below:

[After discussing two different source materials Maya asks the students for their opinion of the materials]
MAYA: Okay, Which one is more difficult, this one or previous one?
STUDENTS: The previous.

The above excerpt indicates that Maya is concerned about the teaching material she delivers to the students. It seems Maya wants to provide materials that are suitable to the students’ ability.

The video data also shows that Maya reduces the amount of time she spends talking by inviting the students to be more active in the classroom discussion. She prefers to address the questions to entire class, as shown in the excerpt below:

MAYA: How can the man get to the office?
STUDENTS: On foot!!! [entire class is answering all together, loudly and enthusiastically]
MAYA: Okay, on foot. How long does it take?
STUDENTS: 20 minutes!!! [again, entire class is answering all together, loudly and enthusiastically]
MAYA: Yes 20 minutes. And what time he needs to go from the hotel?
STUDENTS: 9.30.
MAYA: Okay, 9:30. Great!
As evidenced in the above excerpt, Maya discusses some questions related to the conversation she previously played to the students and they answer her questions eagerly. This eagerness suggests that the atmosphere in Maya’s classroom is more relaxed and that the students now want to actively participate in the classroom discussion. In addition, Maya provides more opportunities to the students to ask questions following her explanation and discussion of the topic. “That’s all from video, do you have questions?” is an example of how she invites the students to participate.

Maya utilises the whiteboard to explain the learning material to the students more often following the move to the multimedia laboratory. This technique helps the students to understand her explanations. Overall, the atmosphere of her class is more relaxed and enjoyable and as a result many students are active in the teaching and learning process. They are enthusiastic to answer Maya’s questions. Maya commented, “I changed my teaching strategy after engaging in teacher self-evaluation activity to have better teaching so that my students can understand what I explain and get what they want and I want in that teaching” (Interview 3, 06/06/2012). In other words, teacher self-evaluation functioned as a mediational activity to direct Maya’s thinking to implement more interesting and engaging teaching and learning practices. Vygotsky argued that culturally constructed and organised means mediate human consciousness (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, p. 60). In this sense, Maya became aware of now her teaching practice was a manifestation of her pedagogic disposition to dominance and this awareness has driven Maya to improve her practice.

When Maya was asked about her opinion following her use of more interesting teaching material in the multimedia laboratory, she remarked:

My students were very passive before. They are now more active. When I ask something, they can answer correctly and I don’t need to repeat my questions many times, maybe two times is enough. It’s different when I only used audio in my class in which I have to repeat my questions many times until four times for certain part of discussion (Interview 3, 06/06/2012).

Maya’s comments are indicative of how the mediational artefacts in the multimedia laboratory such as the computer, video, and headsets have contributed to the change in her pedagogic disposition. This suggests that her self-evaluation experiences have helped her to change her habitus, reflecting the argument that “habitus is an open system of dispositions that is constantly subjected to experiences, and therefore constantly
affected by them” (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p. 133). In addition, Maya’s video recording and student feedback data affirmed to her the monotonous nature of her teaching style. As a result, Maya became more self-conscious of her limitations and subsequently made an effort to address her weaknesses by employing more attractive teaching strategies; most notably the use of more varied teaching materials in the multimedia laboratory. This supports Roth’s (2002) claim that habitus can be changed through particular forms of self-consciousness and actions. The next subsection of the chapter discusses the changes in Maya’s pedagogic habitus to formality/distance.

5.6.2 Changes in pedagogic disposition to formality/distance

Data from the video recording of Maya’s lessons – conducted after she participated in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities – her interview responses, and researcher observation notes suggest that Maya has transformed herself into a friendlier teacher who has a more positive relationship with the students. In this sense, Maya’s engagement in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities helped her to change her pedagogic disposition to formality/distance and transform her identity as a teacher and her teaching practice. Maya no longer makes discouraging comments to the students, she refers to them by their names, and she often compliments to the students on their work.

When Maya asks a student to answer a question and the student remains silent, rather than making a discouraging comment, Maya is more willing to provide the student with more time to provide an answer as illustrated in the excerpt below:

[After listening to a recorded conversation, Maya asks some questions related to the content]

MAYA: What excuse do they decide to use? [A student, Putri, seems want to answer] What is it?

Putri?

PUTRI: Hmm … repeat please.

MAYA: Do you want me to repeat it? Okay then [replaying the conversation in the video].

MAYA: Yes, Putri? [waiting for an answer]

PUTRI: [Keeping silent for some time].

MAYA: Or others can help?

ALL STUDENTS: [keeping silent for quite long time].

MAYA: What excuses do they decide to use finally? [a student, Edo, wants to answer] Yes Edo?

EDO: Ehm … prior engagement.

MAYA: Prior engagement? Okay, that’s the excuse they finally use.
As in the above excerpt, Maya displays greater patience towards the students when seeking a response. When she directed a question to Putri, who asked Maya to replay the conversation, Maya acknowledged Putri’s request by replaying the conversation. After providing Putri with adequate time to answer her question, and when an answer was still not forthcoming, Maya then directed her question to another other student. This teaching action demonstrates how Maya has become more patient, sensitive, and responsive to the students. The above excerpt also reveals that Maya is familiar with the students’ names (e.g. Putri and Edo).

Although Maya still predominantly responds to a correct answer from the students with the expression, “okay”, she also includes other forms of praise towards students who are able to answer her questions correctly. One such example is her use of the expression, “very good” and “well done”. The following excerpt taken from a video recording of Maya’s lesson is an example how Maya compliments the students.

[Maya is discussing a question in the textbook]
MAYA: Okay, now we move to number 5. So what is it?
RINA: Play tennis on Sunday afternoon.
MAYA: Play tennis on Sunday afternoon (repeating and emphasizing Rina’s correct answer).
Very good! And what is the answer?
STUDENTS: No (some students answer together).
MAYA: No (repeating and emphasizing the students’ correct answer). What does she say?
AHMAD: I have friends coming on Sunday afternoon I’m afraid.
MAYA: yup, well done!

The above excerpt illustrates how Maya provides affirmative feedback to the student’s responses. Another example of Maya’s new positive approach, as shown in the excerpt below, is how she shows her appreciation for the student’s response even though the response is not correct:

MAYA: [A student, Wihelmina, wants to answer] Yes, Wihelmina?
WIHELMINA: Ee behind I don’t know the name but bla bla hotel.
MAYA: Behind bla bla hotel. Okay. More ideas?
ROHMAT: They can stay bla bla bla building hotel
[Entire class are laughing]
MAYA: Okay, nice try Rohmat [smiling]. [A student, Florence, is raising her hand] Ehm … Florence, please.
Maya’s use of the expression, “nice try”, to compliment the student’s effort to answer the question, is likely to motivate the students to be more active in class activities. In other words, Maya starts to use positive reinforcement more often and as a result the students appear to be more relaxed and motivated throughout the lesson.

Another change in Maya’s teaching behaviour is her use of the students’ names when interacted with them. For example, she refers to the students by name (e.g., Wihelmina, Rohmat and Florence) when she asks them to answer her questions. The following excerpt drawn from the video recording of her lesson provides further examples of how she is attempting to be more familiar with the students:

[The topic for the lesson is “invitation”. Maya chooses a video from the British Council. After watching the video, Maya poses some questions to the students]
MAYA: And what about the dress code for the gathering?
STUDENTS: Formal dress [answering together].
MAYA: What does it mean? What does formal dress mean? What we call it? [A student, Ahmad, is raising his hand] Yes, Ahmad?
AHMAD: Maybe use ehm like almamaters [other students laugh].
MAYA: Okay, ? [A student, Katrine, is raising his hand] Katrine?
KATRINE: Use t-shirt.
MAYA: Use or wear?
MAYA: Okay, so use and wear are not the same. Everything attached to our body, we have to use word wear: wear glasses, wear rings, wear trousers, wear shoes, wear socks. And for use, you use something to do another thing. Let’s say: I will use my glasses to hit Neta. If I put it here [putting her glasses on], I’m wearing glasses. So you got the difference?

As evidenced in the above, and many previous excerpts, Maya now refers to the students by name (e.g., Ahmad, Katrine and Neta) when interacting with them. Thus, Maya shows she is familiar with the students’ names and starts to use this knowledge to facilitate a higher quality level of interaction with them (rather than use the expression, “You”). Using the students’ names during the interactive process demonstrates to the students that Maya recognises them as individuals and this enables Maya to establish a stronger teacher-student relationship. As a result, there is an increase in the level of student participation in the class activity.
Furthermore, based on the video recording of the lesson, Maya also makes an effort to learn the students’ names by reading from the attendance list as shown in the following excerpt:

MAYA: Is there any music at the gathering?
STUDENTS: Yes.
MAYA: Why?
STUDENTS: [Answering differently].
MAYA: Okay, maybe I’ll ask one of you. Kistiana [checking the name from the student list]. Which one is Kristiana?

The above excerpts show that although May does not remember the names of all of her students, she tries to familiarise herself with them by reading from the attendance list. This indicates that Maya understands that knowing the students’ names is important to establishing positive teacher-student relations.

Further evidence that demonstrates how Maya has changed her pedagogic disposition to formality/distance is her intention to occasionally include joke-telling into her teaching practice. An example of this is provided in the excerpt below:

[Maya is discussing the exercises in the listening textbook. After listening to a taped conversation she poses the following question to the students]
MAYA: Who is calling?
STUDENTS: Nigel [student answer together]
MAYA: Paijo? [mentioning an Indonesian name]
STUDENTS: [Students laugh].

As in the above excerpt, Maya tried to create a more relaxed atmosphere in her classroom by making a joke. The students laugh when Maya uses the expression, “Paijo” because in the Indonesian context, Paijo is a funny name for some people who come from a small village. Maya’s use of humour helps the students to feel more comfortable in the class and to increase their level of enthusiasm. As such, the use of humour minimises Maya’s disposition to formality/distance. Another example of Maya use of humour during her listening class is shown in the excerpt below:
The discussion topic of the lesson is personal profile and Maya is asking relatively personal questions to the students including Edo whose hair is coloured red.

MAYA: Mention your name and your phone number.
EDO: Edo, I’m Edo and my number is 485758846226
MAYA: Okay. Where are you from?
EDO: Samarinda
MAYA: Oh from Samarinda. I thought you’re from America because your hair is red [students laugh].

In the Indonesian context, it is uncommon to see a person with coloured hair as most Indonesians have dark hair. When Maya said, “I thought you’re from America because your hair is red” in response to the student’s answer, she once again displays her sense of humour to the class and this invites the students to laugh.

Overall, the findings illustrate that after engaging in teacher self-evaluation as a mediational activity, Maya’s teaching practice is no longer driven by a pedagogic habitus to formality/distance. Maya has transformed into a friendlier teacher who establishes a better relationship with the students. Maya agreed: “I now have a more intense interaction with my students. I always try to be their friend so that they will feel comfortable to interact with me” (Interview 3, 06/06/2012). When asked about how teacher self-evaluation helped her, Maya asserted:

What I can learn from the teacher self-evaluation activity is that I can see myself when I was teaching. I then have a kind of reflection like I should do this should do that, trying to be better. I’m trying to be better, especially to have louder voice in explaining in front of the class. I’m also trying to give compliments to my students though it’s not easy because I always forget to do that (Interview 3, 06/06/2012).

The above statements imply that the process of self-evaluation has helped Maya to reflect on her teaching practices to identify what aspects need to improve. As stated previously, teacher self-evaluation ‘disrupts’ Maya’s identity as a teacher as well as her perspective of her teaching practice. These productive disruptions lead Maya to reflect upon her teaching which in turn leads her to understand that her identity limits her fit in her field and that a new identity needs to be developed. As stated in Chapter 4, Maya’s field values communicative and friendly teachers. Maya, therefore, needs to transform her identity in order to demonstrate a “feel for the game” in the field. This is in line with
Beauchamp and Thomas’ (2009) claim that reflection on practice should be considered “as a key means by which teachers can become more in tune with their sense of self and with a deep understanding of how this self fits into a larger context which involve others; in other words, reflection is a factor in the shaping of identity” (p. 182). As a result, Maya now has the motivation to transform her identity and to identify a new ‘possible self’ in the sense of the “individual’s ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming” (Stake, 2006, p. 954). She said, “engaging in self-evaluation activity made me realize that I was sometimes too judgmental to my students and unfriendly so that they seemed afraid of me. Actually, I don’t want to be that kind of teacher. I want to be a friendlier teacher (Interview 3, 06/06/2012). This statement indicated that productive disruptions that emerged from the process of self-evaluation informed Maya that she was unfriendly and judgmental to the students. This ‘actual self’ encouraged her to make efforts to become a friendlier teacher, an ‘ideal self’ by changing her pedagogic disposition to formality/distance. In other words, the discrepancy between Maya’s ‘ideal self’ and her ‘actual self’ provides a motivational push to change (Higgins, 1987).

Furthermore, as explained in Chapter 2, Polman (2010) proposed the notion of a zone of proximal identity development (ZPID) to explain the development of an individual’s identity. Maya was in the ZPID because she was able to transform her “unfriendly and judgmental” identity into a “friendly” identity. This suggests Maya has developed her identity beyond the already-achieved state because she is capable of recognising and exploring her past identity through her engagement in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities. We can thus see how the range of teacher self-evaluation instruments including the lesson video recordings, teacher self-reflection questions, student feedback, and collegial dialogue provided significant scaffolding enabling Maya’ zone of proximal identity development. The next subsection discusses the durability of Maya’s pedagogic disposition to accuracy/perfectionism.

5.6.3 Durability in pedagogic disposition to accuracy/perfectionism

The video recording of Maya’s lessons, her interview statements, and the classroom observation notes revealed that she did not change her pedagogic disposition to accuracy/perfectionism. Rather, she kept using English at all times when teaching in order to train the students to pronounce English words and use English grammar.
correctly. Her persistence in this approach was most likely because she considered this to be one of her main teaching strengths. Maya commented, “what I can see as the strength in my teaching is my use of English in the class. I almost used English all the time when I was teaching” (Interview 3, 06/06/2012). Maya clearly wanted to sustain and improve this strength as part of being an effective teacher to the students. In addition, as stated in the previous section, Maya’s disposition to accuracy/perfectionism was largely influenced by her educational experiences under the tuition of perfectionist teachers. This supports the view that Maya’s habitus is embedded in her teaching routine and is thus highly resistant to change (Barbara & Robert, 1990).

Furthermore, Nolan (2012, p. 104) claimed that “similar to a game, social fields are constructed with specific structures and rules, and the relative smoothness of the game/field often depends upon the players blindly accepting and following these rules, regardless of how arbitrary they might seem.” Accordingly, Maya is able to attain more capital and “play in the game” if she accepts and follows the rules in her field. As stated in Chapter 4, the students of KUM as a key element of Maya’s field value competent teachers with good English. Maya’s maintenance of her pedagogic disposition to accuracy/perfectionism can thus be seen as part of her “feel for the game”.

5.7 Summary

To sum up, the findings of this chapter identified three aspects of pedagogic habitus that generate Maya’s teaching practice: a disposition to dominance; a disposition to formality/distance (both of which did not suit the needs in her field); and a disposition to accuracy/perfectionism (which was valued in her field). In order to be able to improve her teaching, Maya needed to change her pedagogic disposition to dominance and formality/distance. Through her engagement in teacher mediated self-evaluation, Maya was able to learn about her identity as a teacher and the quality of her teaching. Maya then developed motivation to build on her strengths and improve upon her weaknesses to improve the learning outcomes of the students. As a result, Maya was able to change her pedagogic disposition to dominance and formality/distance.

The findings of this chapter indicate that teacher self-evaluation can be a promising way to reflect on teaching practice. It helps teachers to identify the strong aspects of their practice, as well as the weaknesses, which may need to be changed and improved. Therefore, the implications from the analyses in this chapter are that Maya is
able to take the initiative and responsibility to continue to engage in self-evaluation of her teaching practices to improve her teaching skills over time. To facilitate this, the institution could encourage her in doing this by providing opportunity and supervision for such a process. Furthermore, as explained in this chapter, the transition away from Maya’s pedagogic disposition to dominance was further afforded by the use of the new multimedia laboratory. This suggests that further benefits could accrue if the institution provided teachers, particularly listening teachers, with the multimedia laboratory to ensure more effective teaching and learning process can be implemented. The institution could also encourage collegial dialogue among teachers by providing staff rooms. The findings of this chapter suggest that Maya learned to provide and receive useful feedback on her teaching based on similar experiences through collegial dialogue. Such mediational practices can provide the context for collaborative inquiry among teachers to support each other in moving towards a shared vision of improved practice (Morgan & Symon, 2004). The next chapter discusses pedagogic habitus and the durability and changes in pedagogic habitus as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation of second case study teacher, Andi.
6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter examined Maya’s pedagogic habitus and the extent to which it was capable of changing as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation. The findings revealed that Maya’s teaching practices were driven by her pedagogic habitus of dominance, formality/distance, and accuracy/perfectionism. A range of practices utilised by her for the self-evaluation process helped her to identify areas of improvements in regards to her teaching practice and her professional identity. Maya was then able to view her “future self” and commence the transformation process into a teacher more suited to the needs of her field and, in turn, improve her instructional practice. As such, Maya succeeded in changing her pedagogic disposition to dominance and formality/distance through her engagement in teacher self-evaluation as a mediational activity.

Throughout this chapter, Andi’s (pseudonym) pedagogic habitus and the way in which it generates his teaching practice is described and analysed. The extent to which mediated self-evaluation can assist Andi to change his pedagogic habitus is also examined. The organisation of this chapter, which is guided by Bourdieu’s sociological and Vygotsky’s sociocultural theories, adopts the following outline. Firstly, a profile of Andi is provided including his family background, education history, and teaching experiences. Secondly, the focus moves to Andi’s capital and how it becomes a resource to empower his teaching practice. Thirdly, Andi’s initial pedagogic habitus is described based on data from video recordings of his lessons (commenced at the beginning of the self-evaluation activities), responses provided by him during interviews, and my observation field notes. Fourthly, this chapter describes the productive disruptions to Andi’s identity as a teacher that emerged from his self-evaluation of his teaching practices. Finally, this chapter examines durability and change in Andi’s pedagogic habitus as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation. Overall, the structure for this chapter is derived from, and directed towards answering, the following research questions:
1. What is the nature of Andi’s pedagogic habitus (dispositions and beliefs)?
2. To what extent is Andi’s pedagogic habitus capable of change as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation?

6.2 Andi’s background

Andi, a 30-year-old male, initially did not want to be a teacher. He considered teaching to be a monotonous occupation. He grew up watching his father, an elementary school teacher; go through the same routine every day: leave for school in the morning, return home in the afternoon, and prepare teaching materials for the following day in the evening. However, Andi’s father wanted him and his daughter to follow in his footsteps and become a teacher. As a result, Andi chose to study English education as his major at university and this experience changed his perception of teaching. He started to think that being a lecturer would be a challenging and interesting occupation, and this inspired him to pursue this as a career path. After a number of years teaching at this level, Andi remains pleased with career choice as the following excerpt indicates:

Being a lecturer enables me to meet new people, new students every semester and I can do many new things unlike an elementary school teacher who teaches the same subject in her whole lifetime. One day I had a wish to be a lecturer, but I did not tell anyone about that. Because I had that willingness and made an effort, I can finally become a lecturer like now (Interview 3, 13/06/2012).

As evidenced in the above statements, Andi enjoys being a lecturer as he can teach different subjects every semester with different students. He also feels that being a lecturer is a great accomplishment that required considerable effort to achieve.

After earning a Bachelor’s degree in education from Kanjuruhan University of Malang (KUM), Andi applied to teach at schools in Malang. He went through the recruitment processes, but when it came to the final stage, he decided to withdraw because he would be required to work as a full-time teacher who also had administrative responsibilities. At that time, Andi wanted to be a part-time teacher as he planned to continue his study to earn a Master’s degree, which he knew was required if he was to become a lecturer. Andi eventually accepted employment at The British Institute (TBI) and found it a good place to work because he received regular teaching workshops, class observations by the school leader, and had the opportunity to share teaching
materials and lesson plans with his colleagues. Moreover, TBI provided helpful teaching resources such as books, teaching media and realia. While teaching at TBI, Andi continued to study at a private university in Malang.

While pursuing his Master’s degree, Andi had the opportunity to teach at KUM in 2009 and, upon finishing his study in 2011, he was assigned as a permanent lecturer at the university. Andi therefore had a very full teaching schedule, as he was still teaching at TBI. At KUM, Andi taught various subjects including Reading, Vocabulary, Speaking, Listening, and English Phonology. Andi realised being a lecturer required continuous professional improvement. In turn, when asked what area of his teaching he thought he needed to improve he responded, “I need to improve my mastery of the materials I’m going to give to my students because I do not have a lot of teaching experiences so that I need to read a lot of teaching books” (Interview 3, 13/06/2012). Not surprisingly, as a novice teacher, Andi was concerned about his level of expertise. In addition, Andi found that he still needed to improve his English speaking skills, especially his pronunciation. He revealed:

At the beginning of my teaching career, I felt like I lack my speaking ability, especially pronunciation. I sometimes realised that I have mispronounced some words. I then asked colleagues to practice their English with me and from that I was able to identify some mispronounced words and tried to be better (Interview 1, 18/10/2011).

As we can see, Andi considers pronunciation is essential for understanding spoken English well. Having good and correct pronunciation plays an important role in communication and empowers Andi to be a good model for his students. In addition to practising English speaking with his colleagues, Andi liked to download English materials from the Internet, watch English movies with subtitles, and read English books to improve his professionalism. Although teaching at TBI provided Andi with the opportunity to participate in a number of workshops on English teaching, he still looked for additional workshops to attend to improve his skills. He stated, “I really like participating in workshops because there must be something new that I can learn” (Interview 1, 18/10/2011). Andi’s efforts to always improve his professionalism demonstrate that he is a teacher who is dedicated to improving himself in order to be a more effective teacher to the students. Indeed, Andi displays some of the attributes associated with transformative teacher professionalism proposed by Sachs (2003):
collaborative and collegial, activist in orientation, responsive to change, self-regulating, and knowledge building. Andi is collaborative and collegial as he shared his teaching matter with his colleagues; he is activist in orientation given he has a willingness to be active to improve his professionalism; he is responsive to change because he always works at becoming a better teacher; he is self-regulating because he has motivation to always improve his professionalism by developing his teaching skills; and he is oriented to knowledge building because of his efforts to always develop his expertise as a teacher. In other words, Andi is driven to continuously improve his teaching practice. The next section discusses Andi’s capital and how it emerges and how it enables him to act in his field.

6.3 Andi’s capital

A teacher is only able to act in the field if he or she possesses the necessary resources or capital to produce effects within it (Bourdieu, 1986). Andi attains physical embodied cultural capital because of his friendly face which supports his image as a caring teacher. He also possesses personal institutionalized capital in the forms of choice of attire, sense of humour, confidence, enthusiasm for teaching, and ability to speak English fluently. Teachers’ choice of clothing impacts their students’ view of them as profession. Andi loves wearing dark coloured formal clothing when teaching, which is considered to be appropriate attire in his field. Moreover, Andi has a great sense of humour, which is a valuable asset as a teacher, as it helps to create a relaxed classroom environment. This is because the use of humour discourages anxiety and fear among the students, stimulates curiosity and interest towards learning, and fosters a positive relationship between the teacher and the student (Purdue, 2001).

In addition, although Andi is a novice teacher, he demonstrates enough self-confidence when he is teaching. This helps him to teach effectively as he is able to stand in front of the class and present material in a relaxed and engaging manner. Andi also exhibits great enthusiasm in the classroom and this helps to further engage the students’ interest in his lesson. Andi is able to speak English fluently and is thus a good role model as a target language user. In other words, the physical embodied and personal institutionalized cultural capital Andi possesses is the resource, which allows him to yields power in his field. The next section of the chapter examines Andi’s initial pedagogic habitus, that is the habitus in relation to his instructional practice.
6.4 Andi’s initial pedagogic habitus

The data used to determine Andi’s initial pedagogic habitus emerged from the lesson video recordings conducted at the beginning of the self-evaluation activities, his statements during interviews, and the researcher’s observation notes of his classroom practices. Nolan (2012) states, “habitus operates at various levels—in one’s thoughts, actions, use of language, and in how one embodies experiences of structures and relations” (p. 204). Accordingly, the identification of Andi’s habitus was based on his teaching actions including the way he delivers his lesson, his use of language, the way he interacts with the students, how he manages the class and himself as a teacher; and from his statements during the interviews. Two key aspects of habitus have been identified that consciously or unconsciously in conjunction with his capital generate Andi’s teaching practice: disposition to informality/fun and disposition to dominance. Both are discussed in detail in the subsections below.

6.4.1 Pedagogic disposition to informality/fun

The findings indicated that Andi’s practices were shaped by his pedagogic disposition to informality/fun. Andi acted in a kind, patient, and friendly way towards the students. He often complimented the students, and regularly referred to the students by name. Moreover, he often made jokes or displayed his sense of humour in the classroom. Andi’s pedagogic disposition to informality/fun worked in combination with his accumulated capital and field to generate his practice. Figure 9 below illustrates the relationship between and among Andi’s disposition to informality/fun, capital, practice, and field. The descriptions in the figure begin with the manifestation of Andi’s disposition to informality/fun in his classroom practice including examples taken from the video recording of his lessons. They are followed by explanations of the relation between his pedagogic disposition to informality/fun and capital, field, and practice.
Field

- a private university at Malang, Indonesia
- a large class with mostly low-proficiency students

Pedagogic disposition to informality/fun

Capital

Physical embodied cultural capital
- being kind, patient, and friendly
- complimenting students using students’ names
- making jokes/humour in the class

Personal institutionalized cultural capital
- choice of attire
- sense of humour
- self-confidence
- enthusiasm for teaching
- ability to speak English fluently

Practice

Figure 9: Relationship between Andi’s pedagogic disposition to informality/fun and capital, field, and practice

6.4.1.1 Manifestations of Andi’s pedagogic disposition to informality/fun in his practice

As stated in the previous section, Andi’s pedagogic disposition to informality/fun, in conjunction with his capital, generates his teaching practices (i.e. kind, friendly, complimentary, humorous, etc.). This subsection discusses examples of how these practices are implemented in Andi’s classroom. The excerpt below, taken from a video recording of his lesson, shows how Andi acts in a kind, patient, and friendly manner to his students:

[Andi is teaching Reading Comprehension III to third semester students. There are approximately 40 students in the class, mostly female. He commences the lesson by greeting the students]

ANDI: Good afternoon everyone, how’s your life today? [smiling]

STUDENTS: Fine.

ANDI: Fine?
STUDENTS: So hot.
ANDI: So hot?
STUDENTS: Tired and so hot.
ANDI: I just finished my teaching in H16 room with G class so that I have to run to get here on time.

[Some students are late to class. They stand in front of the classroom door]

ANDI: Yup, come in.

[While the students are looking for the seats, Andi cleans the whiteboard]

ANDI: I’m sorry because last week I couldn’t attend this class. I couldn’t meet you because I was out of town. I was in Bandung, but don’t worry, we’ll still have 16 meetings in total, so we’ll have make-up class later. Okay, in the last two meetings last two weeks I gave you assignments, but before we talk about that, I’d like to review what we’re talking in the previous meeting.

[After some time Andi turns on the fan as it is hot inside the classroom]

As the above excerpt illustrates, Andi acted in a friendly and informal manner towards the students demonstrated through his informal greeting, how’s your life today? to open the lesson. Moreover, he was smiling while he greeted the students and this implies that he wants to establish a close relationship with the students. Andi was also kind to the students. He allowed the students who were late to join the class without making their tardiness an issue. Andi most likely thinks that it is important for the students to feel comfortable during lessons and as a result he is flexible in his management of minor misdemeanours. Andi’s action to erase the content from the white board, turn on the fan himself (commonly the teacher asks one of the students to do that), and apologises to the students to create an image as a patient and kind teacher so that the students will feel comfortable in the class and enjoy the lesson and learn as a result.

Furthermore, before Andi closed the lesson he stated, “I’m sorry because I don’t know what happened with this attendance list as I only find 20 names in this new attendance list. So for those who don’t find their names in the attendance list, please write your name in a piece of paper”. Andi’s use of the words “sorry” and “please” indicates his kindness, politeness and respect for the students. Additionally, data from the video recording of his lessons and the observation notes revealed how Andi always spoke to the students with a warm and professional tone of voice. These practices are generated by Andi’s pedagogic disposition to informality/fun.

Andi’s pedagogic disposition to informality/fun is also manifested through the regular compliments he gives to the students with such expressions as “good”, “very
good”, and “very nice” if they answer his questions correctly. The following excerpts drawn from the video recording further illustrates this point:

ANDI: Yup, next is Milka!
MILKA: Would you like a cigarette? [reading a question in the textbook] No. I don’t smoke [answering the question].
ANDI: All right … good. I don’t smoke [emphasising Milka’s correct answer].

[Andi is discussing a topic about derivative. He asks his students to mention some derivative words]
ANDI: Happen?
STUDENTS: Happening [entire class answers].
ANDI: Hurt?
STUDENTS: Hurting [entire class answers].
ANDI: Hurting. Yup, very good.

As the above excerpts show, Andi responds the students’ answers with expressions such as “good” and “very good” to praise their correct answer. These compliments function as feedback to reinforce the students’ participation and engagement. In addition, after discussing the material with the students, Andi says, “it’s very nice. Everyone answers all the questions correctly”. Thus, Andi not only compliments particular students, he also compliments the entire class to promote a sense of collective effort. This compliment is intended to condition the students to respond positively to the tasks.

Another action of Andi’s, which demonstrates his habitus to informality/fun is his use of the student’s first name when addressing them. This is illustrated in the following excerpt taken from the video recording of his lesson:

ANDI: Ok let’s check it together. We will start from the students at the back. Ilham, number 1 page 10! [pointing to Ilham to answer].
ILHAM: The teacher got Jamal to rewrite the exercises carefully [reading the questions]. They will write the exercises together [reading the correct answer].
ANDI: They will write the exercises together [repeating Ilham’s answer]. How about the others?
OTHER STUDENTS: B! Jamal review the exercises carefully [entire class answers together].
ANDI: Okay, the keyword is rewrite. The meaning is he has already done it before but it’s not satisfying and then he must write it again. So the first attempt he didn’t do his work carefully. So the best answer is B. Good! Number two, Basit! [pointing to Basit to answer the next question].

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As the above excerpt illustrates, Andi refers to the students by their name when he is interacting with them (e.g. Ilham and Basit) which indicates that he has made the effort to familiarise himself with the students’ names. Moreover, even in circumstances where he has forgotten a student’s name, he is prepared to ask the student to remind him (e.g. “what’s your name again?”). This allows Andi to personalise his interactions with the students which, in a large sized class, demonstrates to the students that he wants to acknowledge their identity.

Andi feels that the use of students’ names as a personal touch is essential for good behaviour management that will support him in being an effective teacher. It is a key to building a good and strong relationship with his students. Although remembering students’ names is not an easy task, Andi made a great effort to do just that. By contrast, Maya (the previous case study teacher) was not familiar with her students’ names. When she interacted with them, she referred to them as “you”. Maya did not feel that the use of names when addressing her students was important. As a result, Maya was not approachable and had a pedagogic disposition to formality/distance.

Another of Andi’s teaching actions that demonstrate his disposition to informality/fun is his habit of making jokes/humours in the class. The excerpt below illustrates this point:

ANDI: Next, Tika! [pointing Tika to answer a question]
TIKA: I never eat meat. I’m a vegetarian [reading a question in the textbook].
ANDI: Ok. I’m a vegetarian [emphasising Tika’s correct answer]. Is there anyone who’s a vegetarian here? Ada yg vegetarian? [repeating the question in Indonesian]
STUDENTS: [Staring each other] … Joni! [the students answer together]
ANDI: Joni? Joni is omnivore, eat anything termasuk kursi meja [including chair and table]. [All the students laugh]

From the above excerpt, it is clear that Andi is willing to introduce humour into the interactions with his students in order to create a relaxed classroom atmosphere. The humour invites the students to laugh and this seems to help them to enjoy the lesson. Another example of how Andi uses humour for positive effect is in the following excerpt:
ANDI commences the lesson

ANDI: All right. How’s your study this week?
STUDENTS: Good.
ANDI: As you can see there is a camera. So our lesson today is being recorded. So if you want to be in the video, look at the camera and say hi.

[All the students laugh. One student sitting next to the camera looks at the camera]
ANDI: Yes, you can move in front of the camera and say hi.
[The student then says hi and, again, all of the other students laugh]

The above excerpt shows that Andi’s willingness to display his sense of humour is well received by the students. Makewa, et al. (2011, p. 1) pointed out that “teachers who use humour in teaching are generally rated effective in terms of motivation, creation of engaging lessons, and anxiety reduction in students. The teachers are also rated effective in terms of stimulation”. Accordingly, Andi tries to make the learning process more engaging by creating jokes to make it enjoyable and fun. His use of humour during his lessons is driven by his pedagogic disposition to informality/fun. The next subsection of this chapter examines the relationship between Andi’s pedagogic disposition to informality/fun and capital, field, and practice.

6.4.1.1 Relationship between Andi’s pedagogic disposition to informality/fun and capital, field, and practice

Andi’s pedagogic disposition to informality/fun requires his capital to facilitate his practice in his field. Indeed, Andi’s friendly face, choice of attire, sense of humour, self-confidence, enthusiasm for teaching, and ability to speak English fluently become the resources that provide him with power to implement his pedagogic disposition to informality/fun. Andi acts in a way that is kind, patient, and friendly towards the students, as demonstrated through his preparedness to compliment the students, acknowledge their identities, and share a joke during lessons. Andi asserted:

If I notice even though only one student looked unhappy in my class, it really influences my mood to teach. I will ask myself; “What’s wrong with the student?” “Doesn’t he like my class?” “Does he feel that the material I gave is too difficult for him?”, etc. I always want to make every student interested in my lesson (Interview 1, 18/11/2011).
The above comments demonstrate Andi’s view that the students should enjoy his teaching. He acknowledges that the students’ impression of his teaching influences his motivation to teach. Furthermore, his hope that all of the students are happy in his class and enjoy their learning experience indicates that Andi regards one of the purposes of his teaching as to help the students to enjoy learning. As a result, Andi has a pedagogic disposition to informality/fun that drives the orientation of his practices towards delivering an enjoyable learning experience.

Furthermore, Andi believes that complimenting the students is important:

To me, giving compliments to students is necessary to appreciate the students’ effort in answering the questions. I always try appreciating it no matter what the answer is. Therefore, the students will be more motivated to be active in the process of teaching and learning (Interview 3, 13/06/2012).

Clearly Andi believes that an effective way to motivate students to participate in the learning activities is to praise their efforts. Andi even praises the students when they cannot answer the question entirely correctly to show his appreciation for their attempt and as a way to encourage them to work harder on the next occasion. Andi also indicated, “I try to know my students and remember every student’s name” (Interview 1, 28/12/2011). This statement not only demonstrates that remembering students’ name is important for Andi, it is also indicative of the respect he has for the students and the importance of establishing a good relationship with them.

Andi’s disposition to informality/fun is the result of his past school experience and the social conditions of his instructional practice. Bourdieu claimed that formal education plays a crucial role in the creation of an individual’s habitus (Ferguson & Ladd, 1996). This notion is reflected in Andi’s statement, “I’ve got some favourite lecturers when I took my bachelor degree. They were so kind to every student and had very interesting and creative methods in teaching. They also never gave pressure to their students” (Interview 3, 13/06/2012). Andi’s educational experience at a private university greatly influences the way he teaches in that he tries to replicate the tolerance and professionalism shown by his own teachers (rather than the strict approach associated with public university teachers). Habitus should be considered as the adjustment of a person to the world, or as the guiding map for how one should act (Jenkins, 1992). As such, Andi’s experiences of friendly and fun teachers contribute to
his pedagogic disposition to informality/fun shaping his choice to act in a kind, patient, and friendly manner to his students just as his own teachers did towards him.

On the one hand, Andi’s pedagogic disposition to informality/fun underpins the positive aspects of his interactions with his students and the relaxed classroom atmosphere he creates. On the other hand, it may be argued that the students do not fully respect Andi’s authority as a result of this pedagogic disposition. The video recording and observation data revealed the students sometimes misbehaved and did not always pay attention during lessons, reflecting the difficulties of establishing an effective balance between flexibility and strict control when teaching. To be an effective teacher, Andi must be both warm and demanding. His pedagogic disposition to informality/fun can lead him to be a warm teacher; that is, a teacher who cares for the students and who provides them with emotional support, but he also needs to be demanding; that is, he needs to be a teacher who expects something from the students both in terms of academic work and behaviour (Phelan, 2005). The following subsection of this chapter examines another of Andi’s pedagogical dispositions that shaped his instructional practices.

6.4.2 Pedagogic disposition to dominance

A range of data sources including video recordings of lessons, interviews, and classroom observation notes indicate that Andi also has a pedagogic disposition to dominance. Figure 10 below describes the relationship between Andi’s pedagogic disposition to dominance and capital, field, and practice. The figure is explained in two different sub sections: (1) manifestations of Andi’s disposition to dominance in his classroom practice; and (2) relationship between his pedagogic disposition to dominance and capital, field, and practice.
6.4.2.1 Manifestations of Andi’s pedagogic disposition to dominance in his practice

Andi’s teaching actions show that he has a tendency to dominate the class. He dominates the talk during lessons and he controls the knowledge he imparts to the students, which results in teaching based on one-way communication. The students speak only when Andi asks them to do so. The video recording of his lessons reveals that roughly 75% of the lesson presentation (around 100 minutes) is taken up with talk from Andi; with the remaining 25% of the time allocated to the students to work in groups. However, during the group activity, Andy still ‘controls’ what he wants the students to do. Some students even speak in Indonesian and or in the local language, Javanese, during group discussions. As a result, they do not use opportunities to practice their English with classmates. In addition, Andi is the only one deciding what knowledge is to be imparted to the students. His decision is based largely on what activities are included in the textbook and the students passively receive the
information. As such, Andi’s teaching contrasts with constructivist teaching principles, which support learners to be actively involved in a process of meaning and knowledge construction.

Andi’s disposition to dominance is revealed in his habit of answering his own questions. This, in turn, reflects the fact that he often provided the students with insufficient thinking time to answer the questions. The following example is taken from the video recording of his reading class when he reviews the previous topic on “understanding statements”.

ANDI: You can do some ways to understand the statement. What can you do?
STUDENTS: Find keywords! [answering silently]
ANDI: Find keywords [writing the answer in whiteboard]. And then, what else besides finding keywords? Do you think having a good dictionary is important for you? [giving the clue to the correct answer] Yes! [directly answering his own question] So use dictionary [writing the answer on the whiteboard].

Andi’s tendency to answer his own questions as exemplified above demonstrates pedagogical dominance. Often he provides a direct clue to the answer and then proceeds to answer the question himself, as shown below when he is explaining the lesson material to the students.

[Andi is explaining to the students the nature of different types of sentences]
ANDI: Okay. From these three kinds of sentences, can we determine the difficulty only by looking at simple sentence, compound or complex sentence? No, we can’t because the sentence may be a simple sentence, but the statement maybe not easy to understand. And the sentence is maybe compound and complex sentence, but the statement is easy to understand. So these three kinds of sentences here have the same opportunity to be a problem for you in understanding the statement.

The above excerpt again shows how Andi asks the students a question to get them to think sentence structures, but then directly answers his own question. Indeed, Andi does not provide sufficient time for the students to formulate an answer on their own. This teaching action implies that Andi primarily focuses on the material he gives to the students. He does not pay attention as to whether or not the students fully understand his explanations. As such, Andi dominates in the classroom activity.
A further example of the way in which Andi does not give sufficient time to the students to think about and formulate an answer is illustrated in the following excerpt taken from the video recording of his lesson:

[After reviewing the previous topic, Andi invites the students to discuss the exercises in the textbook]
ANDI: Okay. So, once again grammatical knowledge is also very important. You can also use that as the keywords. Any questions so far? [waiting approximately three seconds for the students to respond]. Okay good! Now we will check your assignment page 10 up to 13.

The above excerpt demonstrates once again that even though Andi provides the students with opportunities to ask him questions about the topic discussed he often does not provide them with the time required to formulate their questions. In the excerpt above, he answers his own question by saying, “okay, good”. The students would probably require more time to think about what they would like to ask. Thus, it may be argued that Andi’s question, any questions so far? is only expressed as a formality without a real intention to encourage the students to ask.

Another teaching practice of Andi’s that is generated from his pedagogic disposition to dominance is nominating which students are to answer his questions rather than allowing the students to answer voluntarily. An example of this action taken from the video recording of his lesson is provided in the excerpt below:

[Andi is asking the students to answer the multiple questions in the exercise book and is discussing the correct answer]
ANDI: Number 2. Let’s start with Sulistiawan! [asking Sulistiawan to answer]
SULISTIAWAN: Padi wrote a letter to Susana before he wrote a letter to the bank. Afterwards, he wrote the letter to his cousin, Mahfud [reading the question in the textbook]. D [suggesting the correct answer].
ANDI: So, first wrote to Susana and then the second to the bank and then the third to Mahfud. Yes, D [emphasising Sulistiawan’s correct answer]. Okay, next! [pointing to Siska who sits next to Sulistiawan]

By deciding which students were to answer the questions, Andi thus excludes other students from the opportunity to volunteer. His behaviour indicates how he dominates the class by limiting the students’ opportunity to self-direct their learning and to express their ideas. Hence, Andi action of asking the students to answer the questions by
pointing to them reflects his attitude towards student participation, that is, passive learning by the students by way of minimal participation. In addition, students who are nominated to answer the question may feel uncomfortable or anxious as a result of their coerced participation.

The excerpt below provides another example of how Andi nominates which students are to answer his questions:

[Andi is discussing the questions in the textbook and asking the students to answer them]
ANDI: Next, Nella [pointing to Nella].
NELLA: Both my parents wear glasses. I don’t want to wear glasses when I’m grown up [reading an answer in the textbook].
ANDI: Yes, both my parents wear glasses. Good. Priska? [pointing to Priska].
PRISKA: My grandmother is called, Theresa [reading an answer in the textbook].
ANDI: Yup, good. Next is Rosaline [pointing to Rosaline].
ROSALINE: My wife and the children are the best thing in my life. I love them [reading an answer in the textbook].
ANDI: Okay. Florentina [pointing to Florentina].

Although both excerpts above indicate that Andi determines which students answer the questions; there is a difference in how he does it. In the first excerpt, Andi nominates the students to answer in sequence, row by row. By contrast, in the second excerpt, Andi determines which students are to answer the questions by calling out their name (e.g. Nella, Priska, Rosaline and Florentina). Both examples above suggest Andi does not let the students participate by volunteering answers. Furthermore, data from the video recordings of Andi’s lessons show he often asks non-communicative display questions rather than the referential questions. As a result, Andi does not encourage student participation nor provide opportunities for the students to express their opinions. Andi’s way of interacting with the students is mostly through a material mode as evidenced in the above excerpt. The sequence is classic IRF (teacher Initiation, learner Response, teacher Feedback).

Initiation: Next, Nella.
Response: Both my parents wear glasses. I don’t want to wear glasses when I’m grown up [reading an answer in the textbook].
Feedback: Yes, both my parents wear glasses. Good. Priska?
As in the example above, Andi repeats the student’s response as a way to provide feedback to the student. He does not use the third turn to encourage further opportunity for interaction and “very little interactional space or choice of topic are afforded as the interaction is focused exclusively on the material” (Walsh, 2010, p. 128). In other words, Andi requires the students to listen and respond, but the questions he asks are not conducive to discussion. The questions are used to check comprehension rather than to develop thinking or interaction.

Generally speaking, Andi’s teaching practice is shaped by his pedagogic disposition to dominance and informality/fun. This implies that Andi wants to build a strong and positive relationship with his students, but at the same time he does not promote active learning for his students. Andi does not encourage the students to be involved in class participation other than at the level of providing single responses. As a result, although Andi is able to create a relaxed classroom environment, the students do not actively participate in class activity and do not learn maximally. The relationship between Andi’s pedagogic disposition to dominance and capital, field, and practice is discussed in the following subsection.

6.4.2.2 Relationship between Andi’s pedagogic disposition to dominance and capital, field, and practice

Andi can only participate in his field because of the capital he has. Moreover, Andi’s habitus determines the manner in which he uses his capital. The habitus then shapes his teaching practice in his field. Thus, the relationship of habitus, field, and capital shapes Andi’s practices. Accordingly, Andi’s capital, in particular, his personal institutionalized cultural capital including his self-confidence, his enthusiasm for teaching, and his ability to speak English fluently function as the resources, which support his practices and pedagogic disposition to dominance. Andi tends to dominate the talk in the classroom. He often answers his own questions and does not give sufficient thinking time to the students to formulate a verbal response, while he nominates which students are to answer his questions. During the initial interview conducted before Andi engaged in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities, Andi was asked what he thought were his teaching strengths. He answered, “I think I always try to balance between the portion of my talk and students talk. I also try to interact with
students more so that I won’t dominate the class” (Interview 1, 18/11/2011). This response indicates that Andi is not aware that he has a pedagogic disposition to dominance that guides his instructional practice since habitus” beyond the grasp of consciousness” (Bourdieu, 1977, p. 94). This is in line with Jenkins’s (1992) claim that habitus is embodied through manner, styles, gait and language and unconsciously generates action. Therefore, it may be argued that Andi’s practice is unconsciously shaped by his pedagogic disposition to dominance. Consequently, he dominates the class talk and the students are positioned as passive learners and listeners during lessons.

Noble (2011, p. 51) asserted that “habitus is learned or adopted, and for teachers this has traditionally been scaffolding in and around the classroom and school”. As the following excerpt shows, Andi may be adopting some of the practices of his own teachers or lecturers:

Almost all of my teachers in junior and senior high school had teacher-centred instruction. They always gave the students tasks to merely rewrite the textbooks or ask one of the students to write on the blackboard and other students copied it in their books. They even sometimes got out the class and came back when the class was over. When I entered the college, some of my lecturers had teacher-centred instruction as well. They were the ones who talk all the time in front of the class almost for two hours. The students did not have enough opportunity to speak up and express their ideas. Some lecturers even often talked about their personal experiences such as about their family (Interview 3, 13/06/2012).

As evidenced in the above statements, Andi is familiar with teacher-centred instruction as a result of his own educational experiences. The statements suggest he was a passive learner and merely a good listener for his teacher. These experiences shape Andi’s thinking about how to teach. Hence, Andi is a product of apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975) in that his experiences have provides him with a powerful understanding of teaching and of what teachers typically do (Brosnan, 2010).

Furthermore, Roth (2002) pointed out:

When novice teachers first begin teaching, they often act in ways consistent with past experiences and thereby reproduce the structures that they themselves had been subject to. Although they have not yet (or little) participated in teacher-student interaction from the teacher’s point of view, their habitus (system of structured structuring dispositions) structures the way they question, itself
having been structured by the questioning sequenced they experienced with their own teachers (p. 47).

Andi’s pedagogic disposition to dominance is consistent with his past experiences. Teacher-centred instruction has become an education issue in Asian countries including Indonesia. Particular focus is placed on the issues related to the teacher dominating the classroom talk and with students being positioned as passive learners who are taught to be obedient and respectful to teachers. As a result, there are few opportunities for students to demonstrate critical thinking related to the learning activities in the classroom. Andi is the product of this old-fashioned instruction method and these methods have influenced his own teaching actions.

Similar to the case of Maya in the previous chapter, Andi’s pedagogic disposition to dominance significantly influences the students’ learning in the class. They tend to be overly dependent on Andi for their learning content, direction, and goals as he alone determines what is taught and how it is taught. The students are not encouraged to develop their skills during lessons. To create a more effective teaching and learning process which supports and encourages students to fully engage in the class activities, Andi should work with the students to ensure they benefit from his lesson. Andi should allow space for the students to develop their thinking skills by reducing the amount of time he spends talking during lessons, and by providing a sufficient amount of thinking time to the students. Andi also needs to provide more opportunities for the students to express their ideas and opinion during the class activities rather than nominating which students are to speak. The productive disruptions to Andi’s pedagogic disposition that emerged from his self-evaluation mediational activity are discussed in the next section of this chapter.

6.5 Productive disruptions resulting from teacher self-evaluation as a mediational activity

Andi is already familiar with the concept of teacher self-evaluation as he engaged in the practice regularly while working at TBI. Self-evaluation in the current study was driven by data from video recorded lessons and my observation notes, student feedback forms, and through participating in collegial dialogue with other teachers. In addition, similar to Maya in the previous chapter, Andi recognized that every self-
evaluation tool has its own affordances. When asked about the use of video recorded lessons for teacher self-evaluation activities Andi remarked:

> Lesson video recording is really useful for me. I can view the video multiple times wherever I want. We can also focus on certain aspect of my teaching when I view the video. I think lesson video recording is the most effective tool to evaluate our teaching as it covers everything we want to evaluate (Interview 2, 2/02/2012).

Even though this was Andi’s first experience of having his lessons video recorded, he perceived the process to be beneficial for self-understanding. In addition, self-reflection questions helped Andi obtain greater understanding of his teaching practices. He commented, “teacher self-reflection questions are really useful as well because the questions are already systematically arranged based on the focus of aspects of teaching we want to evaluate (Interview 2, 2/02/2012). When asked about the use of student feedback as one of self-evaluation instruments, Andi pointed out:

> To me, student feedback helps me to know what students want from me and whether they enjoy my teaching or not. Besides evaluating my teaching by myself, I always need the opinions from others especially my students to get more comprehensive information about my teaching (Interview 2, 2/02/2012).

The above statements indicate that Andi perceived particular value in student feedback as it provided an evaluation of his practices from different point of views, which will help him to understand the extent of his teaching effectiveness and guide him on how to improve the quality of his teaching.

Andi also pointed out that collegial dialogues are a meaningful way to enhance teaching practice. He asserted, “collegial dialogues are really useful because I need other teachers to give me more ideas about teaching techniques and methods” (Interview 2, 2/02/2012). An example of collegial dialogue transcriptions is presented below.
ANDI: This semester is my first time to teach Reading Comprehension. Actually, I get difficulty to find good teaching methods for Reading Comprehension class. I know that my students perceive Reading subject as a boring subject so that they do not have enough motivation to learn it. When I asked them in the first meeting about their perception of Reading subject, they said that they did not really like it. I have tried to do peer-work and group-work but I am still not satisfied with my teaching. I want to have more interesting teaching techniques to teach Reading.

JOKO: Actually there are a lot of techniques in doing grouping. How many students are in one group?

ANDI: Around three or four students.

JOKO: Then how did you create the group?

ANDI: Just randomly. I asked the students who sat next each other to be in one group.

JOKO: Although it takes time, it is sometimes also necessary to split the students into groups based on their ability. For example, you assign students with good ability to join different groups. I have a cooperative learning book if you want to borrow. You will realize that actually there are many techniques that you can apply in your Reading class such as Jigsaw.

HANI: Interesting

ANDI: Yes. In my first meeting, I discussed an essay. I assigned each student in the group to read a certain paragraph. After finished reading, each student then shared what he or she read to other students. They then made a conclusion based on what they read.

HANI: When you splitted the students into group, have you assigned each student to read different topic? For example, you have some topics to discuss. Students are then split into groups with one member assigned to each topic. After that, each student learns about his or her topic and presents it to their group individually. Students then gather into groups divided by topic. Each member presents again to the topic group. In same-topic groups, students combine information. Next, they create a final report. Finally, the original groups listen to presentations from each member that provides all group members with an understanding of their own material, as well as the findings from topic-specific group discussion.

MAYA: Yes, right. So there will be an expert group ada home group.

ANDI: I see.

The above transcription indicated that Andi learnt more about cooperative learning technique especially Jigsaw from collegial dialogue activity. It suggests that collegial dialogues provide teachers with the opportunity to participate in collaborative problem solving around classroom issues. Generally, Andi perceived the use of varied self-evaluation instruments in mediating the process by which he has come to obtain a more comprehensive understanding of his practices as well as to explore ideas about how to develop his practice.
More specifically, the series of teacher self-evaluation activities mediated Andi’s capacity to obtain productive disruptions to his identity as a teacher and his view of his instructional practice. Firstly, the mediated self-evaluation challenges Andi’s way of thinking and how he sees himself as a teacher. For instance, Andi had not previously realised that he was not demanding enough. He remarked:

Recording a video of my own lessons was something new for me. After I viewed myself in the video I realised that I was not demanding enough to my students. I tended to just accept and agree to what students want. I also always tolerated my students if they did mistakes. For example, the students did not study pretty hard; I just understood them because I didn’t want to give a burden for them. I should be more assertive and give more encouragements to them. I also realised that I was too dominant in the class. I can say that there were things I need to learn about teaching (Interview 3, 13/06/2012).

As evidenced in the above statements, the process of self-evaluating his practice enabled Andi to question his pedagogical disposition and to consider ways to change. He begins to understand how his tendency to be flexible and accommodating with the students may not be effective in getting them to work harder. Andi also mentioned that he saw himself as too dominant in the class. Additionally, as mentioned previously Andi is a beginner teacher. As such, the video recording of his lessons has helped him to realise that he needs to learn much more about teaching. Developing this new understanding of himself as a teacher has provided Andi with the opportunity to build on his existing identity as a teacher which is crucial to teacher professional development (Hurt, Scott, & McCroskey, 1978).

Another productive disruption to Andi’s pedagogical disposition that emerged from the teacher self-evaluation activities relates to the way he perceives his teaching practice. Firstly, he came to realise that he dominated the classroom talk during lessons. He asserted:

Basically, I always want to be better in my teaching. Self-evaluation is a source for me to do a reflection so it becomes my foundation to improve my teaching. I usually reflect my teaching only by using my feeling and concluding from my students’ response. If I found there was a student who did not active and was not motivated, I feel like I’m not satisfied with my teaching and must try to be better in the next class meeting. After I viewed my teaching in lesson video recordings, I feel a kind of surprised because I found out that I was really dominant and I talked a lot in the class. Moreover, from student feedback, some students said so. I shouldn’t talk too much, should have given my students more opportunities to
talk. I didn’t feel satisfied with my teaching; I need to improve it (Interview 3, 13/06/2012).

Clearly, Andi acquired useful insights into his teaching practices as a result of the self-evaluation processes. He is now aware that he dominated the classroom talk and that he needed to make some changes to the way in which he interacted with the students as he pointed out:

I understand clearly now that I need to improve my interaction with my students. I asked myself, why I talked like that? I should have been able to encourage the students to talk more. I also tended to ask only the students who were active and ignored the passive ones. I should involve the passive students so that they will have motivation to participate in class activities (Interview 3, 13/06/2012).

Thirdly, the series of teacher self-evaluation activities helped Andi to realise that he needed to provide more thinking time to the students when presenting them with the opportunity to ask or respond to questions. He remarked, “I realised that I needed to give more waiting time for the students and encourage them to talk more by giving them more opportunities to speak up” (Interview 3, 13/06/2012). In other words, the productive disruptions to Andi’s pedagogical disposition as a result of mediated self-evaluation helped him to recognise the aspects of his teaching practice that needed improvement. Andi now has a deeper understanding of the effectiveness of his teaching and his identity as a teacher. As a result, he can begin to implement strategies for change. This aligns with the notion expressed by Airasian and Gullickson (1997) that the function of teacher self-evaluation is to help teachers identify and make decisions about the strengths and weaknesses of their teaching, with the intent of enhancing it. The next section of the chapter examines the durability and changes in Andi’s pedagogic habitus through his engagement in mediated self-evaluation.

6.6 Durability and changes in Andi’s pedagogic habitus

Section 6.4 described the two pedagogic dispositions that shaped Andi’s instructional practice: disposition to informality/fun and disposition to dominance. This section now focuses on the durability of, and the potential for change in the two dispositions as a result of Andi’s engagement in mediated self-evaluation. As noted above, teacher self-reflection questions, student feedback, lesson video recordings, and
collegial dialogues were the mediational means in the teacher self-evaluation activity to influence the changes to his pedagogic dispositions. The video recording of his lessons, statements during interviews and classroom observation notes generated during the second round of data collection were used as data sources. Vygotsky’s sociocultural and Bourdieu’s sociological theories provide the theoretical framework for the discussion in this section.

6.6.1 Durability in pedagogic disposition to informality/fun

The findings indicate that Andi did not change his pedagogic disposition to informality/fun as result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation. Andi continued to act in an accommodating, patient, and friendly manner towards his students (e.g., complementing the students on their efforts, being familiar with their names, and displaying his sense of humour during lessons). When asked about the results of the student feedback on his teaching, Andi responded:

Based on students’ feedback, I can’t say 100%, but 90% of my students enjoy my class. They said that they felt like taught not by a lecturer but by someone who’s closed to them so I approached them like a friend. They are closed to me even when we’re outside the class as well. They also sometimes text me to ask about other subjects. So I’m happy with the result of the feedback. It motivates me more to be good teacher and I have to maintain that positive side so that my students will always enjoy my lesson and don’t feel being intimidated or having pressure (Interview 2, 2/02/2012).

The above statements indicate that the feedback from the students had a mediational function in helping Andi to know that the students were happy with his teaching practices. Andi also regards the student feedback as positive and as an indication that he needs to maintain flexible and friendly teaching style. Andi values close and positive relationships with the students as a way to create a supportive classroom environment with the type of atmosphere that supports student learning.

Furthermore, as mentioned in Chapter 4, most of students at KUM in the field in which Andi engages appreciate fun and friendly teachers. They view fun and friendliness in a teacher as synonymous with treating students with warmth and respect in order to help them to enjoy the learning process. As such, being a fun and friendly teacher is the rule in the game (Horvart, 2003). Andi’s embodied physical cultural capital and institutional personal capital support his pedagogic disposition to
informality/fun which provides him with increased power to act in his particular context of fields (Peillon, 1998). Andi therefore accepts the inherent rule of the game, and the advantages this affords him, by preserving his pedagogic disposition to informality/fun. The next section examines the change in Andi’s pedagogic disposition to dominance.

6.6.2 Change in pedagogic disposition to dominance

Video recordings of Andi’s lessons and classroom observation notes present data to show the significant difference between Andi’s teaching before and after he engaged in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities. Andi was able to transform his teaching to involve a more student-centred approach that in turn changed his pedagogic disposition to dominance. Andi succeeded in reducing the amount of time he talked during lessons, in providing his students with more thinking time to formulate their questions and answers, and in providing the students with more opportunities to answer questions of their own free will. Andi’s strategy to minimise his talk included implementing various methods and using different media in his lessons. In the classroom, Andi’s role moved towards that of a facilitator, which aligns with Jones’ (2007) statement that in a student-centred class:

… students may be teacher-led: before students work together, their teacher will help them prepare to work together with explanations and pronunciation practice; while students are working together, their teacher will be available to give advice and encouragement; and after they’ve finished working together, and the class is reassembled, their teacher will give them feedback, offer suggestions and advice, make corrections, and answer questions (p. 2-3).

The following illustration taken from the video recording of Andi’s lesson is an example of how he reduced his teacher talk to create a more student-centred classroom:

Andi was teaching Speaking and the topic of discussion was “personality”. After opening his class by greeting the students and by reviewing the topic covered in the previous meeting, Andi began to play a video about speed dating on the screen projector. The video lasted for around six minutes. Next, Andi introduced the meta-language related to personality such as spoiled, friendly, wise, stubborn, decisive, obstinate, etc. Andi then explained what was discussed in the video and how to do speed dating. He mentioned such aspects as revealing your
personality, your likes and dislikes, etc. Following this, Andi distributed a piece of paper to the students containing a list of adjectives to describe personality. Andi then asked the students to do speed dating. Each student had to create a new name and choose adjectives from the list provided to describe their personality. Next, the male students had to introduce themselves to female students by describing their personality and by telling them their likes and dislikes. Because there were more female students than male students in the class, Andi asked some of the female students to pretend to be boys. After some time, Andi asked the students to sit down and then he provided them with the opportunity to discuss their speed dating experience with the class voluntarily. To conclude the lesson, Andi reviewed the key themes and provided comments on the students’ speaking skills including their grammar, pronunciation, and choice of words.

The above description illustrates Andi’s strategy to implement different teaching methods to invite the students to engage in more productive talk during lessons. He used a range of teaching media (e.g., video, papers, and whiteboard) as meaningful artefacts to mediate improvement in his teaching practices. Specifically, the video he used helped him provide more information to the students and in order to assist them to more easily understand the topic. The students were excited and fully engaged in the class activity as they discussed topics of interest to them. They tried hard to express themselves in English and Andi assisted their efforts by providing vocabulary lists so that they could practice the words in context. Andi also assisted the students to review their mistakes with pronunciation, grammar and word choices in the hope that they would learn from their mistakes.

The positive effect of Andi’s student-centred approach in the classroom is the reduction in his teacher talk during lessons to allow the students to speak and express their ideas. Andi said, “I now try to control my talking time and give more chances to students to talk and be active in the class activity” (Interview 3, 13/06/2012). Andi talks only when he guides the students on what to do during learning activities, discusses the topics, and provides the students with feedback. As a result, the students are more actively speaking in English to discuss the topics, which will help to improve their self-confidence in the use of the language. Some students, however, still speak in English slowly and carefully at times and mix it with Indonesian. But overall, the students are
more engaged in the activities and are enthusiastic to speak. The students are also much more active in class discussions. The excerpt below, taken from a video recording of his lesson is an example of how a student is active in expressing her idea in Andi’s class:

[Andi is discussing the use of “used to” for past habits]
ANDI: Okay, now we will talk in pairs again. We will talk about what you used to do in elementary school such as I used to fight with my friends, I used to er … [thinking of another example]
SRI: Sir I used to walk around in the class [expressing his experience]
ANDI: When you were in elementary school?
SRI: Yes

The above excerpt shows that this student participates in Andi’s discussion by volunteering a response about her use of “used to” in a sentence.

Another change in Andi’s disposition to dominance is his teaching action to provide longer thinking time to students when they are prompted to answer a question. This is demonstrated in the excerpt below:

ANDI: When we talked what you did last weekend, some of you said, I stayed at home [writing the sentence in whiteboard] and when I talk about my experience in elementary school, I said I used to be very quiet [writing the sentence on the whiteboard]. What is the difference? [waiting about seven seconds for the answer]
STUDENTS: [Keeping silent].
ANDI: Did the sentences talk about the past? [giving a clue to the answer]
STUDENTS: Yes.
ANDI: Are they the same?
STUDENTS: No.
ANDI: So, are they different. What is the difference? [asking the students]
RITA: The meaning [a student answers immediately].
ANDI: Yes, the meaning! [emphasizing the correct answer]

The above excerpt illustrates that Andi allows the students more opportunity to think about the answer to his question. Andi does not directly answer his own questions, but still provides clues to help the students towards the correct answer. He also gives more thinking time to the students. Another example of how Andi provides sufficient thinking time to the students can be seen below:
Andi is teaching Speaking to the students. He asks them to work in groups. He then explains to them about what they need to discuss as a group. He draws a big ship on the whiteboard.

ANDI: Right. Look at the picture. What is it?
STUDENTS: A ship.
ANDI: What can you say about this ship? Does it remind you of something? A very famous ship?
STUDENTS: Titanic [the whole class answers].
ANDI: Yes. Titanic. What happened to Titanic?
STUDENTS: Tenggelam [answering in Indonesian].
ANDI: What is tenggelam in English?
STUDENTS: [Keeping silent].
ANDI: Yes? [giving more waiting time]
RUDI: Sink.
ANDI: Yes. So it sank.

As the above excerpt illustrates, Andi is showing greater patience with the students by providing them with more time to think of a response to his question. Rather than directly answer his own question, he simply gives clues to the students. Meng and Wang (2011) pointed out that increasing wait-time to three to five seconds can increase the amount of students’ participation as well as the quality of that participation. Here, the students are finally able to answer the question after they are provided with greater wait time to think about the answer.

Further evidence showing the change in Andi’s pedagogic disposition towards dominance is the way in which he provides opportunities for the students to answer questions voluntarily as demonstrated in the below excerpt:

[After the students practiced their English during the ‘speed dating’ activity, Andi asked them to sit in a circle to answer his questions about the activity they have just completed]

ANDI: So have you got a boyfriend or a girlfriend?
SOME STUDENTS: Yes.
SOME STUDENTS: No.
ANDI: How about the new name you created?
SONI: My name is Hilman.
ANDI: Okay. Have you made any decision about your girlfriend?
SONI Yes, but didn’t get one.
ANDI: Why?
SONI: Because there are … uhm … there is someone who is jealous so I don’t like it.
[All of the students laugh]
ANDI: Okay, so you have no girlfriend right now. How about the others?
NITA: My new name is Misela and I uhm … found a boy. His name is Vidi.
ANDI: What about his personality?
NITA: His personality is almost the same as me.
ANDI: What is interesting from him?
NITA: What is interesting from him is when I drop my book [she drops his book], he took it for me.
[All of the students laugh]
ANDI: So you also did a test?
NITA: Yes.
ANDI: Wow that’s great.

The above excerpt illustrates how the students are provided with the opportunity to volunteer their answers. Andi did not nominate which students were to answer his questions, but rather he allowed all students the opportunity to engage in voluntary participation. The analysis of the classroom discourse also reveals that although Andi’s teacher talk still conformed to the IRF pattern, he now used the third turn to provide students with more interactive feedback. Indeed, his third-turn questions to the students (e.g. “what about his personality?”) clearly aimed to expand or modify their answers and encourage greater participation. Further evidence that Andi has responded to his previous tendency to nominate which student was to answer his questions is presented in the excerpt:

[Andi is explaining ’conditional sentence’ to the students He is asking the students to complete his sentence using appropriate verb form]
ANDI: If you could fly what would you do?
TINA: I will reach the sky.
ANDI: Reach the sky. So you would or will?
STUDENTS: Would [all of the students answer together].
ANDI: Yes would… so I would reach the sky. How about the others? [looking around the class]
RUDI: I would go around the world.
ANDI: Good. How about the others?
SINTA: I would visit all the planets.

The above excerpt also highlights that Andi allows the students to answer his questions voluntarily. As a result, the students feel more comfortable about participating in the learning activities.
In general terms, Andi succeeded in transforming his teaching practices to facilitate a more student-centred approach. He relinquished his dominance during lessons by allowing the students to take on more responsibility for their learning. He provided more opportunities to the students to actively participate in class and adopted a more clearly defined facilitator role as he guided the students through the various learning activities. As Andi implemented more student-centred activities, he realised the students were much more excited about their learning. Thus, during his lessons the role of the students shifted from mere listeners to active participants. Andi asserted, “frankly speaking, I’m happy with my teaching now. I can say that self-evaluation gives the real feedback that is useful to improve my teaching” (Interview 3, 13/06/2012).

As mentioned earlier, the change in Andi’s dominant pedagogic disposition was underpinned by the application of various new teaching methods. Similar to Maya, collegial dialogue was a mediational tool of importance as it inspired Andi to vary his teaching actions. He remarked:

Collegial dialogue is really useful for me. Sometimes we don’t have any more ideas what method to teach so that we need other’s ideas to share and they may need our ideas as well. I was so happy when my colleagues suggested me to try some new teaching methods and at that time I thought; “Why I never think about these methods before?” So, collegial dialogue is very helpful (Interview 2, 14/01/2012).

Clearly, Andi considers that participating in collegial dialogues gives an opportunity for him to work together with other lecturers on improvement activities. Hence, collegial dialogues function as a professional learning tool for Andi in providing him with a source of answers to his pedagogic questions and insight into the views of other lecturers. According to Cochrane-Smith and Lytle (1993), collegial dialogues make possible “the learning of new knowledge, questions and practices and, at the same time, the unlearning of some long held and often difficult to uproot ideas, beliefs, and practices” (p. 9). In Andi’s case, collegial dialogues promoted peer learning in terms of the acquisition of new knowledge of various interesting teaching methods and practices to apply during his lessons.

Andi’s change in his pedagogic disposition to dominance challenges the criticism that habitus is deterministic and durable. Andi’s case supports Bourdieu and Wacquants’ (1992, p. 133) claim that habitus can be transformed “via socio-analysis (i.e. via an awakening of consciousness and a form of ‘self-work’) that enables the
individual to get a handle on his or her dispositions”. Thus, Andi’s self-reflection on his teaching practices as part of the teacher self-evaluation mediational activity became a source for him to change his disposition to dominance. Like Maya, Andi learned from the productive disruptions he obtained via meaningful reflection on his instructional practice that his practices are shaped by his pedagogic disposition to dominance. This awareness motivated him to imagine his “future-self” and to take real action to change his practice. He said, “I don’t want to be a dominant teacher. I always hope that I can create student-centred learning in my classes (Interview 3, 13/06/2012). This statement indicated that Andi’s possible selves have motivated him in two ways: a clear goal to strive for, having student-centred learning, and a clear goal to avoid, a dominant teacher (Markus & Ruvolo, 1989). That is, Andi engaged in the type of self-regulated learning that required him to “focus on the self as generator of will and motivation to engage in self-regulatory learning processes and activities” (Barbara & Robert, 1990, p. 52). Andi made choices to initiate and regulate his behaviour in a self-determined fashion based on an awareness of his needs and/or feelings, and accompanied by the experience of choice (Deci & Ryan, 1986). Andi then regulated his classroom actions by reducing his talk, by giving more wait time to the students, and by letting the students answer his questions voluntarily.

Andi’s teaching transformation also supports the concept of internalisation. Lantolf (2000, p. 14) defines this concept as “the process through which a person moves from carrying out concrete actions in conjunction with the assistance of material artifacts and of other individuals to carrying out action mentally without any apparent external assistance”. Through the mediation of teacher self-reflection questions, the lesson video recording, student feedback, and collegial dialogue, Andi was able to benefit from productive disruptions that challenged his way of thinking about his identity and practice. As a result, he became more informed about his teaching limitations. Andi then engaged in concrete actions to change his practice, which led to the change in his pedagogic disposition to dominance. When asked about his thoughts after undertaking the teacher self-evaluation, Andi acknowledged, “I now more think about what I will give to my students in the class: how I deliver the lesson, what methods I will use, and how to make my students more interested in my lesson” (Interview 3, 13/06/2012). This statement suggests that Andi has developed greater concern about the techniques he employs to encourage the students to become more active participants in the learning activities. Clandinin and Connelly (1988) emphasised
that self-knowledge and self-understanding are crucial to any professional educator and that the best way to improve these qualities is to give teachers more control and responsibility for self-evaluation. Andi’s understandings of the limitations to his instructional practices and of his professional identity are as a result of the productive disruptions he experienced and his willingness to engage in professional development. This suggests that teacher self-evaluation as a mediational activity supports teachers to develop professionally and can become a psychological tool to transform their instructional practices so that they are no longer constrained by the apprenticeship of observation as proposed by Lortie (1975).

6.7 Summary

To sum up, the analysis of this chapter demonstrated that the productive disruptions to Andi’s professional identity as well as his teaching practices reinforced his pedagogic disposition to informality/fun while also promoting change in his pedagogic disposition to dominance. Andi realised that he was not demanding enough as a teacher and that this sometimes allowed the students to stray off task and to become inattentive and disrespectful during lessons. However, Andi chose to play the game by preserving his pedagogic disposition to informality/fun as his field values fun and friendly teachers. But interestingly, Andi also made a meaningful effort to change his pedagogic disposition to dominance in order to accommodate the needs of his field.

Teacher self-evaluation helped Andi to gain new insights into his identity and his instructional practice in an effort toward self- and professional improvement. Just like Maya and her efforts to improve her teaching practices, Andi was able to engage in self-evaluation via a variety of activities and tools. Indeed, as a new teacher, Andi derived benefits from utilising different self-evaluation instruments in order to gain new insights into his practice. The management of KUM as Andi’s field would also benefit by supporting teachers to carry out self-evaluation, either individually or collaboratively with other teachers. This could provide a meaningful opportunity for teachers to learn from others. To do so, KUM would need to implement a training program on how to conduct teacher self-evaluations to ensure their successful application. The following chapter discusses the case of Joko, which suggests some interesting similarities, but also some significant differences, to Maya’s and Andi’s cases.
Chapter 7

Case 3: Joko

7.1 Introduction

Examination of Andi’s pedagogic habitus presented in the previous chapter showed that Andi changed his disposition to dominance as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation. A range of artefacts including student feedback, Andi’s self-reflection responses, and a video recording of his class teaching were effective in helping Andi to see the limitation of his teaching. Indeed, Andi realised that his pedagogic disposition to dominance was not well received by the students. Through collegial dialogues, one of mediational tools, Andi acquired more information about interesting and useful teaching methods and techniques to possibly implement. He then implemented a range of teaching activities to promote greater student participation and was able to adopt a more student-centred approach to his teaching. As a point of contrast, this chapter presents details of Joko (pseudonym), the last case study teacher. What will be highlighted in this case is that Joko was unable to change his habitus because he did not make sufficient effort to do so. Using the conceptual tools of habitus, capital, field, and practice developed by Pierre Bourdieu, this chapter aims to explore the following questions:

1. What is the nature of Joko’s pedagogic habitus (dispositions and beliefs)?
2. To what extent is Joko’s pedagogic habitus capable of change as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation?

This chapter will begin with details of Joko’s background and capitals. Following this, the focus of the discussion will be on Joko’s initial habitus as manifest in his teaching practice. The third section of this chapter analyses the durability and changes in Joko’s habitus using sociocultural theory as the conceptual tool for understanding his pedagogic habitus.

7.2 Joko’s background

Joko (pseudonym) is a 44-year-old English teacher who recently finished his Master’s degree at a public university in Malang. He completed his Bachelor degree majoring in English education in 1991. Joko chose to complete an English education
major because he wanted to be an English teacher. Joko’s high school teacher also encouraged him to pursue a career as an English teacher as he knew that Joko was accomplished as an English language student. It is also worth noting that Joko’s parents allowed him to choose what major he wanted to study. Following his graduation, Joko initially taught English to students enrolled in private courses. He then worked in business property marketing for about five years where he realised his career preference was to be a teacher. Joko explained, “if I’m teaching, I feel like I have more energy because teaching is very amazing” (Interview 1, 29 December 2011).

In 2008, Joko completed a Master’s degree at a public university in Malang. After engaging in a competitive selection process, he was admitted to the state university of Malang and finished his study in just two years. Joko was considered a smart student by his friends, asserting, “my friends said that I have high confident in my class. If we got homework, my friend would come to my house to do the homework together. They said they wanted to learn from me” (Interview 1, 29 December 2011). After graduating, Joko commenced English teaching at different private universities including Kanjuruhan University of Malang (KUM).

Joko described his background as being raised in a poor, working class family along with his two siblings. His parents worked hard to pay for his and his brother’s school tuition right up until university level. As a result, Joko was taught to work hard. Joko seems to be a teacher who is highly energised and motivated. He wants his students to be comfortable in the class because he thinks that a teacher must serve the students well. To Joko, a teacher is a ‘servant’ to the students and is responsible for implementing good teaching practice to develop their skills and knowledge. Therefore, Joko always wanted to be a highly professional and competent teacher. As he stated:

I love watching English movies. I also often attend academic seminars since it gives more teaching knowledge to me. I always think I still have a lot of limitations as a teacher and need to learn again and again to be a good teacher. I love reading articles about teaching English to find more new techniques and methods to teach English. I also want to continue my study to earn a doctoral degree soon. If I can join a short course to stay abroad, it will be very great for me since it will improve my English. Moreover, learning language means learning the culture (Interview 1, 19/10/ 2011).
As we can see in this excerpt, Joko engaged in various professional activities to improve himself as a teacher. He wants to learn to be a better teacher and continuing his study is a way to achieve this outcome.

Joko’s professional experiences include teaching writing, extensive reading, and classroom action research (CAR). During the semester in which this research was conducted, Joko was a part-time teacher at KUM. He taught writing and extensive reading subjects with a total of 14 credits per week (or around 11 hours per week). Joko also taught at other private universities in Malang and, as a result, he had a very full teaching schedule. Joko reported that he was always required by the department to teach writing because a number of teachers were not enthusiastic about teaching this subject. They considered teaching writing to need extra energy from the teacher in order to correct students’ writing drafts. Joko commented, “teaching writing is tiring since I have to give feedback on students’ writing regularly. Moreover, sometimes the students do not understand about our feedback and repeat their mistakes. Yup, I have to be extra patient” (Interview 1, 19/10/2011).

7.3 Joko’s capital

As discussed in Section 2.6.1 of Chapter 2, Bourdieu categorised capital into three basic forms: economic, cultural (embodied, objectified, and institutionalised state), and social. In this study, Bourdieu’s forms of embodied and institutionalized cultural capital are elaborated by dividing embodied cultural capital into two forms of physical and personal, and institutionalized cultural capital into two forms of personal and professional. With reference to those categorisations, Joko has a range of physical embodied cultural capital, and personal and professional institutionalized cultural capitals that have power within his field. Embodied cultural capital includes particular styles, modes of presentation, including use of language, forms of social etiquette and competence, as well as a degree of confidence and self-assurance (Bourdieu, 1986). Joko’s tall body and loud voice become his physical embodied cultural capital. Indonesian people are typically of average height of 155 cm, but Joko is approximately 175 cm. As such, his tall body adds to his authority as a teacher. Furthermore, Joko also has a very loud voice that plays a significant role in the delivery of his lessons.

Joko also attains personal institutionalized cultural capital because of his ability to speak English fluently, his punctual behaviour, his great enthusiasm for the subject being taught, his self-confidence, and his choice of attire. He speaks English fluently,
and all explanations are delivered to the class in this language. In addition, Joko always begins his class on time and his students regard him as a disciplined teacher. All of these factors enhance his capital and his legitimacy as an effective teacher within his field. As Joko recalls, “there was a student who told me that I was incredible because I never be late” (Interview 1, 29 December 2011). Joko is also very enthusiastic about the subject being taught and is full of energy when teaching. Thus, being on time and being an enthusiastic teacher are appreciated as Joko’s personal institutionalized cultural capital. Furthermore, Joko always wears formal clothes to work such as a “batik” (Indonesian traditional cloth), which also contributes to his image as a good teacher. In other words, Joko’s specific ways of looking and behaving increases his personal institutionalized cultural capital and are valued within the social space of the English class at KUM.

Joko’s professional institutionalized cultural capital was acquired through his education background. As discussed in Chapter 4, Indonesia public universities, which attract a greater number of student enrolments, are acknowledged as being of a higher quality than private universities. Therefore, Joko possesses professional institutionalized cultural capital because he earned his Bachelor’s and Master’s degrees from different public universities. He is perceived to be a competent teacher and his professional institutionalized cultural capital gives him resources to achieve his desired goals within his field of English language teaching.

7.4 Joko’s initial pedagogic habitus

This section focuses on Joko’s initial pedagogic habitus, a disposition in relation to his instructional practice, as derived from a range of data sources including lesson video recordings, interviews, and classroom observation notes. The pedagogic habitus was revealed before Joko engaged in mediated self-evaluation. One of the important aspects of habitus is that it is embodied; it is not only made up of mental attitudes and perceptions. Bourdieu (1990) asserts that it is manifested through durable ways “of standing, speaking, walking, and thereby by feeling and thinking” (p. 70). Accordingly, Joko’s pedagogic habitus manifests in the way he delivered the lessons, interacted with the students, managed the class, managed himself as a teacher as well as from his interview statements. On the basis of this data, two aspects of pedagogic habitus have been identified that guide Joko’s teaching practice, either consciously or unconsciously:
a pedagogic disposition to dominance and a pedagogic disposition to informality. Each of the dispositions is further discussed in the following subsections.

7.4.1 Pedagogic disposition to dominance

Figure 11 below illustrates Joko’s pedagogic disposition to dominance, alongside the capital that shapes his potential actions or practices within his field.

The above figure depicts Joko’s teaching practice as the outcome of his pedagogic disposition and capital within a given field. Detailed explanation of the figure is divided into the following two subsections: (1) manifestations of Joko’s pedagogic dispositions
to dominance in his practice; and (2) relationship between Joko’s pedagogic disposition to dominance and capital, field, and practice.

7.4.1.1 Manifestations of Joko’s pedagogic disposition to dominance in his practice

Joko’s pedagogic disposition to dominance is manifested through his practice by controlling students’ behaviours, setting deadlines, issuing directive and commands, talking too much while teaching, determining which students have to answer his questions, uttering solutions/answers, providing limited thinking to students, waiting for a short amount of time for students to answer questions, interrupting students while they are answering a question, and controlling the flow of questions and answers. The following excerpt reveals how Joko’s teaching practice tends towards dominance by controlling students’ behaviours and giving directive and commands. Joko was teaching English writing to fifth semester students. There were around 40 students in the class, predominantly female. To start the lesson, Joko greeted his students in the following way:

JOKO: Okay, good afternoon, how are you today?
STUDENTS: Fine [all students answer]

[While the students respond to his greeting, Joko looks at a student who is wearing a cap. He then moves both of his hands to his head to signal to that student to take off his cap.]

JOKO: Guys, as I have planned before that today we should have what is so called peer check [with one hand on hip]. You know peer check? Peer check! Aisyah, what is meant by peer check? Or proof reading? [Joko gives only around 3 seconds for Aisyah to answer and Aisyah does not provide the answer he wants] Farhan, still remember in my class writing 3? [Asking another student, Farhan, to answer] Peer check, what is meant by peer check? [Joko provides 5 seconds for Farhan to answer and Farhan does not speak up as well] Yes, say something! [pointing to Sinta who seems want to answer]

SINTA: To checking our draft.


EKA: We have our writing then we ask others to check it.

JOKO: Yes, good. [taking his board marker and approaching the white board] Pay attention on the white board please! [writing down the topic on the white board]

As the above excerpt illustrates, Joko’s pedagogic disposition to dominance is revealed in his teaching practice. First, he policies a class rule to control students’ behaviours by signalling one of his students to take off his cap. It suggests that Joko places
significance on traditional codes of respect. Second, he issues directives and commands when he says, “yes say something”, and “come on” with a raised voice to instruct the students to answer his question. Joko also asked students if they know what rough draft was straightforwardly, without giving any clue or description to build students’ schemata. In other words, through his pedagogic disposition to dominance, Joko shows his expectations of his students’ behavior in the classroom. Joko, in particular, communicates the classroom rules by way of verbal instruction and gestures.

Another example of how Joko gives directives and commands in his class is when he says, “pay attention on the white board please!” while writing down the topic on the white board as a technique to gain his students’ attention. Joko adapts a similarly directive manner in addressing individuals:

JOKO: So if you would like to describe about Angelina Jolie, what do you want to say about? Or discuss about? Retno? [pointing to Retno to answer] Discuss about? Yes. Say something. About?
About?
RETNO: Talent.
JOKO: Okay. Talent [writing Retno’s answer in the whiteboard].

We can see, Joko uses “say something” as a command to the student to answer the question. Joko also requires the students to raise their hand if they want to ask a question. He says, “if you have any question please raise your hand, Okay? I’ll help you” when the students were busy with their draft writing. The excerpts above suggest that Joko’s practice is generated by his pedagogic disposition to dominance. The excerpts also implicitly indicate how through his talk and self-presentation in his teaching, Joko gives the appearance of a teacher who has a lot of power. Power in the context of teaching is defined by Hurt, et al. (1978) as “a teacher’s ability to affect in some way the student’s well-being beyond the student’s own control” (p. 125). Joko then employs his power as a means of control, to discipline and manage his students’ behaviour, and to create and maintain his desired classroom environment. The students willingly accept Joko’s power to influence their behaviour, suggesting that he does indeed exercise power in the classroom.

Furthermore, the video recording of the lesson revealed that when Joko asked his students to start writing a rough draft, he said:
Ok come on hurry up. Still remember our topic? Still remember our topic? [with hands on hips] Hello!!! [clicking his fingers] Still remember our topic? First week in this campus. Still remember? Okay, just do it! Based on our outlining we discussed last two weeks. Okay, hurry up. Good luck! Hurry up! I wish that at 6:30 at least at 6:30 or before 6:30 that you will be able to finish your first rough draft [students are busy with their writing task]. Okay? Don’t pay too much attention on grammar or diction or word choice. What appears in your brain should be written down quickly.

In the above excerpt, it is evident that Joko reveals manifestations of his disposition to dominance. First, Joko asks a question to the students with hands on hips, indicating his authority as a teacher. Second, Joko also says “hello” while clicking his fingers in an attempt to gain the students’ attention so that he may ask them to answer his questions. However, when no student is able to answer his question, he provides the correct answer himself. Third, Joko gives a command, “just do it” as an instruction to the students to complete their writing draft. Fourth, Joko also employs deadline statements to his students saying “hurry up” and “come on” quite often, and “I wish that at 6:30 at least at 6:30 or before 6:30 that you will be able to finish your first rough draft”. Joko’s lesson video recording reveals that he also establishes a deadline statement, “five minutes more” while his students are completing the task. It suggests that Joko wants his students to accomplish the task at an assigned time consistent with practices generated by his pedagogic disposition to dominance.

Further, Joko frequently issues directives and commands “remember” while explaining the material to remind the students about what they should do. One example is presented in the excerpt below taken from the video recording of his lesson:

JOKO: Based on this outlining, [holding an example of a student’s written response] you have to write down anything appears in your brain. This is one of the best ways; one of the best ways in writing after making outlining like this one. Still remember?

SINTA: Yes

JOKO: You have to finish your first draft. Remember, it’s only a paragraph not an essay. Remember. Short maybe write here not more than 120 words.

Clearly, through his verbal instruction “remember”, Joko shows his teaching behaviour telling his students what to do all the time, indicating his intention to always control his students.
The excerpt below provides further examples of how Joko control his students behaviours:

JOKO: What is the purpose of peer check then? Just try to guess then. What is the purpose of peer check? Yoga?
A student: To fix the … [student wants to answer but Joko stops and interrupts her by spreading his fingers out and thrusting his palm out towards the student as an indication that he wants Yoga to answer the question].
YOGA: To check and … [still thinking].
JOKO: To check? Only to check? [interrupting Yoga’s response]
YOGA: No. To check and to correct.

As the above excerpt illustrates, Joko interrupts the student’s response when she tries to answer his question voluntarily by saying “to fix the…” Joko stops her by spreading his fingers out and thrusting his palm out towards her. Joko does this because he determined that Yoga should answer the question. In other words, Joko implicitly establishes a specific rule to control students behaviour that the students can answer the question if he points to them and that he does not tolerate his students interrupting him. As a result, his students do not feel confident to answer and are afraid to get wrong.

Furthermore, video recording of Joko’s class teaching, his statements in interviews, and my observations indicated that his talk dominated his writing class. Cullen (1998) asserted that if a teacher talked too much in the class, he/she deprived students of opportunities to speak. Joko talked for approximately 70 percent of the classroom activity time. As a result, the students had limited time to speak during the class activities.

Joko’s other teaching practices that are shaped by his pedagogic habitus to dominance are controlling the flow of questions and answers activity, nominating which students are to answer his questions, and interrupting his students’ response. The excerpt below, taken from the video recording of Joko’s class, demonstrates those teaching practice behaviours.

[Joko was teaching writing and asking his students to do peer check activity. After some minutes, he told the students to stop the activity]
JOKO: Okay guys. Please stop giving feedback to your friend. OK give it back to your friend. Okay, Yulia [approaching Yulia], have you got some feedback from your friend? [pointing to Yulia]
YULIA: Yes.

JOKO: What do you think about the feedback?

YULIA: The sentence of my paragraph is more...er...more detail and then I know the mistake from the grammar.

JOKO: Grammatical mistake. Okay, Wahab [pointing to Wahab to answer], have you got some feedback from your friend? [approaching Wahab]

WAHAB: Yes sir.

JOKO: Yes. What do you think about the feedback?

WAHAB: I think... [interrupting Wahab’s response]

WAHAB: Yes, there is...er... progress in my sentence and there is structure.

JOKO: Ok structure or grammar. This is common problem for the students in my class especially writing 2 [moving around with his hands on his back]. How about you, Yoga? [approaching Yoga and then Joko holds his arms while waiting for Yoga’s answer]

YOGA: Yes. I think that peer check or proofreading is really useful for us because we know that our structure is still low... [hesitantly].

JOKO: Only structure? [interrupting Yoga’s response]

YOGA: Structure and er... [hesitantly].

JOKO: How about the content itself? [interrupting Yoga’s response]

YOGA: Yah... the content itself. There are some mistakes in outlining so we can improve to be better by proofreading.

JOKO: Okay

The above excerpt illustrates how Joko always controlled the flow of questions and answers activity. He was the only one who provided the instructions and who asked the questions. He only required some students to answer while other students remained as listeners. He always nominated which students were to answer his questions such as when he said; “Yulia, have you got some feedback from your friend?”,”Wahab, have you got some feedback from your friend?” and “How about you, Yoga?” In addition, Joko liked to approach the students he appointed to answer the question, suggesting that he only wanted that student to provide an answer and that he is prepared to use his physical presence to limit the other students’ participation in the question answer activity. It suggests that Joko’s also used his physical presence and gestures (move both of his hands to his head to signal to a student to take off his cap, click fingers, hands on hips, etc.) to control his students’ behaviour indicating how his pedagogic disposition to dominance is embodied in his action in the classroom (this will be discussed further in separate subsection).
Furthermore, from the above excerpt, it is also evident that Joko often interrupts his students’ response. For instance, one of his students, Wahab, begins to answer the question by saying, “I think”, but then pauses to take more time to think of his response. However, Joko interrupts Yoga’s response by providing clarifying questions such as; “useful for you or not?”. Joko also says, “only structure?” and “how about the content itself?” As such, Joko does not provide enough thinking time to Yoga for him to think more about the correct answer. In addition, Joko utters the solution/answer to his own questions when he says, “only structure?” and “how about the content itself?”.

More examples of how Joko interrupts his students’ talk and utters solutions/answers are illustrated in the excerpt below, taken from the video recording of the lesson:

JOKO: What is the purpose of peer check then? Just try to guess then. What is the purpose of peer check? Yoga?
TONI: To fix the … [Toni wants to answer but Joko stops and interrupts her by spreading his fingers out and thrusting his palm out towards her as an indication that he wants Yoga to answer]
YOGA: To check and … [still thinking]
JOKO: To check? Only to check? [interrupting Yoga’s response]
YOGA: No, to check and to correct.
JOKO: To correct [interrupting Yoga’s response again] so the main purpose of peer check is to?
YOGA: To get better.
JOKO: To get better? To improve the quality of rough draft [providing the correct answer]. Don’t worry in rough draft, not only you but all people make mistakes because in first rough draft you have to write your paragraph very very quickly based on your outlining. Okay, remember?

Joko, again, interrupts his student, Yoga, when he says, “to check? only to check?” and “to correct” while she is taking more time to think of her answer. In the end, it is Joko who provides the solution/answer to his own question by saying, “to improve the quality of rough draft”. The above excerpt also indicates that Joko’s interaction with his students follows the minimum pattern of IRF (Initiative, Response, Feedback), which consists of a question initiated by him, a response given by the student, and a feedback provided by him. Joko gives an evaluative feedback, which aims at correction. In this evaluation, Joko focuses only on the correct students’ answer without giving further opportunities for interaction. As Mortimer and Machado (2000) point out, the IRF pattern can be viewed as authoritative if the feedback from the teacher is evaluative.
Joko’s authoritative feedback is further evidence of his pedagogic disposition to dominance.

The excerpt below presents another example of Joko’s practice of always determining which students are to answer or speak up:

Okay, let’s try our semantic mapping. Come on! [approaching a student and giving him a marker to ask him to write down his answer on the white board. The student comes forward to write his answer]. Let’s try to practice how to make semantic mapping about Gonzales. Okay, about one aspect, profession maybe. Okay, next! [pointing to another student] Everybody think of some aspects about Gonzales, maybe about marital status, maybe about profession, about physical appearance, or maybe about his dream or his achievements so far why he becomes an idol, especially in Indonesia. Okay, stand up [pointing to a different student]. Okay, come on. Everybody think of anything related to Gonzales’ one [some students want to come forward to write their answer in the whiteboard]. Okay, one by one [asking the student to wait for his turn].

As the above excerpt illustrates, Joko’s pedagogic disposition to dominance drives him to always decide which students are required to answer questions or to do a specific task for him. Additionally, as can be seen from the above excerpt, Joko has tried to implement a more recent teaching technique, semantic mapping, in his writing class. However, Joko reverts to his old practice of a teacher-centred instruction and as a result, the new teaching technique does not work. Specifically, Joko runs through the material far too quickly and does not create a dialogic interaction with his students. Applying new teaching techniques such as a mind mapping requires a dialogic interaction, an interaction that includes teachers and learners in joint acts of meaning-making and knowledge construction. In other words, in applying new teaching techniques, which could potentially stimulate and extend his students’ thinking and advance their learning and understanding, Joko’s pedagogic disposition to dominance hinders him and prevents him from building dialogic interaction with his students.

Pedagogic disposition to dominance and embodied habitus

This subsection focuses on an interesting point of discussion about how Joko’s pedagogic disposition to dominance is deeply embodied through his teaching actions. One of the important features of habitus is that it is embodied (Bourdieu, 1990, p. 63) through manner, style, gait, and language (Jenkins, 1992), which consciously and unconsciously generate practices. Language is more than the spoken and written word;
it also includes facial expressions, gestures and movements, which all fall in the realm of habitus (Lewthwaite & McMillan, 2010). Besides through his spoken language, Joko’s pedagogic disposition to dominance is also manifested in his gesture he uses to control his students’ behaviour. The gestures include moving both of his hands to his head to signal to the student to take off his cap, clicking fingers, having hands on hips, spreading his fingers out and thrusting his palm out towards a student, moving around with his hands on his back, holding his arms while waiting for students’ answer, etc. These gestures communicate what Joko expects from his students, in particular, how they should behave in his class. These gestures are, therefore, visual communications that express Joko’s attitude toward his students and support his spoken language and action that are shaped by his pedagogic disposition to dominance.

Joko’s embodied habitus through his use of gestures to control students’ behaviour is also an indicator of his strong teaching presence. Presence is “about controlling your body language in a way that shows you are in charge in a classroom” (Milne, 2010, p. 1). Joko is able to use his body to command attention and influence the classroom atmosphere. This suggests that Joko’s physical presence plays a large part in his management of the classroom environment. The way he uses his gestures and the degree to which he is physically demonstrative affect on the management of the class. Hence, Joko’s physical presence helps him to convey what he wants his students to do in class. The next subsection of this chapter discusses the relationship between Joko’s pedagogic disposition to dominance and capital, field, and practice.

7.4.1.2 Relationship between Joko’s pedagogic disposition to dominance and capital, field, and practice

This subsection describes how Joko’s pedagogic disposition dominance, alongside his cultural capital, is manifested in his practices within his field. Joko’s tall body frame, loud voice, ability to speak English fluently, choice of clothing, and punctuality are his embodied cultural capital, and his educational background is his institutional cultural capital. Together, they give him power and support his pedagogic disposition to dominance within his English class as his specific field.

Morberg et al. (2012, p. 360) claimed, “individual circumstances are related to specific fields and depend on general social possibilities and limitation”. Accordingly, Joko’s disposition dominance is related to his field with its specific characteristics. As
described in Chapter 4, the teachers sub-field is a private university in Indonesia with lower proficiency students than those in public universities. The low-proficiency of the students influences Joko’s instructional methods, as most students are not active during the teaching and learning activities. Moreover, as discussed in Chapter 4, the School of English Education, which has the most students of all the schools at KUM, only has around 11 classrooms available for use. As a result, the Head of the School arranges the teaching schedule to include day and night classes with up to 40 to 50 students. The large size class also influences Joko’s pedagogic disposition to dominance. Various class activities including interactive student-led activities are much more difficult to implement in a large classroom. For instance, it is difficult to have a discussion in a large class because of the limited time to allow everyone to contribute. As a result, the teacher tends to rely on the lecture method of instruction and dominate the class.

Bourdieu and Wacquant (1992, p. 135) claimed, “habitus reveals itself…only in reference to a definite situation. It is only in relation to certain structures that habitus produces given discourses or practice”. Therefore, practice is “the product of a habitus that is itself the product of the embodiment of the immanent regularities and tendencies of the world” (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p.138). Accordingly, Joko’s embodiment of the immanent regularities of his life, particularly his educational experience, determines his practice. Joko’s pedagogic disposition to dominance is a product of his own experiences with strict teachers who control their students’ behaviours. Joko asserted:

I got many experiences with discipline and ‘killer’ teachers when I was student. They applied strict rules in their class such as the student were not allowed to join the class if they were late, the students must be quiet during the lesson, etc. Some teachers also often expressed opinions that offend and slander their students such as by saying “it has been discussed before, why you can’t do it?” I support the rule that students must be on time and I have been tried to always be on time to start my class, but I still can give a little bit toleration to my students to be late (Interview 2, 03/02/2012).

The above statements reveal that Joko was encultured into teaching by strict or authoritarian teachers. His behaviour as a teacher is therefore embodied as a result of this experience and he unconsciously reproduces these behaviours and normalises the
practices of the society into which he was born. In other words, Joko brings his experience or history into his present circumstances in order to act in a particular way.

Joko’s pedagogic habitus to dominance hinders the students’ capacity to engage their inner motivation during lessons because he does not support their autonomy. As Reeve and Jang (2006) explained:

When controlling, teachers have students put aside their inner motivational resources and instead adhere to a teacher-centred agenda. To encourage students to adhere to their agendas, teachers offer extrinsic incentives, impose external goals, utter pressuring communications, make external evaluations salient, and generally influence students’ ways of thinking, feeling, and behaving in ways consistent with behaviour modification programs. The general idea is to establish an agenda of what students should and should not do and then shape students toward that agenda by using external contingencies and pressuring language. Hence, when controlled, students are motivated by external contingencies and pressuring language, not by their inner motivational resources (p. 210).

Joko’s pedagogic disposition dominance has also driven him to set specific classroom rules which are designed to direct student behaviour. It could be argued that Joko needs to give his students a greater voice in determining the classroom rules. In order to develop greater inner intrinsic motivation, Joko also sets deadline statements and gives directives and commands. Rather than setting directives, Joko could listen more to what the students say they want so that he may engage their inner motivation to actively participate in the teaching and learning process. As it is, the students are positioned as passive learners and only do what they are instructed to do by the teacher.

Joko’s pedagogic disposition to dominance is a key aspect of his habitus as a teacher. As explained in the previous subsection of this chapter, the power in the classroom lies primarily with Joko, as reflected through his interaction with his students which positions him as the one who decides what he wants from them. In addition, if there is a student who does not follow his instructions then Joko will eventually reject him.

If there is a student whose behaviour can’t be controlled, for example, a student does not do his homework, I say to him; “I’m not angry with you. Instead, I am disappointed with your behaviour”. So, I did not give him punishment but a warning. If he still does not want to do the homework, that’s not my business anymore. The student, however, usually will apologise and I give him a second
chance. If he keeps ignoring his homework, that’s the end between him and me (Interview 2, 03/02/2012).

The above statement implies that Joko considers controlling students’ behaviour to be an essential component of his teaching. He expects his student to behave as he wants them to. As a result, Joko’s practice creates a traditional style of teaching, involving teacher-centred instruction and high levels of student passivity.

Joko’s educational experiences reveal he was accustomed to a teacher-centred classroom. He asserted:

Most of my teachers applied teacher-centred learning by having themselves as the centre of instruction. If they could not teach, there was no class. They were really dominant in their ‘traditional’ teaching. They talked a lot and their students were just their listeners (Interview 3, 14/06/2012).

It is apparent that Joko’s pedagogic disposition to dominance has emerged from his own experiences with his teachers. Indeed, it is not uncommon for teachers to carry with them their own educational history into their present teaching circumstance to the point where it determines their teaching techniques and strategies (Maton, 2008).

Joko’s pedagogic disposition to dominance, however, positions him as the expert whose knowledge is simply to be received by the students. Consequently, the students are positioned as passive learners. Thus, there is no provision from Joko for autonomous learning by the students. One way to fix this imbalance is for Joko to raise the self-esteem of students by giving them an opportunity to be more involved and engaged in the classroom activities. But although he sometimes facilitated the students to work in pairs, Joko was invariably the person who dominated the class activity, despite the evidence that students learn best when they are given chance to practice and obtain feedback (Weimer, 2013). The next subsection discusses another pedagogic disposition that generates Joko’s instructional practice, his pedagogic disposition to informality.

7.4.2 Pedagogic disposition to informality

Despite his clear tendency towards domination, the video recording of Joko’s teaching practice, his interview statements, and my observation notes demonstrate that
Joko also has a tendency to informality towards his students. Figure 12 below describes the relationship between Joko’s pedagogic disposition to informality, capital, field, and practice.

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 12: Relationship between Joko’s disposition to informality and capital, field, and practice**

### 7.4.3.1 Manifestations of Joko’s pedagogic dispositions to informality in his practice

This subsection describes how Joko’s teaching practices are driven by his pedagogic disposition to informality. Joko remembers his students’ names really well, he sometimes jokes with his students, and he is also friendly and kind to his students.
The excerpt below is taken from the video recording of Joko’s lesson and shows how he is kind and friendly to his students and how he remembers their names.

[Joko starts his writing class by greeting the students]

JOKO: OK. Thank you. Assalamualaikum warrahmatulohi wabaraka tuh.
STUDENTS: Waalaikum salam warrahmatulohi wabaraka tuh [entire class answers together].
JOKO: Good afternoon.
STUDENTS: Good afternoon.
JOKO: How are you guys?
STUDENTS: Fineeeeee, and you? [entire class answers together]
JOKO: I’m very well. Thank you. It’s very nice to meet you again. Last week we discussed about peer check. Have you got some benefits from peer check? Aisyah? [pointing to Aisyah to answer]
AISYAH: Yes.
JOKO: Ya, what is the benefit of peer check according to your experience?
AISYAH: I easy to make correct my draft.
JOKO: It means that your final product is much better than your first draft? Do you think so?
AISYAH: Yes.
JOKO: Yes, I will check it. Wulan what do you think?
WULAN: It makes my paragraph much better.
JOKO: It makes your paragraph much better. Trimo, what do you think, Trimo?
TRIMO: It develops my paragraphs and makes revision.
JOKO: Revision. You make some revisions.

As illustrated in the above excerpt, Joko greets the students by saying “guys” when he starts the lesson. This informal greeting suggests that Joko wants to build close relationship with the students. He also says, “it’s very nice to meet you again” as a friendly greeting to the students. It is also evident in the above excerpt that Joko refers to some of the students by their names (e.g., Aisyah, Wulan, and Trimo) while he was previewing the previous topic at the start of the lesson and is familiar with the students’ names.

The analysis of Joko’s classroom discourse in the above excerpt shows that Joko uses the IRF (Initiation, Response, Feedback) pattern when he interacts with his students. However, the feedback Joko gives in the pre-teaching and during-teaching activities is different. In pre-teaching activity, when Joko greets his students, he supports his interaction by utilizing third turn that invites more student talk. He provides
interactive feedback to expand or modify his students’ answer like in the below analysis.

Initiation: How are you guys?
Response: Fineeeeee, and you? [entire class answers together]
Initiative Feedback: I’m very well. Thank you. It’s very nice to meet you again.
Last week we discussed about peer check. Have you got some benefits from peer check? Aisyah? [pointing to Aisyah to answer]
Response: Yes.
Initiation: Ya, what is the benefit of peer check according to your experience?
Response: I easy to make correct my draft.
Initiative Feedback: It means that your final product is much better than your first draft? Do you think so?
Response: Yes.

However, during teaching, Joko is often in a ‘material mode’, that is a mode of teaching in which the organization of the interaction is almost entirely determined by the materials and managed by the teacher (Walsh, 2010). Here, Joko gives repetitive feedback and does not provide the third turn as we see in the following analysis.

Initiation: Yes, I will check it. Wulan what do you think?
Response: It makes my paragraph much better.
Repetitive Feedback: It makes your paragraph much better.
Initiation: Trimo, what do you think, Trimo?
Response: It develops my paragraphs and makes revision.
Repetitive Feedback: Revision. You make some revisions.

Clearly, Joko limits students’ further learning opportunity about the topic discussed since he only repeats his students’ response. As a result, there is no more interactional space between him and his students since the interaction is focused exclusively on the material (Walsh, 2010, p. 128). Overall, the above excerpt suggests that Joko’s pedagogic disposition to informality is manifested through his pre-teaching activity.

Another Joko’s practice that is shaped by his pedagogic disposition to informality is when he welcomes questions from the students if they are experiencing
difficulty with their task. When the students were busy writing their writing draft, Joko asked, “if you have any question please raise your hand OK? I’ll help you.” Joko also moves around the classroom while his students are doing their task, approaching them students if they have a question. The below excerpt demonstrate how Joko is open to questions from the students:

[Joko asks the students in the writing class to do a task]

JOKO: Okay, now for those who have finished doing this one [showing writing on a piece of paper]. Okay, you need to do peer check, but for those who haven’t finished writing rough draft, so I would like to give you a chance, you know, to write down your first rough draft. If you get difficulties please contact me. I’m right here. So Wahab, maybe your first will read by Eka [giving the paper to Eka]. And then Rina yes … yours [taking Rina’s paper] will be checked by Zulia [giving Rina’s paper to Zulia].

As we can see, Joko communicates his willingness to help his students through his verbal statement in the class. Joko uses the following expression to encourage the students to ask questions, “if you get difficulties please contact me. I’m right here.” Another example from the video recording of the lesson took place on a different occasion:

[Joko has almost finished teaching the class]

JOKO: After having peer check, you need to think that if the feedbacks are useful, if the feedbacks make your draft better so you have to do it right? But if you think that the feedback given by your friend is not right, please try to consult with your friend, okay. What do you mean by this one? Okay, if you’re still confused, please come to me. I’m right here, okay.

Again, as illustrated in the above excerpt, Joko offers students help by saying, “if you’re still confused, please come to me, I’m right here.” This suggests that Joko wants to make sure his students understand what he teaches and provides help to those who still do not understand. Joko also refers to some of the students by their name (e.g., Wahab, Eka, Rina, and Zulia) as further evidence that Joko knows his students well.

Joko’s kindness is also reflected in his practice when he says “sorry” to the students. For example, when he writes on the white board and he thinks that he is writing the words in a position that is too high on the board, Joko erases the words and says “sorry”. In the interview, Joko asserted, “I often receive an SMS from my student telling me that he/she can’t join my class because he/she was sick and I always reply
that kind of SMS. I always write okay, get well soon” (Interview 2, 3/02/2012). Joko also indicated, “I always tell my students that if they need my help just please raise their hand and I’m ready to help them (Interview 2, 3/02/2012). This implies that Joko is happy to help his students and expects to have a positive relationship with them. Another example of Joko’s friendliness is presented in the excerpt below:

[Joko is trying to remind the students about the topic discussed during their last meeting]
JOKO: “Last meeting we discussed about outlining, remember? Still remember last meeting we discussed about outlining? Did you come here? Yes, last meeting last two weeks because last week I was absent right? I was sick … sorry, at that time I was sick, sorry”.

Joko’s declarations to his students that he was “sorry” for being absent may suggest that he respects his students and that his pedagogic disposition of informality encouraged him to apologise.

Joko’s pedagogic disposition to informality also manifests as sharing a joke with the students as demonstrated in the excerpt below:

JOKO: Please have a look at the display. Okay, are you familiar with this beautiful heroine?
Who is she?
STUDENTS: Angelina Jolie
JOKO: Angelina Jolie? Are you sure?
Students: yesssss [students answer together].
JOKO: Dewita? Not Soimah, right? [entire class is laughing] Okay, what do you know about Angelina Jolie?
STUDENTS: She is … [some students want to answer].
JOKO: Yeah, one by one … [pointing to Eka]
Eka: She is a play film.
JOKO: She plays film. She’s native from … America, right?

As the above excerpt illustrates, Joko mentions “Soimah” to make the students laugh. He compares Angelina Jolie with Soimah, an Indonesian comedian, who is quite famous. This humour used by Joko to break the monotony of class so that the students more inclined to pay attention in the class. Another example taken from the video recording of the lesson further demonstrates Joko’s disposition to informality:

JOKO: I’ll give second display. Look! Please, have a look carefully. How beautiful she is right?
STUDENTS: Yesssss [students answers together]
JOKO: Very, very beautiful. Like my wife, of course.
STUDENTS: Huuuuuuu [students all laugh].
JOKO: I always say that my wife is the most beautiful lady in this world.
STUDENTS: Whaaaaaaaa [students all laugh]

As we can see, the students laugh when Joko says, “very, very beautiful. Like my wife, of course” and “I always say that my wife is the most beautiful lady in this world.” Joko shares jokes with the students to create a more relaxed classroom atmosphere, which is conducive to both teaching and learning.

Joko’s disposition to informality suggests that Joko really enjoys his relationship with the students. However, as discussed earlier, that the way Joko interacts with his student in the pre-teaching activity is different from the while-teaching activity. In the pre-teaching activity, Joko acts like people talking with other people or in a non-teacher mode; however when he is delivering lessons, he is in a teacher-mode (a more impatient mode). In other words, like Andi, although Joko has a traditional approach in his teaching, involving teacher centred instruction, but he builds positive relationship with his students. The next subsection of this chapter discusses the relationship between Joko’s pedagogic disposition to informality, and capital, field, and practice.

7.4.3.2 Relationship between Joko’s pedagogic disposition to informality and capital, field, and practice

Joko’s teaching practices or behaviours are not only as a result of his pedagogic disposition to informality. They are also as a result between this and other aspects of his habitus and between his different capitals within the field. In addition, there is an implicit tension between Joko’s pedagogic disposition to informality and his pedagogic disposition to dominance. Through his pedagogic disposition to informality, Joko acknowledges the importance of creating a warm and relaxed classroom environment, but at the same time, through his pedagogic disposition to dominance, Joko limits student engagement and participation in the classroom.

Furthermore, Joko’s institutionalised cultural capital, accompanied by his embodied cultural capital, functions as powerbases to support his pedagogic disposition to informality. In particular, Joko’s state university education background, his ability to speak English fluently, his great enthusiasm for the subject being taught, and his choice of clothing all combine to support his habitus. Moreover, as explained in detail in
Chapter 4, Joko’s sub-field is at a private university in Indonesia with low-proficiency students. As such, the students needed more guidance from their teacher to effectively facilitate their learning. As a result, the students value friendly teachers as they are viewed to be helpful to the students. Therefore, by being familiar with the students’ names, friendly and kind to them, and often making jokes/humour in the class, Joko thinks that he is meeting the students’ expectations. As he explained:

I don’t want my student to be afraid to me. I want them to come to me if they have learning problem. I often said to my students, “don’t be afraid of me because I’m not a ghost. Instead, I’m your father, I’m your lecturer, I’m your facilitator that will discuss anything” (Interview 3, 14/06/2012).

Clearly, Joko wants to be open and helpful to the students by being closer to them. Joko’s pedagogic disposition to informality generates practices that create positive relationship with the students. Furthermore, Joko is of the view that having friendly and positive relationship with students is necessary. He asserted:

Having positive relationship with students is very important, both inside classroom and outside classroom. If the students feel comfortable with the attitude of lecturers, they will learn well because they don’t have any pressure. I often say to the freshmen "do not be afraid of me since I am not a ghost, but your father. If you are under pressure in my class, meet me and we will discuss it together”. But I realise that some students do not like me, but at least I try to close to them. Warmth relationship between teachers and students will create more conducive atmosphere. The students will feel free to express their opinion and to engage in teaching and learning activity (Interview 3, 14/06/2012).

Joko’s comments reveal that he is of the belief that if a teacher establishes a warm rapport with the students it will increase student participation in class activities. As a corollary to this, increase student participation will increase student achievement. Joko’s educational experience has shaped his pedagogic disposition to informality as an aspect of his habitus that ensures the active presence of past experiences within individuals in the form of schemes of perception, thought, and action (Bourdieu, 1990, p. 54). Joko reflected:
I have some teachers who are very friendly to their student so that it created positive relationship among them. Teachers wanted to listen to what students wanted. They were very patient and appreciate students’ opinion. They also had good relationship outside class. The students, therefore, didn’t feel afraid and under pressure in their class (Interview 3, 14/06/2012).

Joko’s pedagogic disposition to informality is as a result of his past experiences with friendly teachers. Joko realises that such teachers help students to learn more effectively and maintain student interest and enthusiasm in learning. The next section of this chapter discusses the productive disruptions of teacher self-evaluation in Joko’s identity as a teacher and in his teaching.

7.5 Productive disruptions resulting from teacher self-evaluation as a mediational activity

Joko had practiced teacher self-evaluation prior to his participation in this study. He had held informal discussions with his colleagues who taught the same subject and had asked a colleague to observe one of his lessons so that he might provide feedback on his teaching practices. Joko also audio recorded one of his own lessons. He asserted:

Yes, I ever did some teacher self-evaluation activities. First, I ever discussed with my colleagues about our teaching, especially with teachers who taught the same subject as me. I shared with them my problem in my teaching and asked their opinion in case they’ve got similar problem. I also learnt from them to have some new teaching methods and techniques. We learn from each other. Second, I invited one of my colleagues to come to my class, at that time, in my reading class. I asked him to observe how I taught and then I asked his feedback about my teaching. Third, I ever audio recorded my lesson to know how I taught. I realise that sometimes I had some unexpected things happened in my class. Some were positive and some were negative (Interview 1, 19/10/2011).

Joko was therefore already familiar with the practice of self-evaluation. By participating in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities in this study, Joko was able to use different self-evaluation instruments of teacher self-reflection questions, lesson video recording, and student feedback.

Like Maya and Andi, Joko perceived the semiotic affordance of each mediating tool he utilized to facilitate self-evaluation of his instructional practice. Firstly, when he was asked his comments about the use of lesson video recording, Joko said,
It’s really positive. I can particularly flash back to my teaching by focusing on what I really need to do to improve my teaching. What I like from lesson video recording is it gives a real and honest feedback for me because I can’t manipulate it. For example, I did not realize when I mispronounced the word “focus” until I watched myself in the video (Interview 2, 3/02/2012).

Joko perceived that most of the essential elements of his teaching performance could be captured though his lesson video recordings. Secondly, Joko commented that teacher self-reflection questions are also useful for him as he remarked, “it’s helpful. It helps me to know more about my weaknesses in my teaching. Moreover, if I combine it with my lesson video recordings, I get more information about my teaching. Honestly, I’m still not happy with my teaching” (Interview 2, 3/02/2012). It suggests that Joko is aware that the use of multiple self-evaluation instruments will provide him with more detailed insights about his teaching practice.

Thirdly, when Joko was asked his opinion about the use of student feedback, he pointed out,

To me, student feedback will be helpful if the students give me negative comments about my teaching since they can be valuable resources to make my teaching better. However, about 85% of my students said they were really happy with my teaching and about 15% of my students gave useful feedback such as they were not really happy with the topic, with the lecture hour, etc. (Interview 2, 3/02/2012).

As mentioned in the above statement, Joko particularly values the negative feedback from his students to know what is not working for them in his teaching, so that it can be used as a source to enhance his professional practice. Fourthly, Joko commented that collegial dialogue also helped him to improve his teaching. As he said, “yes, it helps me to obtain suggestions for possible teaching methods and strategies. As a teacher, I can’t be satisfied with my teaching but I must be able to improve it continuously” (Interview 2, 3/02/2012). In general, Joko made positive comments about the use of each self-evaluation instrument. He also recognized that the combination of each instrument provided him with a broad perspective on the effectiveness of his instructional practice that, in turn, might allow him to identify specific issues in his teaching.

Specifically, the series of teacher self-evaluation activities enabled Joko to challenge his normal thinking about himself as a teacher and his professional practice. In other words, Joko was able to identify useful disruptions in his professional identity.
and teaching as a result of his engagement in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities. Essentially, student feedback on instructional practice, self-reflection questions, and lesson video recordings functioned as powerful artefacts to facilitate Joko to come to a new understanding of his identity – his habitus – as a teacher. Joko explained:

What I found as my limitations in my teaching was, first, my pronunciation. I really need to more pay attention on my pronunciation because a teacher is a model. Although I found only a few mistakes in my pronunciation but still it motivated me to always improve it. Second, I was so surprised when I viewed myself in the video recording of my lessons since I could see that I’m an impatient teacher. I wanted my students to be quick and did not provide enough time for students to answer a question (Interview 2, 03/02/2012).

As mentioned above, Joko realized that he was not patient enough when waiting for his students to answer a question that makes him as an impatient teacher. This identity is revealed through his teaching practice and is shaped by his pedagogic disposition to dominance.

Furthermore, the series of teacher self-evaluation activities provided Joko with productive disruptions to his teaching practice. First, after reviewing the video recording of his lesson, Joko identified a teaching limitation related to his pedagogic disposition to dominance. He stated, “I could see that sometimes I have serious expression when I teach. I don’t want my students to be afraid of me actually” (Interview 2, 03/02/2012). Second, the self-reflection questions functioned as a mediational tool to increase Joko’s awareness that he spoke too much while teaching. He pointed out, “in one of teacher self-reflection question items that asked, ‘are you happy with this situation?’ I wrote ‘I’m not happy since I still explain too much’. That’s an evaluation for me myself that I still talk too much. I should talk less to create student-centre learning” (Interview 2, 03/02/2012). Thus, Joko came to the realisation that he talked too much while teaching. Third, Joko realized that he did not give enough waiting time for students to answer his question. He asserted, “I really need to be more patient to wait for students’ answers. I usually just gave the question to other students or answer it by myself, if the student did not answer it quickly (Interview 2, 03/02/2012). In summary, the productive disruptions of teacher self-evaluation in Joko’s identity and teaching are related to his pedagogic disposition to dominance, which do not suit the needs in his field. Thus, Joko
has reason to create changes in his habitus. The extent to which Joko’s pedagogic disposition is capable of changing through his engagement in mediated self-evaluation is discussed in the next section of this chapter.

7.6 Durability and change in Joko’s pedagogic habitus

This section focuses on durability and change in Joko’s pedagogic habitus as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation. Joko’s lesson video recordings, interviews statements, and classroom observation notes were used as data sources. Alongside Bourdieu’s sociological theory including notions of habitus, capital, field, and practice, sociocultural theory developed by Vygotsky is used as a framework for the analysis in this section. The data shows Joko’s pedagogic disposition to dominance and informality did not change. The detail explanation of the durability of Joko’s pedagogic habitus is covered in the following subsections.

7.6.1 Durability in pedagogic disposition to dominance

Data from the lesson video recordings, recorded after he engaged in a series of self-evaluations as mediational activities (i.e., video recording his lesson, completing self-reflection questions, asking for student feedback, and joining in on collegial dialogues), revealed that Joko’s pedagogic disposition to dominance was persisted. Joko was aware of his pedagogic disposition to dominance since Joko admitted, “actually I was so disappointed to know that I talked too much in the class. Slowly, I will try to reduce the portion of my talk in the class” (Interview 2, 15 January 2012). However, Joko continued to control students behaviours, set deadlines, issue directive and commands, dominate the talk during the lessons, determine which students were to answer his questions, utter solutions/answers, provide limited thinking time to students, wait only for a short time for a response, interrupt students when they were responding to a question, and control the flow of questions and answers. Joko’s use of the word “slowly” in his admission implies that he is not sure how long it will take him to reduce his level of talk during lessons.

Furthermore, Joko remarked:

I can easily see myself that I did not patient enough to wait the students giving answer, maybe I will give more time to them in giving opinion or answer. Actually, I want my students answer my questions voluntarily because of their own motivation not because I appoint them. Unfortunately, my student did not do it (Interview 3, 14/06/2012).
On the basis of the above statements, it is evident that Joko realised another of his teaching limitations is that he did not wait for enough time to allow his students to respond to questions. However, his use of the word “maybe” in his reflection on how to address this limitation suggests he is not certain about what to do. Joko perhaps demonstrates that he is ambivalent in his desire to minimalize his teaching limitations. As a result, he is unable to transition away from his disposition to dominance as considerable effort is required to bring about changes in habitus (Roth, 2002). The durability of Joko’s pedagogic disposition to dominance could be linked to the way his habitus is so physically embodied and to his physical prowess, his valuable capital. Since Joko’s pedagogic disposition to dominance is deeply embodied, Joko needs more considerable effort to change it. Further, Joko might be afraid he could lose his power if he changes this pedagogic disposition to dominance.

Engaging in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities, Joko is provided with learning environment and opportunities to make him as a better teacher. The notion of ZPID (Zone of Proximal Identity Development) proposed by Polman (2010) provides an explanation of the durability of Joko’s pedagogic disposition to dominance. Joko’s ZPID is stagnant or does not move to a more advanced level because he does not have a fertile zone and does not develop his identity beyond the already achieved one (Polman, 2010). In addition, according to Drake, et al. (2001), the extent to which teachers reform their teaching will be influenced by the extent to which teachers challenge and reconstruct their existing identities. Accordingly, as discussed in the previous section of this chapter, Joko is able to identify his existing identity as an impatient teacher. Nonetheless, Joko fails to reconstruct his identity because he is ambivalent in his desire, commitment, and motivation to change. When Joko was asked the reason why he did not reconstruct his identity, he answered, “yes, I realize that I’m still impatient and do not give sufficient amount of time for my students to answer a question. The reason is because it already becomes my habit” (Interview 3, 14/06/2012). This confirms Greenberg and Baron’s (2000) claim that habit becomes a barrier for teachers to change since it is easier to continue teaching in the same way rather than working to develop new skills/strategies.

Furthermore, as explained in the previous section of this chapter, Joko has a number of forms of cultural capital that empower him to act in his field. Joko’s resistance to changing his pedagogic disposition to dominance might be because he
does not want to lose his power in his class. Smith (1982) claims that individuals who have power tend to work toward maintain the status quo, not dramatically changing it. Accordingly, Joko’s way to preserve his power is by continuing to do things in familiar and same ways. The next subsection of this chapter focuses on Joko’s durability in pedagogic disposition to informality.

7.6.2 Durability in pedagogic disposition to informality

Joko’s lesson video recordings, interview statements, and classroom observation notes also revealed that Joko did not change his pedagogic disposition to informality. Joko knew almost all of his students’ names, often shared a joke with them, and also tried to be friendly and helpful to his students. He commented, “my students often come to me to ask my help. In my writing class, for example, some students met me after class to ask more about the feedback I’ve given to them. They wanted to know more what they should do” (Interview 2, 03/02/2012). Joko still places a high value on establishing friendly relationships with the students. His pedagogic disposition to informality already aligns with his field that values a kind and friendly teacher. This presupposes commitment from Joko who must take responsibility for sustaining that disposition. As Maton (2008, p. 13) suggests, “imagine a situation where you feel comfortable, at ease, like a ‘fish in water’. Here your habitus matches the logic of the field”. Accordingly, Joko aims to conserve his existing position and his pedagogic disposition to informality.

Joko’s pedagogic disposition to informality affirmed his embodied capacity to assume the attitudes and actions required of the teacher within his particular field (i.e., an English class). Students appreciate communicative and friendly teachers who are willing to help them to solve their academic problems. They view teachers who treat them like friends with warmth and respect as friendly. Using the metaphor of a game (field), Joko’s pedagogic habitus to informality, therefore, enables him to play the “game”. The more practice or experience one has with the game, the stronger the habitus, the more successful one is likely to be (Loughran, 2002).

7.7 Summary

Throughout this chapter, various aspects of Joko’s pedagogic habitus, that shape his teaching practices, have been discussed. A series of teacher self-evaluations, as
mediational activities, helped Joko to realise that his practices involves a pedagogic disposition to dominance and so are not congruent with his field, as it hinders student active participation in the class. This disposition places Joko at the centre of teaching and learning activities. However, because he was ambivalent in his desire to change and did not make the required effort to change his disposition to dominance, he was unable to transform his practice into more student-centred learning. To change his habitus, Joko needs to exercise greater self-reflection and self-work (Roth, 2002). In addition, Joko’s pedagogic disposition to dominance is deeply embodied through his action in the class including his language (gestures), manner, style, etc. This embodied habitus could be the factor that prevents Joko from changing his practices. Joko’s lesson video recordings also showed that he possessed a pedagogic disposition to informality that was valuable in his field. Hence, Joko might maintain this disposition in order to be able to accommodate his students’ needs.

The data and analyses in this chapter lead to the conclusion that a series of teacher self-evaluation activities may help teachers to become more informed about their teaching practices, including their limitations. What is evident in the case study of Joko is that he saw himself as the dominant figure in his class with power to control his students. It may be argued that the large number of students in the class played a role in Joko’s choice to maintain teacher-centred instruction. Nonetheless, for Joko to improve his pedagogy, it is important for him to make a greater effort to address this teaching limitation. KUM might also pay more attention to teachers’ concerns about their class and student input issues to facilitate better education for students. The next chapter presents further discussion and suggests some tentative conclusions from this study.
Chapter 8

Discussions and Conclusions

8.1 Introduction

The findings of this study emerged from the detailed analyses of each teacher’s pedagogic habitus and the changes in pedagogic habitus through the engagement in self-evaluation as a mediational activity in Chapters 5, 6, and 7. Data were collected by video recording the lessons of the case study teachers, by observing the teaching practices, and through semi-structured interview. Bourdieu’s sociological theory was used to analyse each case study teacher’s pedagogic habitus. Alongside Bourdieu’s sociological theory, to obtain richer explanation, the change in teacher’s habitus was also explored from the perspective of sociocultural theory and other related theories.

The first section of this chapter compares the pedagogic habitus identified in the three case studies. The discussion of the points of comparison aims to address the first research question: What is the nature of Indonesian English language teachers’ pedagogic habitus (dispositions and beliefs)? The second section of this chapter compares the teaching attributes and practices of the three case study teachers. The comparison will explore the durability of the teachers’ pedagogic dispositions and any changes to their pedagogic habitus, which occurred as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation. The discussion in the second part, therefore, will address the second research question: To what extent are Indonesian English language teachers’ pedagogic habitus capable of change as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation? The third section of this chapter discusses key factors influencing the change in the teachers’ pedagogic habitus. The fourth section of this chapter presents the four mediational tools and their values. Next, the key findings, limitations, and implications of this study are discussed. Finally, this chapter focuses on the concluding remarks of this study.

8.2 Comparison of teachers’ initial pedagogic habitus

As discussed in research methodology, the three case study teachers were chosen as the cases for this study, in part, due to the range of and differences among their personal histories and professional experiences, which structure their habitus. Habitus
does not act alone. Rather, it works in conjunction with the interrelated notions of capital and field to generate practice. Accordingly, this section compares the case study teachers’ initial pedagogic habitus by considering their field and capital. The comparison of the participants’ initial pedagogic habitus is summarised in Table 10 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case study teachers</th>
<th>Cultural Capital</th>
<th>Pedagogic habitus and dispositions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Maya                | *Personal institutionalised cultural capital:* an experienced English teacher who is able to speak English fluently with good pronunciation  
                      *Professional institutionalised cultural capital:* graduated from a public university | • Pedagogic disposition to dominance  
                                                                                     • Pedagogic disposition to formality/distance  
                                                                                     • Pedagogic disposition to accuracy/perfectionism |
| Andi                | *Physical embodied cultural capital:* friendly face  
                      *Personal institutionalised Cultural capital:* choice of attire, sense of humour, confidence, enthusiasm for teaching, and ability to speak English fluently | • Pedagogic disposition to informality/fun  
                                                                                     • Pedagogic disposition to dominance |
| Joko                | *Physical embodied cultural capital:* tall body and loud voice  
                      *Personal institutionalised cultural capital:* ability to speak English fluently, punctual behaviour, great enthusiasm for subject being taught, confidence, and choice of attire  
                      *Professional institutionalised cultural capital:* graduated from public universities | • Pedagogic disposition to dominance  
                                                                                     • Pedagogic disposition to informality |

Table 10: Comparison of the background, capital, and habitus of each case study teacher

As shown in the table above, all three case study teachers have embodied and institutionalised cultural capitals, but Joko has the most capital, particularly in relation to personal institutionalised cultural capital. In addition, Joko has a passion for teaching.
and this provides him with the strongest teaching “presence” among the participants and the highest degree of confidence when teaching. Although Andi is quite confident in teaching, he hides behind informality in an attempt to gain authority. Maya has the least amount of confidence in her teaching practices and she relies mainly on her mastery of the English language to achieve authority in the classroom.

Unlike Andi and Joko, Maya did not have significant physical embodied and personal institutionalised cultural capitals. Both Maya and Joko attained superior professional institutionalised cultural capital because they graduated from public universities. As explained in Chapter 2, a public university is considered to be of a higher quality than a private university. Having graduated from a public university, Maya and Joko are regarded as being better trained and perhaps smarter teachers, than Andi who attended a private university. All participants are able to speak English fluently, but Maya also demonstrates a good English pronunciation skill. Moreover, Maya has the most English teaching experience as she has been teaching the subject for more than 10 years. This suggests that among three case study teachers, Maya has the most professional capital as an English teacher.

Even though all case study teachers demonstrated various pedagogic dispositions, they all possessed a pedagogic disposition to dominance. This was evidenced through such teaching practices as dominating the classroom talk, determining which students are to answer the questions asked, and providing limited think-time to students to formulate their questions and responses, and so forth. Andi and Joko demonstrated both pedagogic disposition to informality and disposition to dominance. This indicated that they actually enjoyed interacting and having a positive relationship with their students, however they also practiced a teacher-centred instruction, which leaded them to be the dominant teacher. In consequence, they were able to make fun teaching and create a warm classroom environment but they did not encourage student engagement and participation in the class.

Joko was the most “charismatic” of the case study teachers and this enhanced his authority as a teacher. However, Joko also possessed a disposition to informality towards his students, as he believed that having a warm relationship with the students was important. Maya was the most “serious” teacher. She had disposition to formality. She did not have a positive relationship with the students as she often made discouraging comments, was not familiar with her students’ names, and seldom complimented the students. Additionally, she had disposition to accuracy/perfectionism
that required the students to use correct English during lessons. This disposition was greatly shaped by her education experiences in public schools and university. In contrast, Andi was a “fun” teacher. He had a disposition to informality that led him to be kind, friendly, and easy-going towards the students. He also often complimented the students, was familiar with their names, and often made jokes during lessons.

A teacher’s personal experience as a student and her or his apprenticeship of observation yield the pedagogic habitus. Lortie (1975) explained that apprenticeship of observation occurred largely through the internalisation of teaching models during a long period of time spent as a student. This experience provides the student with both positive and negative role models. Therefore, in order to exercise agency, a teacher needs to challenge and think critically about the negative role models learned through the apprenticeship of observation for the purpose of enhancing teaching practice. Similarly, Maya’s, Andi’s, and Jokos’ pedagogic practice should be relevant to the needs of the students in their field. As explained in Chapter 4, the case study teachers’ field required them to be warm, friendly, and fun, and to establish a positive relationship with the students. The students also valued teachers who facilitated effective learning due to their low level English language abilities. It is therefore necessary for Maya, Andi, and Joko to accommodate the students’ needs by adopting their pedagogic habitus in order to shape their practice in ways appropriate to their field. The next section of this chapter provides a comparative discussion of the durability of each teacher’s pedagogic dispositions and the changes to their pedagogic habitus, which may have taken place.

8.3 Comparison of durability and change in teachers’ pedagogic habitus

This section discusses the concepts of durability and change in relation to each teacher’s pedagogic habitus. As stated by Roth (2002, p. 50), “change in habitus does not come easily, as habitus is formed and transformed in and through practical experience”. This section therefore provides further explanation of how and why each teacher’s pedagogic habitus was durable or presented evidence of change including the factors that account for the change. Table 11 below summarises the comparison made of the elements of durability and change in each teacher’s pedagogic habitus as a result of their engagement in self-evaluation as a mediational activity, including the subsections: (1) a comparison of the productive disruptions to pedagogic disposition to emerge from the teacher self-evaluation for each case study; and (2) a comparison of the element of durability and of change in pedagogic habitus for each case study.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case study teacher</th>
<th>Pedagogic habitus &amp; dispositions</th>
<th>Productive disruptions resulting from teacher self-evaluation</th>
<th>Durability and change in pedagogic habitus</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maya</td>
<td>Pedagogic disposition to dominance • Pedagogic disposition to formality/distance • Pedagogic disposition to accuracy/perfectionism</td>
<td>How she saw herself: • realised that she was not a warm and friendly teacher • was highly critical and judgmental to her students</td>
<td>Changed her pedagogic disposition to dominance • Changed her pedagogic disposition to formality/distance • Did not change her pedagogic disposition to accuracy/perfectionism</td>
<td>Maya did self-reflection, became aware of the need for change, had commitment to change, took actions to change, and visualized herself to be a better teacher in the future.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>How she saw her teaching: • realised that she rarely complimented the students • saw her teaching as monotonous • realised that she was not good at classroom management • realised that she needed to improve her interaction with the student</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andi</td>
<td>Pedagogic disposition to informality • Pedagogic disposition to dominance</td>
<td>How he saw himself: • realised that he was not demanding enough • realised that there were still things he needed to learn about teaching • saw himself as too dominant</td>
<td>Did not change his pedagogic disposition to informality • Changed his pedagogic disposition to dominance</td>
<td>Andi did self-reflection, became aware of the need for change, had commitment to change, took actions to change, and visualized herself to be a better teacher in the future.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>How he saw his teaching: • realised he talked too much • realised that he needed to improve his interaction with the students • was aware that he needed to give more thinking-time to the students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Joko
- Pedagogic disposition to dominance
- Pedagogic disposition to informality

How he saw himself:
- realised that he was impatient

How he saw his teaching:
- realised he talked too much during lessons
- realised he did not give enough waiting time for students to answer his questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Did not change his pedagogic disposition to dominance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Joko did self-reflection and became aware of the need for change. However, he did not implement actions to change his habitus. He preferred to continue in the same way than to develop new skills. He did not want to give up his power as a teacher.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Did not change his pedagogic disposition to informality |

---

Table 11: Comparison of the elements of durability and change in each teacher's pedagogic disposition as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation

8.3.1 Comparison of productive disruptions of teacher self-evaluation of each case study

As Table 11 illustrates, all case study teachers learned important things about themselves and their teaching practice through their engagement in self-evaluation as a mediational activity. A teacher's pedagogic habitus contributes significantly to the formation of his/her identity as well as her/his practice as a teacher. Self-evaluation is important as it enhances the likelihood of teachers’ reflection by providing additional perspectives on themselves and on their teaching. As a result, the teachers became more aware of the limitations of their habitus and the practices in general.

Conducting self-evaluation enabled Maya to see herself differently. She did not realise that she was unfriendly towards and judgmental of the students. Additionally, teacher self-evaluation has helped Maya to recognise her teaching limitations. She became aware the need to praise the students more regularly, create a livelier classroom atmosphere, improve her classroom management skills, and establish a better relationship with the students. In sum, to become a more effective teacher, Maya needs to change her pedagogic disposition to dominance and formality/distance.
The series of teacher self-evaluation activities helped Andi to develop a new perception of himself as a teacher. In particular, he did not realise that he was not demanding enough as a teacher. In addition, two new insights into his teaching practices that Andi gained following his engagement in the teacher self-evaluation activity were that he was too controlling and that he talked too much during lessons. These practices were generated by his pedagogic disposition to dominance. As a novice teacher, Andi also realised that he still needed to learn more about how to teach more effectively. Through self-evaluation, it becomes clear to Andi that he can improve his teaching by changing his pedagogic disposition to dominance.

Joko learned from his engagement in the series of teacher self-evaluation activities that he was impatient as a teacher. He also realised that he needed to reduce the amount time he talks during lessons, and provide the students with more think-time in order to answer his questions. These practices are the manifestation of his pedagogic disposition to dominance. As such, Joko needs to transform those dispositions into the ones that are suitable for his students’ needs.

Clearly, engagement in the series of teacher self-evaluation activities allowed all the case study teachers to become conscious of their pedagogic habitus and the difficulties they experience with different aspect of teaching. Thus, teacher self-reflection functions as a means for working on pedagogic dispositions with the outcome being a better awareness of teaching actions. The catalyst to successful change involves not only the realisation that there is a need to change but also knowledge of one’s strengths and weaknesses (Fontana & Frey, 1994; Klenke, 2008). Accordingly, what the three case study teachers learned about themselves as teachers – in relation to the weaknesses and strengths in their teaching techniques – provided them with the opportunity to improve their teaching practices. The following subsection compares the elements of durability and change in the pedagogic habitus of each case study teacher.

8.3.2 Comparison of elements of durability and change in the pedagogic habitus of each case study teacher

A series of teacher self-evaluation activities provided all case study teachers with the opportunity to identify their pedagogic dispositions generating teaching practice. Maya, Andi, and Joko became aware that they needed to change their pedagogic dispositions to dominance. In addition, Maya clearly understood that she needed to maintain her pedagogic disposition to accuracy/perfectionism but change her
pedagogic disposition to informality/distance. In contrast, just like Joko, Andi needed to maintain his pedagogic disposition to informality/fun as it was already congruent with their field.

As explained in the previous chapters, a series of teacher self-evaluation activities provided all case study teachers with specific productive disruptions that challenged their usual thinking or perspective about their practice and identity as teachers. Among the case study teachers, Maya was the most unfriendly teacher. Through self-evaluation, Maya realized that she was an unfriendly and judgemental teacher and that this limited her operation in her field. This motivated her to become a friendlier teacher by changing her pedagogic disposition to informality/distance. Similarly, Andi also realized that he was too dominant in the class and he used this understanding to change his practice. Joko also became aware of his identity as impatient teacher through his engagement in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities. Joko’s identity, however, did not develop. In other words, although all three case study teachers engaged in the same teacher professional development activity and teacher self-evaluation process – affording each teacher the same opportunities for transformation – the findings show that only Maya and Andi changed their pedagogic habitus. In contrast, Joko’s pedagogic habitus remained unchanged.

All case study teachers took the opportunity to learn from other teachers through collegial dialogues. Maya and Andi succeeded in changing their pedagogic disposition to dominance. Maya, in particular, shared her thoughts with her colleagues about monotonous nature of her teaching as a result of her disposition to dominance. From them, Maya then learned how to use new teaching techniques and a greater variety of teaching materials during her listening classes and how to move her class to the multimedia laboratory where she could utilise audio and video devices. These audio and video devices played a crucial role to help Maya to shift her pedagogic disposition away from dominance. Similarly, through his engagement in collegial dialogues, Andi acquired new knowledge of various interesting teaching techniques to apply during his lessons. The greater concern about the techniques Andi employed in his class helped him to create more student-centred learning. By contrast, although Joko also learnt about new teaching techniques through collegial colleagues, he continued had teacher-centred instruction when applying those new teaching techniques. Therefore, Joko did not use the techniques to help him change his pedagogic disposition to dominance.
From the study, it may be concluded that Maya and Andi made a conscious effort to change their habitus once aware of their limitation. That is, awareness of their limitations empowered Maya and Andi to consider their possible-selves (Markus & Nurius, 1986). Furthermore, Maya and Andi became aware of the need to change aspects of their pedagogic habitus that were not valued in their field. This affirms Greenberg and Barons’ (2000) claim that unless teachers understand and appreciate the need for change, their interest to preserve the status quo will undoubtedly take precedence over their willingness to accept change. Maya and Andi therefore demonstrated the flexibility and openness to change their way of thinking. They made the decision to change their pedagogic habitus to better fit into their field.

In contrast, even though Joko recognised the opportunity for change, he did not take advantage of the opportunity. Joko stated that he wanted to implement a more student-centred approach by reducing his teacher-talk during lessons yet he did not change from his disposition to dominance. Kang (2002) asserted:

> Changing existing habitus or developing sound habitus means changing practices because the habitus is the principle of practices that one can observe in human actions. Therefore, reflection on habitus requires more than just talking or writing. Reflection on the habitus requires action. Once teachers become aware of their habitus, they need to practice alternatives in order to change their habitus (p. 154).

Accordingly, Joko needed to engage in an appropriate alternative activity if he wanted to change his habitus. In addition, Joko stated that the main reason for maintaining his disposition to dominance was because it had become a habit. This aligns with Greenberg and Baron’s (2000) claim that one of the reasons for teacher resistance is habit, since it is easier to continue in the same way than to develop new skills. Roth (2002) also explains that changing practice does not come easily because it also requires changing the rules that have been enacted at the moment of practice; consequently, it may be easier to do the practice in the same way. Joko therefore struggled to change his pedagogic habitus.

Furthermore, as explained in the previous section, Joko possessed the most institutionalised personal cultural capital of the three case study teachers and this empowered him to act in his field. When Joko was asked about the differences he saw in himself and his teaching and compared to before as a result of teacher self-evaluation
activity, he replied, “at least I know what I should improve in my teaching. Consequently, I have a willingness to improve my practice, but I do not know if I have done enough and tried hard enough or I should transform into a different teacher (Interview 2, 03/02/ 2012). As we can see, Joko felt reluctant to alter his professional identity. This may because he thought that changing his practice required him to be a different teacher and relinquish his “power”. Power is defined as “a teacher’s ability to affect some way the student’s well-being beyond the student’s own control” (Hurt et al., 1978, p. 124). Given that Joko liked to have power as a teacher, he might be afraid to change his practices out of concern that he would lose his power. As a result, Joko demonstrated denial-like behaviours which implied feelings of loss for what was being asked to be given up or left behind (Oliver et al., 2005). The possibility to lose power seemed to limit his range of growth and development. To sum up, the findings of the three case study teachers show that the change in teacher’s pedagogic habitus is influenced by five interrelated factors, namely self-reflection, awareness of the need for change, commitment to change, action to change, and visualization of possible-selves.

8.4 The interrelated factors influencing the change in teachers’ pedagogic habitus

This section presents five interrelated factors that account for the change in a teacher’s pedagogic habitus, which, in turn, leads to the development in his/her identity. These include (1) self-reflection; (2) awareness of the need for change; (3) commitment to change; (4) action to change; and (5) visualization of possible-selves. Each factor is discussed further below.

8.4.1 Self-reflection

Teachers are not completely aware of what happens during their teaching since there are many things going on at the same time when they teach. Therefore, it is necessary for them to examine their practice in order to be aware of how they teach and to “develop their knowledge of practice through reconsidering what they learn in practice”(Loughran, 2002, p. 34). Given the opportunity and encouragement to explore their teaching through a series of teacher self-evaluation activities, all case study teachers were able to identify and explore their practice to see what worked and what did not work within their own understanding of the practice and how they saw themselves as teachers. This understanding then led to the identification of their pedagogic habitus.
In other words, self-reflection provides useful information for teachers about their practice. The acknowledgement of teachers’ pedagogic habitus, identity and some teaching aspects that require special attention encourages teachers to determine personal goals for making changes. The goals encourage teachers to take deliberate steps to develop and change existing pedagogic habitus and practice and develop their identity. This suggests that the need for change will emerge from teacher self-reflection that supports teachers’ development and maintenance of professional expertise.

8.4.2 Awareness of the need for change

A series of teacher self-evaluation activities help teachers to reflect on their practice. This raises their understanding of their practice and themselves as teachers. They, in turn, achieve a level of conscious awareness of the need to change. In my study, all case study teachers were able to identify aspects of their teaching and themselves that hindered them from being a more effective teacher. For example, Maya realized that she needed to improve the way she interacted with her students; Andi fully understood that he spoke too much in the class; Joko realized that he did not give enough waiting time for students to answer his questions. Understanding the things that need to be improved from their teaching motivates teachers to plan steps for change. In other words, teachers raised their awareness for change after they knew what was problematic in their instructional practice.

8.4.3 Commitment to change

Awareness of the need for change does not necessarily bring about the improvement in teaching practice since teachers also need to have commitment to the extra effort required for change. MacDonald (1991, p. 3) claims, “it is the quality of the teachers themselves and the nature of their commitment to change that determines the quality of teaching and the quality of school improvement” and teachers’ commitment to change is an element of motivation to change (Leithwood, Jantzi, & Steinbach, 1999). In other words, teachers’ commitment to change can motivate action when their evaluation of present circumstance of their teaching indicates that it is different from the desired state.

In this study, both Maya and Andi have the commitment to change after they acknowledged their own teaching limitations. For instance, Maya said, “it motivates me to be better. I want to improve my interaction with my students especially in giving
compliments” (Interview 3, 06/06/2012). Similarly, Andi said, “I’m more motivated to create student-centred instruction by reducing my portion of talk and creating more interesting activities” (Interview 3, 13/06/2012). In contrast, Joko did not show his commitment to change although he was aware the need for change in his teaching practice. He said, “actually I was so disappointed to know that I talked too much in the class. Slowly, I will try to reduce the portion of my talk in the class” (Interview 2, 15 January 2012). The word “slowly” he used suggests that he does not have sufficient commitment to change practice.

8.4.4 Action to change

After teachers have committed themselves to change, they need to follow through by taking action to produce the breakthroughs (Fullan, 1993). Hence, teachers need to focus on finding the right fit between their new perspectives and the behaviors, which, in turn, lead to productive change in their teaching practice. Accordingly, in this study, Maya and Andi were committed to take actions by setting new goals and incorporating new practices into their daily teaching to make differences and bring about improvement in their practice. Maya, in particular, referred her students’ names when she interacted with them, complimented the students on their work more often, reduced the amount of time she spent talking during lessons, invited the students to be more active participants in classroom discussions, and provided more opportunities for the students to ask and answer questions voluntarily. Similarly, Andi reduced the amount of time he talked during lessons, provided his students with more thinking time to formulate their questions and answers, and provided the students with more opportunities to answer questions of their own free will.

It is assumed that teachers’ extra commitment and action results in changes in their pedagogic habitus that shape their practice which, in turn, influences students’ outcomes. Maya succeeded in changing her pedagogic disposition to dominance and formality/distance and Andi was able to change his pedagogic disposition to dominance. This suggests that engagement in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities brought about transformed perspectives that guided Maya and Andi into a pattern of new behaviour and changing an aspect of their pedagogic habitus.
8.4.5 Visualization of possible-selves

Visualization of possible-selves also greatly influences the transformation of teachers’ pedagogic habitus and identity. Possible selves encourage teachers to take action or implement strategies that help them to regulate behaviour aimed at realizing hoped-for, or avoiding feared possible selves. In this study, all case study teachers acquired new understandings about themselves as teachers, in particular, their feared selves. Maya became aware that she was not a warm and friendly teacher and was highly critical and judgmental to her students. Andi saw himself as too dominant. Joko realised that he was impatient. However, only Maya and Andi were able to “think about their potential and about their future” (Markus & Nurius, 1986, p. 954) as a result of their reflection on their pedagogic habitus and their practice. When Maya and Andi acknowledged their possible-selves, the future became the primary motivational space (Bell, 1999) in which to take the necessary actions to change their pedagogic habitus. They, therefore, had confidence to become better teachers. The next section of this chapter presents the four mediational tools utilized by the research participants in this study and their value.

8.5 The four mediational tools and their value

This section discusses the value of four mediational tools including teacher self-reflection questions, lesson video recording, student feedback, and collegial dialogue used in this study as a means to help teachers to conduct self-evaluation of their practice. The value of each tool is discussed further below.

8.5.1 Teacher self-reflection questions

Teacher self-reflection questions provide some useful questions that teachers can ask themselves about their teaching, providing them with the opportunity to learn from reflection on their experience. In this study, teacher self-reflection questions were used as a guide to identify a specific focus on research participants’ teaching practice including general teaching and learning, and teacher and student talk in the form of questionnaire. All three case study teachers stated that it was the first time for them to utilize teacher self-reflection questions in evaluating their teaching effectiveness. They reported that the use of teacher self-reflection questions, besides helping to clarify what went well and to identify areas in which they want to improve, worked as guidance for
them in the process of analyzing their video recorded lessons (that will be explained in the next subsection).

### 8.5.2 Lesson video recording

All three case study teachers stated that participating in this study was the first time that they had video recorded their lessons. Lesson video recording is an effective tool for presenting the work of teaching and provides concrete learning opportunities for teachers (Borko, 2004). In this study, teachers emphasized that lesson video recordings functioned as a mirror, allowing them to see themselves in the classroom and reflect on their own performance. Lesson video recordings also allowed them to achieve deeper levels of reflection on their instructional practice since they provide “documentation of classroom activities – documentation that can be worked with in a dynamic manner (viewing a tape repeatedly, with each viewing focusing on another aspect, stopping, rewinding, etc.)” (Talanker, 2003, p. 14). In addition, the case study teachers learnt important information about their professional identity mainly through their video recorded lessons, which gave them a kind of “shock” challenging their normal teacher self-perceptions.

### 8.5.3 Student feedback

As explained in Chapter 4, teachers of the School of Education of KUM stated that they need specific student feedback appropriate to English teaching situation. Hence, the student feedback in this study is designed specifically to help research participants (English teachers) to obtain useful feedback about the effectiveness of their teaching. Student feedback items are synchronized with the items in teacher self-reflection question in order to provide teachers with more valid information about their teaching. As a result, teachers are able to accurately describe their teaching performance; their analysis becomes increasingly meaningful, thereby helping them establish a meaningful plan of action. In this study, case study teachers reported that most of their students provided very positive comments on their teaching. On the one hand, they felt happy because the majority of the students were satisfied with their teaching. On the other hand, they felt that they do not obtain specific negative feedback on their teaching that provided a room for improvement. Therefore, all case study teachers particularly valued negative comments from students in order to know what is
not working for them in their instructional practice and, thus, they know how to make their teaching better.

8.5.4 Collegial dialogue

Learning from the experience of colleagues is an important component of improving teaching. Further, Chang et al. (2014, p. 51) stated that teacher professional development is best done through effective teacher collaboration. However, research participants in this study reported that they have a scant opportunity to talk to other teachers to discuss their teaching. Collegial dialogues in this study, thus, facilitate research participants in meeting each other to review experiences dealing with the common issues and to share other academic problems. The case study teachers reported that talking to colleagues about their problems, in particular, to the teachers who teach the same subject, helped them to find how they might improve or change their practice. Collegial dialogues thus provide more accurate evaluation interpretation of practice. Additionally, they reported that collegial dialogues help them to learn more about various teaching techniques and methods. In other words, collegial dialogues encouraged collegial sharing and enriched teaching practices. The next section of this chapter presents the key findings of this study.

8.6 Key findings

The findings demonstrated that these teachers were positive about their involvement in the series of teacher self-evaluation activities and they reported significant professional growth through their engagement in the self-evaluation activities. Additionally, the use of various mediational tools such as lesson video recordings, teacher self-reflection questions, student feedback, and collegial dialogues to self-evaluate practice increased the teachers’ understanding of their teaching. As a result, these teachers were able to effectively identify areas for improvement. This implies that the quality/nature of a mediation tool is important as it may make a significant contribution to the teacher’s capacity to gain insights into the strengths and weaknesses of their teaching practices. The teacher, in turn, became more aware of the teaching actions in need of improvement, although these teachers individually experienced changes and improvement at varied levels. Hence, teacher self-evaluation is a powerful, productive, and promising method to support teacher professional development.
The findings also showed that self-evaluation mediated reflective practices which led to teaching improvement. Additionally, self-evaluation demonstrated the potential to generate the type of information required by teachers to perceive themselves differently and, in turn, these describe their possible-selves (Markus & Nurius, 1986). As a result of self-evaluation, teachers were therefore able to identify whether or not their professional identity suited the context in which they operated. In this study, two teachers altered their teaching identity: one from dominance to being more accommodating of the students’ needs, and the others from being distant with the students to taking on a friendlier approach. Hence, the teacher self-evaluation activities provided the teachers with productive disruption in their understanding of their professional identity and teaching practices and, as a consequence, this created opportunities for the exploration of new and progressive teacher professional identities.

Further, this study emphasised that in conducting self-evaluation, teachers needed to be supported by evidence derived from a number of sources (such as teacher self-reflection questions, student feedback, lesson video recordings, collegial dialogues, and so forth) and many perspectives (from self, peers, and students). If the teachers understand their practice only from one perspective, it will dominate their perceptions and interpretations of all that goes on, yet remain hidden from view (Pratt & Associates, 1998). Multiple sources and perspectives on teachers’ practice therefore provide a more balanced and accurate interpretation of practice.

The findings also indicated that teacher self-evaluation provides teachers a voice and control over their own practice. They themselves explore their teaching to identify the possible issues that need be addressed so that “they devote greater energy to it than if someone else has chosen the issue” (Danielson & McGreal, 2000, p. 31). Additionally, they have the autonomy to manage their evaluation of their teaching in ways that are suitable with their abilities and interests. This ownership of performance thus encourages teachers’ awareness that they are responsible for and in control of the teaching and learning in their classroom. The next section of this chapter discusses the limitations of this study.

8.7 Limitations

This study is limited in several ways. First, teacher self-evaluation is new to the Indonesian education context and as such there have been few studies conducted on this topic. The findings of the durability and the changes of teachers’ pedagogic habitus as a
result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation in this study must be considered preliminary and therefore needs to be followed up with further research. Second, by limiting my study to a single institution, I focused specifically on the phenomenon of teachers’ pedagogic habitus within a specific sub-field. This project was also a small-scale study initially involving ten English teachers, which focused on case studies of three teachers. Hence, the findings should not be interpreted as a way to reveal broad patterns of teachers’ pedagogic habitus within the system of higher education in Indonesia. Third, this study focused on a short-term examination (five months) of the durability and the changes of teachers’ pedagogic habitus following their engagement in teacher self-evaluation as a mediational activity with some English teachers in a private university.

8.8 Implications

This study presents a number of implications for theory, practice and future research that are discussed in detail below.

8.8.1 Implications for theory

Theoretically, my study uses Bourdieu’s sociological and Vygotsky’s sociocultural theories to explore the nature of teachers’ pedagogic habitus and to what extent teachers’ pedagogic habitus are capable of change as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation. These two theoretical frameworks complement each other by providing a more comprehensive picture of how teachers’ pedagogic habitus are manifested in their teaching practice and how teacher self-evaluation mediate teacher agency by changing the pedagogic habitus that is incongruent with the field.

In particular, Bourdieu’s sociological theory allowed me to look at the ways in which teachers’ personal experience as a student and their apprenticeship of observation yield the pedagogic habitus and how teachers’ pedagogic habitus shape their practice. My thesis, therefore, adds to the very small body of research illustrating how teachers’ pedagogic habitus are manifested in their instructional practice and what factors that account for the change in a teacher’s pedagogic habitus. Additionally, as explained in Chapter 2 that Bourdieu's theory of habitus is somewhat abstract so that it is a challenge to understand it. In this study, I operationalised Bourdieu’s sociological theory. Therefore, I have constructed a bridge between theory and practice to emphasise that Bourdieu’s sociological theory can be used to interpret teachers’ instructional practice.
Furthermore, this study gives special importance to tools to mediate teachers’ changes in their pedagogic habitus. In other words, Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory can be used to emphasise the importance of the quality/nature of a mediation tool for the development of teachers’ practice. In addition, although this study is conducted in the Indonesian context, a sociocultural perspective is also applicable for analysing teachers’ professional development in other contexts.

8.8.2 Implications for practice

This study provides a number of implications for practice. First, good teaching requires the use of various evaluative techniques including teacher self-evaluation to continuously monitor of the effects of teaching actions on students’ learning. Given that teacher self-evaluation is still a relatively new phenomenon in the Indonesian educational context; the positive outcomes reported in this study are promising.

Second, teachers’ participation in a series of teacher self-evaluation in this study support their growth and development. I identify there is links among the individual teacher’s pedagogic habitus, their participation in a series of teacher self-evaluation, and their professional identity development.

Third, this research focus in this study is of significance to both practicing teachers and higher education institutions such as a KUM. With regard to practicing teachers, this study presented evidence to demonstrate the importance of self-evaluation as an effective pathway towards reflection on practice, changed practice, and potential professional development. This study also supported teachers to become more familiar with methods for using of self-evaluation instruments. As a consequence, teachers are now better equipped to gain an understanding of the strengths and limitations of the instruments and how they may be applied within their own teaching context.

Fourth, this study explored teachers’ pedagogic habitus and the elements of durability and change in their habitus as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation. Teacher self-evaluation in this study was considered as a form of teacher professional development. As stated in Chapter 1, there are relatively few studies on teachers’ habitus and professional development in Indonesian contexts. Therefore, the findings of this study fill this gap by contributing insights into teachers’ pedagogic habitus and teacher professional development in this context.

Fifth, by examining the ‘fields’ of the teacher participants, this study provided useful information for higher education institutions such as KUM to consider in regards
to current policies and issues as well as areas for quality improvement. The institutions may be able to use this information to plan effective strategies for the resolution of service delivery issues and to provide more opportunities for teachers to enhance their professional practice and to create a better learning environment for the students. The next section describes the limitations of this study and presents suggestions for future research.

Sixth, I played a significant role in teacher change process since I was the one who facilitated teacher reflection through a series of teacher self-evaluation activities. This involved teachers to video record their lessons, preparing the teacher self-reflection questions and student feedback, arranging time and place for conducting collegial dialogue, and providing necessary support during the whole process. This intervention was essential in being able to stimulate and reveal the phenomenon under study, that is, development of teacher self-reflection. A key recommendation to emerge from this study is that sufficient support should be provided to teachers to enable them to conduct self-evaluation on practice including collegial dialogues since this study highlights the importance of collegial dialogues in developing teachers’ practice. It is reasonable to recommend educational leaders in Indonesia provide opportunities for teachers to formally self-evaluate as “teachers are unlikely to develop a respect for their own experience and knowledge unless they can find wider support and acknowledgement for the value of their experience and understanding” (Loughran & Northfield, 1996, p. 3). The necessary provisions must therefore be in place and will ideally include formal training or workshops on how to perform self-evaluation, the allocation of time to carry out the process, and ongoing support to address teachers’ needs and concerns about the process in terms of consistency and timeliness.

8.8.3 Implications for future research

The mentioned limitations of this study point to opportunities for future research. First, researchers could further develop our understanding of teacher self-evaluation in the Indonesian context for example by utilising a greater variety of self-evaluation instruments. This would offer richer understandings of the strengths and limitations of these tools as well as provide useful information on how they may best be applied.
Second, the findings of this study also show there is the potential for teachers to change their habitus and aspects of their professional identity through self-evaluation, but the duration of any changes made is not certain because one challenge in studying the phenomenon of transformative practice is determining how such a transformation may be sustained over time (Mezirow, 2009). Therefore, further longitudinal study is needed into how teachers can sustain changes in their teaching practices that result from self-evaluation activities. For example, researchers could conduct interventions of self-evaluation activity for a longer period of time to provide a more thorough understanding about teachers’ instructional practice that could lead to the change in their habitus to adapt the needs in their field.

Third, given that habitus only works with capital, field, and practice, teachers’ pedagogic habitus is culturally bound within the specific field of the teacher, suggesting a need for similar studies in other Indonesian contexts. The studies therefore might continue to explore the possibilities of the application of Bourdieu’s sociological theory to interpret teachers’ instructional practice and the prospects for change in their pedagogic habitus.

8.9 Concluding remarks

It is worth noting that this study provided both the participating teachers and the researcher to engage in an impressive learning experience. Teacher self-evaluation was a new experience for the teachers that informed their understanding of how to reflect on instructional practice and to facilitate change. This study was therefore a rewarding experience for the participants as it provided them with an effective means of improving themselves as teachers, their instructional practice, and their capacity to improve student learning outcomes. This study also provided me with a new learning experience. Introducing colleagues to self-evaluation activities and facilitating their engagement in such activities improved my research skills and understanding of the challenges inherent in the self-evaluation process.

Finally, this study has revealed that teacher self-evaluation leads to self-reflection through which teachers understand themselves better in terms of their strengths and areas for development. This reflection challenges teachers’ normal thinking and perspective of themselves and their practice. This suggests that teacher self-evaluation contributes to professional learning by empowering teachers to transform their practice. Hence, it is necessary for both Indonesian universities and
teachers to work together to successfully promote self-evaluation activity. Indonesian universities need to provide time, facilities and resources, and support for their teachers to engage in self-evaluation activity. Indonesian teachers are expected to have commitment to conduct self-evaluation to ensure the quality of their teaching, which in turn improve students’ learning experiences.
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Appendices

Appendix A: Ethics Approval

Human Research Ethics Advisory Panel B
Arts, Humanities & Law

Date: 07.10.2011
Investigators: Ms Umi Tursini
Supervisors: Dr Eva Bernat and Dr Matthew Clarke
School: School of Education
Re: Researching Teacher Self-Evaluation Practices of College English Teachers in Indonesia

Reference Number: 11 119

The Human Research Ethics Advisory Panel B for the Arts, Humanities & Law is satisfied that this project is of minimal ethical impact and meets the requirements as set out in the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research*. Having taken into account the advice of the Panel, the Deputy Vice-Chancellor (Research) has approved the project to proceed.

Your Head of School/Unit/Centre will be informed of this decision. This approval is valid for 12 months from the date stated above.

Yours sincerely

Associate Professor Annie Cossins
Panel Convenor
HREA Panel B for the Arts, Humanities & Law

Cc: Professor Chris Davison
Head of School
School of Education
Appendix B: Permission letter for data collection

July 31st 2011

HREA Panel of Arts
Humanities & Law
University of New South Wales

Dear HREA Panel of Arts, Humanities & Law, University of New South Wales,

I refer to the research project entitled “Researching Teacher Self-Evaluation Practices of College English Teachers in Indonesia” by Umi Tursini, a PhD student of University of New South Wales.

This project has the full support of Kanjuruh University of Malang subject to the individual consent of the potential participant(s).

Dr. Ilahi Sriwijaya, MM
Rector
Kanjuruhan University of Malang
Appendix C: Consent form for research participants

THE UNIVERSITY OF NEW SOUTH WALES

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION STATEMENT AND CONSENT FORM

(Researching Teacher Self-Evaluation Practices of College English Teachers in Indonesia)

Participant selection and purpose of study

You are invited to participate in a study of "Researching Teacher Self-Evaluation Practices of College English Teachers in Indonesia". We will involve you in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities. You are selected as a prospective participant in this study because you are a junior or senior teacher and express your willingness to take part in this study.

Description of study and risks

If you decide to participate, we will ask you to voluntarily take part in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities, which are described below.

You will be asked to audio and video record your teaching and learning process in the classroom for two times which focuses on (1) general teaching and learning and (2) teacher and student talk. Next, you will be asked to complete teacher self-reflection questions immediately after the end of the lesson. Your students will answer the questionnaire about your teaching after the end of the lesson as well. You will be invited to explore the information about your teaching from video, self-reflection questions, and student feedback to find a specific issue in your teaching. This issue will be addressed through collegial dialogues. Therefore, you will be asked to participate in collegial dialogues with other participants. Finally, you will be interviewed concerning your opinions, comments and perception specifically about the use of teacher self-evaluation to help you identify the strengths and limitations of your classroom practice and about the opportunities and challenges in implementing self-evaluation and the changes you make in your teaching after utilizing teacher self-evaluation instruments. With your consent, the interview will be recorded for later reference. Tapes and transcripts will be de-identified by labeling the same codes known only to the researcher. The codes will be used to refer to any particular participant throughout the written component of the thesis.
As this case study explores the challenges and the opportunities for introducing teacher self-evaluation to teachers in Indonesia, you and your institution may gain benefits for your present work from this study. We cannot and do not guarantee or promise that you will receive any benefits from this study.

Confidentiality and disclosure of information

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission, except as required by law. If you give us your permission by signing this document, we plan to discuss the results of this research in conferences, journal articles, book sections, and PhD thesis. In any publication, information will be provided in such a way that you cannot be identified.

Recompense to participants

No costs or remuneration will be incurred or offered to the participant of this research project.

Complaints may be directed to the Ethics Secretariat, The University of New South Wales, SYDNEY 2052 AUSTRALIA (phone 9385 4234, fax 9385 6648, email ethics.sec@unsw.edu.au). Any complaint you make will be investigated promptly and you will be informed out the outcome.

Feedback to participants

At the completion of the study, a summary of the research findings will be offered to you via email or posted mail via the liaison officer of your university.

Your consent

Your decision whether or not to participate will not prejudice your future relations with the University of New South Wales. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw your consent and to discontinue participation at any time without prejudice.

If you have any questions, please feel free to ask us. If you have any additional questions later, we (Ms. Umi Tursini, +61406692844, E-mail address: u.tursini@student.unsw.edu.au, Dr. Eva Bernat, Tel. No: +61425368767 E-mail address: eva.bernat@unsw.edu.au, Dr. Matthew Clark, Tel. No: +61293858628 E-mail address: m.clarke@unsw.edu.au from School of Education, University of New South Wales), will be happy to answer them.

You will be given a copy of this form to keep.
PARTICIPANT INFORMATION STATEMENT AND CONSENT FORM
(continued)

"Researching Teacher Self-Evaluation Practices of College English Teachers in Indonesia"

You are making a decision whether or not to participate. Your signature indicates that, having read the information provided above, you have decided to participate.

……………………………………………………
Signature of Research Participant

……………………………………………………
Signature of Witness

……………………………………………………
(Please PRINT name)

……………………………………………………
(Please PRINT name)

……………………………………………………
Date

……………………………………………………
Nature of Witness

REVOCATION OF CONSENT
(Researching Teacher Self-Evaluation Practices of College English Teachers in Indonesia)

I hereby wish to WITHDRAW my consent to participate in the research proposal described above and understand that such withdrawal WILL NOT jeopardize any treatment or my relationship with The University of New South Wales.

……………………………………………………
Signature

……………………………………………………
Date

……………………………………………………
Please PRINT Name

The section for Revocation of Consent should be forwarded to (Ms Umi Tursini Email Address: u.tursini@student.unsw.edu.au - School of Education - Room 130 Goodsell Building, The University of New South Wales, Kensington, NSW 2052, Sydney, Australia).
Appendix D: Consent form for students

THE UNIVERSITY OF NEW SOUTH WALES

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION STATEMENT AND CONSENT FORM

(Researching Teacher Self-Evaluation Practices of College English Teachers in Indonesia)

Dear Students,

Participant selection and purpose of study

You are invited to participate in a study of “Researching Teacher Self-Evaluation Practices of College English Teachers in Indonesia”. We hope to learn to learn the opportunities and challenges in implementing teacher self-evaluation in Indonesia context. You are selected to take part because your teacher becomes one of the research participants in this study.

Description of study and risks

If you decide to participate, we will ask you to voluntarily engage in the following methods.

Audio Video-Recording

Your class will be audio-video recorded for two times. We will set the video camera at the back in the classroom with tripod. Each recording will last about 1.5 hours on three occasions.

Questionnaire

You will be given a list of questions regarding your teacher’s performance focusing on: (1) general teaching and learning and (2) teacher and student talk. You will be asked to
complete the questions immediately after the end of the lesson for three times.

As study explores the challenges and the opportunities for introducing teacher self-evaluation to teachers in Indonesia, you and your institution may gain benefits for your present work from this study. We cannot and do not guarantee or promise that you will receive any benefits from this study.

**Confidentiality and disclosure of information**

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission, except as required by law. If you give us your permission by signing this document, we plan to discuss the results of this research in conferences, journal articles, book sections, and PhD thesis. In any publication, information will be provided in such a way that you cannot be identified.

**Recompense to participants**

No costs or remuneration will be incurred or offered to the participant of this research project.

Complaints may be directed to the Ethics Secretariat, The University of New South Wales, SYDNEY 2052 AUSTRALIA (phone 9385 4234, fax 9385 6648, email ethics.sec@unsw.edu.au). Any complaint you make will be investigated promptly and you will be informed out the outcome.

**Feedback to participants**

At the completion of the study, a summary of the research findings will be offered to you via email or posted mail via the liaison officer of your university.

**Your consent**

Your decision whether or not to participate will not prejudice your future relations with the University of New South Wales. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw your consent and to discontinue participation at any time without prejudice.

If you have any questions, please feel free to ask us. If you have any additional questions later, we (Ms. Umi Tursini, +61406692844, E-mail address: u.tursini@student.unsw.edu.au, Dr. Eva Bernat, Tel. No: +61425368767 E-mail address eva.bernat@unsw.edu.au, Dr. Matthew Clark, Tel. No: +61293858628 E-mail address: m.clarke@unsw.edu.au from School of Education, University of New South Wales), will be happy to answer them.

You will be given a copy of this form to keep.
Please tick the methods of participation you are happy to consent to.

Audio-video recording

Questionnaire

You are making a decision whether or not to participate. Your signature indicates that, having read the information provided above, you have decided to participate.

.................................................. ..................................................
Signature of Research Participant Signature of Witness

..................................................
(Please PRINT name)

..................................................
(Please PRINT name)

..................................................
Date Nature of Witness
REVOCAION OF CONSENT

(Researching Teacher Self-Evaluation Practices of College English Teachers in Indonesia)

I hereby wish to WITHDRAW my consent to participate in the research proposal described above and understand that such withdrawal WILL NOT jeopardize any treatment or my relationship with The University of New South Wales.

................................. .................................................................
Signature Date

.................................
Please PRINT Name

The section for Revocation of Consent should be forwarded to (Ms Umi Tursini Email Address: u.tursini@student.unsw.edu.au- School of Education - Room 130 Goodsell Building, The University of New South Wales, Kensington, NSW 2052, Sydney, Australia).
Appendix E: Form of teacher self-reflection questions

Section 1

Date : __________________________
Name of Teacher : __________________________
Name of Course : __________________________
Focus : Teaching and Learning in General

To be completed by the teacher immediately after the lesson ended

1. What did you set out to teach?
   ________________________________________________________________

2. Were you able to accomplish your goals?
   ________________________________________________________________

3. What teaching materials did you use?
   ________________________________________________________________

4. How effective were they?
   ________________________________________________________________

5. What techniques did you use?
   ________________________________________________________________

6. Did anything amusing or unusual occur?
   ________________________________________________________________

7. Did you have any problems with the lesson?
   ________________________________________________________________

8. Did you do anything differently from usual?
   ________________________________________________________________

9. Did you depart from lesson plan? If so, why?
   ________________________________________________________________

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10. Did the change make better or worse?

11. What was the main accomplishment of the lesson?

12. Which parts of the lesson were most successful?

13. Which were least successful?

(Adapted from Ho & Richard, 1993)
Section 2

Date : _______________________
Name of Teacher : _______________________
Name of Course : _______________________
Focus : Teacher and student talk

To be completed by the teacher immediately after the lesson ended

1. A. How much do you think students talked in this lesson?
   a. a lot    b. sometimes    c. little

   B. Are you happy with this situation? Why/Why not?

2. A. How much do you think you talked in this lesson?
   a. a lot    b. sometimes    c. little

   B. Are you happy with this situation? Why/Why not?

3. How much do you think you used English in this lesson?
   a. a lot    b. sometimes    c. little

4. How much do you think you used Indonesian in this lesson?
   a. a lot    b. sometimes    c. little

5. How much do you think you give positive statements (praise or encouragement) to the students?
   a. a lot    b. sometimes    c. little
6. Did you speak English fluently? ____________

7. Did you use grammar accurately? ____________

8. Did you think your pronunciation is comprehensible/easily understood? ____________

9. Did you use appropriate vocabulary to match the learners’ needs? ____________
Appendix F: Form of student feedback

Section 1

Date : ______________________
Name of Teacher : ______________________
Name of Course : ______________________
Focus : General teaching and learning

To be completed by the students immediately after the lesson ended

1. What did you learn in this lesson?

_____________________________________________________________________

2. What did you like/ enjoy most in the lesson? Why?

_____________________________________________________________________

_____________________________________________________________________

3. Was there anything in the lesson you thought should have been done differently? If yes, How?

_____________________________________________________________________

_____________________________________________________________________

4. Did you find any difficulties in following the lesson? What are they?

_____________________________________________________________________

_____________________________________________________________________

5. Could you follow teacher’s instruction?

_____________________________________________________________________

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Section 2

Date : _______________________
Name of Teacher : _______________________
Name of Course : _______________________
Focus : Teacher and student talk

To be completed by the students immediately after the lesson ended

1. A. How much do you think your teacher talked in this lesson?
   a. a lot          b. sometimes      c. little

   B. Do you think this is good or bad? Why/Why not?

2. A. How much do you think you talked in this lesson?
   a. a lot          b. sometimes      c. little

   B. Are you happy with this situation? Why/Why not?

4. How much English did your teacher use in this lesson?
   a. a lot          b. sometimes      c. little

5. How much do you think your teacher used Indonesian in this lesson?
   a. a lot          b. sometimes      c. little

6. How much do you think your teacher give positive statements (praise or encouragement) to the students?
   a. a lot          b. sometimes      c. little

7. Did your teacher speak English fluently? _______________________

8. Did your teacher use grammar accurately? _______________________

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9. Did you think your teacher’s pronunciation is comprehensible/easily understood? 

10. Did your teacher use appropriate vocabulary to match your needs? 

Appendix G: Interview guide for research participants
(both English and Indonesian versions)

Section 1
Teachers’ Background

1. Sudah berapa lama anda mengajar Bahasa inggris?
   *(How long have you been teaching English?)*
2. Mata kuliah apa yang anda ajar sekarang?
   *(What lessons are you teaching now?)*
3. Berapa jam per minggu anda mengajar?
   *(How many hours per week are you teaching?)*
4. Apa anda merasa punya hambatan berhubungan dengan skill anda sebagai seorang guru bahasa Inggris? Apakah anda mempunyai usaha khusus untuk mengatasinya?
   *(What are your concerns, if any, regarding your skills as an English teacher? Do you make any special efforts to improve these?)*
5. Aktifitas apa saja yang anda ikuti untuk meningkatkan profesionalitas anda sebagai pengajar? Seberapa sering? Mengapa?
   *(What activities do you engage in to improve your professionalism? And how often? Why?)*
6. Aktifitas lain apa yang ingin anda ikuti? Mengapa?
   *(What other activities would you like to be engaged in? Why?)*
7. Apakah anda berkolaborasi dengan guru bahasa Inggris yang lain untuk meningkatkan pengajaran anda? Mengapa? Mengapa tidak?
   *(Do you collaborate with other English teachers to improve your teaching? Why? Why not?)*
   *(Do you use the English with other English teachers? How regularly? Why? Why not?)*
   *(Do you keep trying new methods in your teaching? Why? Why not?)*
Section 2

The use of teacher self-evaluation help teachers identify the strengths and limitations of their classroom practice

1. Menurut anda apa berbeda evaluasi pengajaran yang selama ini anda lakukan dengan self-evaluation?
   
   *(How do you compare the regular evaluation you had so far to self-evaluation?)*

2. Menurut pemahaman anda, apakah self-evaluation itu?
   
   *(What do you understand self-evaluation to mean?)*

3. Apakah anda sudah pernah menggunakan instrumen teacher self-evaluation sebelumnya?
   
   *(Have you ever used teacher self-evaluation instruments before this experience?)*

   
   *(How do you feel about the use of teacher self-evaluation instruments: audio-video recording, teacher self-reflection, student feedback, and collegial dialogues?)*

5. Setelah menggunakan lesson video recording, teacher self-reflection questions, dan student feedback dalam pengajaran anda, apakah anda bisa mengidentifikasi kelebihan dan kelemahan pengajaran anda? Apa saja kelebihan dan kelemahan tersebut?
   
   *(After using self-evaluation instruments such as lesson video recording, teacher self-reflection questions, and student feedback for your teaching, can you identify the strengths and limitations of your teaching? What are they?)*

6. Menurut anda, instrumen mana yang paling banyak membantu?
   
   *(Which instrument is the most useful for you?)*

7. Apakah anda akan mempunyai rencana untuk menggunakan instrumen self-evaluation yang lain? Mengapa?
   
   *(Would you consider engaging in self-evaluation via another instrument? Why?)*

Teachers’ view about lesson video recording

1. Apa yang anda rasakan ketika proses pengajaran anda dikelas direkam?
   
   *(How did you feel while you were videotaping yourself in your classroom?)*
2. Bagaimana reaksi mahasiswa anda ketika proses pembelajaran direkam?
   *(How did your learners appear while you were videotaping the classroom?)*
3. Apakah anda mengalami kesulitan selama proses perekaman? Apakah itu?
   *(Did you experience any difficulty during the videotaping process? What is that?)*
4. Apakah anda mempunyai video camera? Apakah anda akan menggunakankannya untuk merekam proses pembelajaran anda nantinya?
   *(Do you own a video camera? Would you consider using it in your classroom for future self-evaluation?)*
5. Bagaimana penilaian anda tentang penggunaan lesson video recording untuk tujuan self-evaluation?
   *(How would you evaluate your experience with the process of lesson video recording for the purpose of self-evaluation?)*

(Adapted from Morgan, 2000)

**Teachers’ view about teacher self-reflection questions**

1. Kesulitan terbesar apa yang anda rasakan ketika menggunakan self-reflection questions?
   *(What is the most difficult aspect in using self-reflection questions?)*
2. Apakah anda akan menggunakankannya lagi?
   *(Would you consider using it for future self-evaluation?)*
3. Bagaimana penilaian anda tentang penggunaan self-reflection questions untuk tujuan self-evaluation?
   *(How would you evaluate your experience with the use of self-reflection questions for the purpose of self-evaluation?)*

**Teachers’ view about student feedback**

1. Apa anda senang dengan hasil feedback dari mahasiswa anda?
   *(Are you happy with the result of your student feedback?)*
2. Menurut anda apakah student feedback terhadap pengajaran anda itu akurat?
   *(Do you think student feedback about your instructional practices is generally accurate?)*
3. Kesulitan terbesar apa yang anda rasakan ketika menggunakan student feedback?
   *(What is the most difficult aspect in using student feedback?)*
4. Apakah anda akan menggunakannya lagi?
   *(Would you consider using it for future self-evaluation?)*
5. Bagaimana penilaian anda tentang penggunaan student feedback untuk tujuan self-evaluation?
   *(How would you evaluate your experience with the use of student feedback for the purpose of self-evaluation?)*

**Teachers’ view about collegial dialogue**

1. Apakah anda pernah melakukan collegial dialogues sebelumnya? Mengapa?
   Mengapa tidak?
   *(Did you ever conduct collegial dialogues before? Why? Why Not?)*
2. Menurut anda apakah collegial dialogue membantu anda meningkatkan pengajaran anda?
   *(Did collegial dialogues help you to improve your teaching?)*
3. Kesulitan apa saja, jika ada, yang anda alami ketika melakukan collegial dialogue?
   *(What difficulties, if any, you had in collegial dialogues?)*
4. Apakah anda akan melakukan collegial dialogues lagi untuk self-evaluation dimasa datang?
   *(Would you consider engaging in collegial dialogues for future self-evaluation?)*
5. Bagaimana penilaian anda tentang penggunaan collegial dialogues untuk tujuan self-evaluation?
   *(How would you evaluate your experience with the use collegial dialogues for the purpose of self-evaluation?)*

**The change (s) the teachers make in their practices through their engagement in self-evaluation as a mediational activity**

1. Element pengajaran apa yang anda pilih untuk ditingkatkan dalam proses self-evaluation ini?
   *(What element of teaching did you select for improvement in this self-evaluation process?)*
2. Apa anda melihat perubahan pada element pengajaran yang anda pilih untuk ditingkatkan dalam proses self-evaluation ini?

(Did you notice any changes in your selected element of teaching upon having engaged in this self-evaluation process?)

3. Apa anda melihat perubahan pada praktek pengajaran anda secara umum sebagai dampak proses self-evaluation ini?

(Did you notice any changes in your general teaching practices upon having engaged in this self-evaluation process?)

4. Apa anda melihat perubahan pada pembelajaran mahasiswa dalam sebagai dampak proses self-evaluation ini? (Misalkan: peningkatan nilai mahasiswa?)

(Did you notice any changes in your learners’ outcomes upon having engaged in this self-evaluation process? (Example: improvements in their score?))

The challenges and opportunities in implementing self-evaluation as perceived by the English teachers

1. Menurut anda apa saja kelebihan dan kekurangan dari self-evaluation?

(What are your perceptions about the strengths and weaknesses of self-evaluation?)

2. Apa anda mempunyai saran untuk penerapan self-evaluation di tempat anda mengajar? Kalau iya, apa saja saran tersebut?

(Do you have any specific suggestion for the implementation of self-evaluation in your institution? If yes, what are they?)

3. Apakah penggunaan instrumen self-evaluation akan membantu anda di kemudian hari? Bagaimana?

(Will the use of self-evaluation instruments help you in the future? If so, how?)

4. Apakah anda akan menerapkan self-evaluation dikemudian hari? Mengapa?

(Would you engage in self-evaluation in the future? Why?)
## Appendix H: Interview guide for case study teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Prompt or Follow-up Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ Pedagogic habitus</td>
<td>1. What are your goals in your teaching?</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. After viewing video recordings of your lessons, reading student feedback, completing teacher self-reflection questions, how would you describe your teaching so far?</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Your teaching style (formal authority, demonstrator, facilitator, or delegator)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Your ability to effectively manage the class</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• The quality of student interaction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. What do you feel needs to be maintained in your teaching?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. What do you feel needs to be improved in your teaching?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. How would you characterize your students’ learning in your class? Are you happy with that?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Why do you think students need to learn English?</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. What are important contextual factors or conditions for student to learn English?</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. What are the roles of students in the classroom? (independent learner, community contributor, coordinator, task master, noise monitor, clean-up/maintenance, etc).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Field (curriculum offerings and reputation) | 1. What is your opinion about the recent curriculum in your department? Is there anything that you wish to be changed? Why?  
2. Could you suggest an addition or improvement to the curriculum that you would like to add, and how would you implement it?  
3. Does the curriculum in your department give any effect on your professional practice?  
4. Does the institution reputation affect your professional practice? |
|---|---|
| The possibility of changes in teachers’ pedagogic disposition | 1. Do you see any changes in your teaching practices and yourself upon having engaged in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities? What are they?  
2. What differences do you see in your teaching and yourself now compared to what you used to as a result of your engagement in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities?  
3. What do you think you had learned through teacher self-evaluation activity?  
4. Did your teaching goals change through teacher self-evaluation activity? Why?/Why not? |
| 9. Could you describe your ideas about how to encourage student to learn English? |  |
| Field (organizational practices: policies) | 1. What do you think about the institutional policy that governs your teaching? e.g.:  
- Teaching hours/schedule  
- The nature and availability of facilities and materials  
- Exam rule and schedule  
- Teaching evaluation  
- Teaching and learning process (attendance, students’ grade, classroom rule)  
2. What types of programs or services do you find helpful in your professional development?  
3. What do you think the university should do for teachers?  
4. What qualities about the campus do you think are influential to your professional practice?  
5. What do you expect to see now in your institution to create a successful teaching and learning environment? |
### Appendix I: Interview guide for university managers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Prompt or Follow-up Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Field (curriculum offerings and reputation)| 1. What is your opinion about the recent curriculum in your department? Is there anything you want to change? Why?  
2. How often is the curriculum monitored/revised? Who involved in the revision process?  
3. What student needs is the curriculum (courses) intended to service?  
4. How would you describe the reputation of your institution? |                                                                             |
| Field (organizational practice: policies)  | 1. What policies do the institution make to govern teachers’ instructional practice? Are you happy with that? Is there anything you want to change?  
2. What types of programs or services do the institution make to improve teachers’ professional development? |                                                                             |
## Appendix J: Interview guide for other English teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Prompt or Follow-up Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Field (curriculum offerings and reputation) | 1. What is your opinion about the recent curriculum in your department? Is there anything that you wish to be changed? Why?  
2. Is the curriculum (courses) suitable with student needs?  
3. How would you describe the reputation of your institution? |                              |
| Field (organizational practice: policies) | 1. Are happy with the institutional policy that governs teachers’ instructional practice? e.g.:  
• Teaching hours/schedule  
• The nature and availability of facilities and materials  
• Exam rule and schedule  
• Teaching evaluation  
• Teaching and learning process (attendance, students ‘grade, classroom rule)  
2. Do you think the institution has facilitated teachers to improve their professionalism? How?  
3. Are you happy with the programs or services provided by the institution for teachers? |                              |
Appendix K: Interview guide for English students
(both English and Indonesian Versions)

1. Menurutmu apa perbedaan kuliah di universitas negeri dan swasta?
   (In your opinion, what is the difference between studying at a public university and studying at a private university?)

2. Apa alasanmu kuliah di Universitas Kanjuruhan Malang?
   (What is your reason to study at Kanjuruhan University of Malang?)

3. Menurutmu apa kelebihan Universitas Kanjuruhan Malang?
   (In your opinion, what are the good things you can see from Kanjuruhan University of Malang?)

4. Menurutmu, apa yang perlu di tingkatkan di Universitas Kanjuruhan Malang?
   (In your opinion, what are the things need to be improved in Kanjuruhan University of Malang?)

5. Dosen seperti apa yang kamu butuhkan di Universitas Kanjuruhan Malang?
   Mengapa?
   (What are the characteristics of the lecturer that you need to teach at Kanjuruhan University of Malang? Why?)
Appendix L: A sample interview transcription

Interviewer: Terima kasih Pak Teguh. Saya sebelumnya mau bertanya dahulu mengenai your background. Jadi tempat tanggal lahir tepatnya dimana pak?

Interviewer: Thank you Mr. Joko for your time. I will begin the interview by asking you about your background. Firstly, where and when were you born?


Interviewer: Oh asli Malang ya Pak. 23 November 1967, and now 44 years old. Sudah berapa lama Pak mengajar Bahasa Inggris?

Interviewer: Oh..you are from Malang. You was born on 23 November 1967. It means you are now 44 years old. How long have you been teaching English?


Selain mengajar di sini sekarang saya sudah mengajar di UIN,
Universitas Islam Negeri Malang kemudian sama UNMUH itu. Untuk UIN ini saya pengabdian sebenarnya, itu panggilan nurani saya, panggilan untuk berbuat sesuatu untuk agama saya itu saja.

Joko: Actually I started teaching in private courses when I just finished my bachelor in the end of 1991 for some months. I then worked in a property as a Marketing Representative. After working in property around 4 up to 5 years, I did not feel happy because I wanted to teach. Then I taught in some English courses again.

Then in 2008, I wanted to dedicate my time fully in education field. I decided to quit and continued my study to earn a Master’s Degree at State University of Malang. Thank goodness, from many applicants, I was accepted. Actually at that time, I did not have enough self-confidence. However, my friends said that I was a student with a high self-confidence. If there were assignments, my friends came to my house to do the assignments together and asked my help. Actually I did not think that I was smart.

In 2008, I also applied to teach at Kanjuruhan University of Malang and was accepted. The subject I taught at that time was Reading Comprehension, Listening, and Classroom Action Research. Thank Goodness, after graduating from State University of Malang, I could teach here full time.

Besides teaching at Kanjuruhan University of Malang, I am now also teaching at UIN, Islamic State University of Malang and Muhammadiyah University of Malang. Teaching at Islamic State University of Malang actually comes from my heart for the sake of my religion. I wanted to do something good for other people.

Interviewer: Jadi bahkan Bapak pernah mengajar mata kuliah Classroom Action Research ya?

Interviewer: So it means that you have experience to teach Classroom Action Research?


Joko: Yes, I did. Actually, I was little bit not confident to teach it. Once I was asked by Mr. Mujiono, the head of the English Department, to teach Statistics. He said: “Mr. Joko could you help me to teach Statistics?”, I then said “No way Sir” because I am not good at
Math. If I feel I am not good at something, I do not want to do it. At that time, because I was teaching Classroom Action Research at Muhammadiyah University of Malang, so that I was willing to teach it at Kanjuruhan University of Malang. I also kept learning about Classroom Action Research and I think the result was not bad.

Interviewer: Dan sekarang mata kuliah apa yang Bapak ajar?

Interviewer: And now what lessons are you teaching?

Joko: Untuk semester ini sebenarnya agak keluar dari mata kuliah biasanya. Saya biasanya itu di beri 5 kelas untuk Writing, biasanya Writing 3 atau Writing 4 untuk essay writing tapi semester ini saya Cuma 1 kelas untuk Writing yang lainnya Extensive Reading.

Joko: For this semester, I actually do not have the same lessons to teach as previous semester. The school usually asks me to teach Writing for five classes especially Writing 3 and 4. However, in this semester, I have to teach Writing only for 1 class and Extensive Reading for other classes.

Interviewer: Writing dan Extensive reading ya?

Interviewer: So you are teaching Writing and Extensive Reading?

Joko: Iya

Joko: Yes

Interviewer: Jadi berapa SKS per minggu mengajarnya?

Interviewer: How many credits per week are you teaching?

Joko: Per minggu saya mengajar 12 SKS, jadi 2 untuk Writing. Eh 14 SKS. Jadi 2 SKS untuk Writing yang 12 itu hanya Extensive Reading karena ada 6 kelas yang saya pegang.

Joko: I am teaching 12 credits in a week. Uhmm 14 credits. So 2 credits are for teaching Writing and 12 credits are for teaching Extensive Reading. This is because I am teaching 6 classes for Extensive Reading.

Interviewer: Sekarang berhubungan dengan mungkin Bapak yang rasakan skill tertentu ketika Bapak mengajar apakah Bapak merasakan ada kelemahan di bidang tertentu ketika mengajar, skill yang berhubungan dengan skill mengajar, apakah Bapak merasakan ada kelemahan atau kekurangan dari skill itu?
Interviewer: Now I am going to ask about your skill as a teacher. What are your concerns, if any, regarding your skills as an English teacher?

Joko: Ada, seorang guru itu harus merasakan bahwa dirinya selalu kurang begitu. Kalau kita merasa saya sudah pintar itu adalah guru itu pasti bermasalah. Saya selalu biasanya minta pendapat mahasiswa itu anak ketua kelas saya panggil, yang tidak suka manca tong bilang saya. Saya pasti minta pendapat itu tapi berdasarkan feedback yang diberikan anak anak ini, di Writing 2 saya lihat ini kok dari 2 kali ini mungkin 95 persen atau mungkin sekitar dari 34 mahasiswa itu 33 menyatakan happy with my class. Disebutkan juga di sini salah satunya, ini dari mahasiswa itu how much do you think your teacher talk in this lesson? A lot. Ini sebenarnya hal yang tidak saya suka ya. Kemudian, are you happy with the situation? I am happy this is writing subject we need to write and we just talk when we want to ask something we don’t understand.

Iya walaupun ini feedbacknya agak membingungkan tetapi secara garis besar anak anak senang dengan cara saya. Tapi saya masing merasa punya kekurangan. Ya satu saya kurang bisa memotivasi mahasiswa saya berkerja lebih keras ya karena saya ingin menciptakan student centre learning bukan teacher centre learning. Jadi mahasiswa yang aktif dan saya sering ngomong pada mahasiswa, talk less do more begitu. Talk less sebagai guru, do more itu sebagai mahasiswa nya yang harus lebih aktif. Jadi saya masih merasa kurang di motivasi sama yang kedua adalah pronounciation.

Joko: Yes. Every teacher must feel that he/she always lacks of teaching skill. If he/she thinks that he/she is already smart, I think that’s not right. I usually asked feedback from my students especially about which aspects I needed to improve. Fortunately, based on the student feedback, around 34 students or 95 % of the students in my Writing 2 class were happy with my teaching. In one of items you made, how much do you think your teacher talk in this lesson?, some students answered “a lot”. Actually I do not like such comment. Then, when the students were asked, “are you happy with this situation?”, some answered, “I am happy this is writing subject we need to write and we just talk when we want to ask something we don’t understand.”

Although such comment was confusing but most of students were happy with my teaching. I realize that I still need to motivate my students to work harder because I want to create student learning not teacher learning center. So I want students to be active and I always tell them “talk less” as a teacher, and “do more” as students. So my concern about my teaching is I feel lacking in motivating students and also in my pronunciation.
Interviewer : Terus bagaimana cara Bapak selama ini untuk meminimalisir kekurangan Bapak itu?

Joko : Ya saya sering nonton TV, film film berbahasa inggris itu. Saya juga sering kadang kadang kalau waktu membaca sesuatu saya tidak tahu artinya kadang kadang kalu tidak begitu yakin pronunciation nya pas saya buka Oxford dictionary, saya ingin konsultasi dengan Oxford yang betul yang mana.

Interviewer : Then do you make any special efforts to improve these?

Joko : Yes. I love watching movies especially English movies. When I was reading something, I also sometimes looked up the word in the Oxford dictionary when I was not sure about its correct pronunciation.

Interviewer : Apa Bapak punya aktifitas lain untuk meningkatkan profesionalism sebagai seorang guru?


Interviewer : What activities do you engage in to improve your professionalism?

Joko : Yes, sometimes I attend seminars such as the upcoming seminar in two more days about using web. I will attend it because it will be useful for me. I feel I am still far from being a professional teacher so that I need to keep learning and learning. I also love reading articles, in particular, articles about education to know something new. Sometimes I realized that I already used a certain teaching method that was discussed in the article but I did not know the name of that method if I did not read that article. So reading, listening, and attending seminars are important.

Interviewer : Untuk seminarnya itu seberapa sering Pak?

Joko : Itu ya karena mungkin keterbatasan waktu, ya itu mungkin ya satu semester satu kali. Walaupun sebenarnya yang ideal itu bisa tiga kali empat kali satu semester. Jadi kalau bisa malah sebulan sekali begitu. Cuma kan kadang kita kalaupun harus seminar jauh, kita
Because of the limited time, I attend a seminar maybe around once per semester. Although I know ideally it should be around three or four times in one semester. Even if it is possible, it should be once in a month. However, if the seminar is held outside the town, time will become the major issue.

What other activities would you like to be engaged in? Why?

Saya ingin melanjutkan ke S3, begitu aja. Itu memang tapi ya masih saya planning itu. Saya tidak tahu apa insyaallah tahun 2012 atau 2013 saya tidak tahu. Tapi yang jelas karena saya merasa diri saya masih kurang. Siapa tahu nanti bisa ikut ......... program yang stay di luar negeri empat atau lima bulan lha itu kan bisa meningkatkan kemampuan saya juga pemahaman karena apa belajar bahasa itu tidak lengkap kalau kita belum terjun langsung ke native speaker dimana bahasa itu dipakai. Karena apa, karena kalu kita mempelajari bahasa otomatis kita mempelajari budaya itu aja.

I want to continue my study to earn a Doctora’s Degree soon. That is my plan. I do not know whether I can do it in 2012 or 2013. I am still not sure. The sure thing is that I think I need to always improve my skill as a teacher. If I can join a short course to stay abroad for about four up to five months, it will be very great for me since it will improve my English. Moreover, learning language means learning the culture.
Appendix M: A sample collegial dialogue transcription

Researcher : Can we start now? Assalamualaikum Wr. Wb. Thanks a lot for your participation in this collegial dialogue. Today, we will share your teaching including the materials you are using, your students, or any problems you have related to your teaching. I think it is better if we speak Indonesian to make it easier to understand. We can start from Miss Maya. So Miss Maya is now teaching Listening. What Listening?

Maya : Listening 1

Researcher : Iya listening 1. Silahkan Mbak Maya sharing ke Bapak Ibu yang lain mengenai pengajaran yang sekarang sedang berlangsung.


Researcher : Yes Listening 1. Now please share to others about your teaching.

Maya : Okay. Using Indonesian right? These two semesters I have been teaching Listening 1. So...every first term, I teach Listening 1. I’m using Sound Bites book.

Joko : Oh.. Sound Bites?

Maya : Iya Sound Bites 1. Di buku itu kan materinya sangat mudah sekali dan ternyata dalam kenyataannya mereka masih punya kendala. Padahal itu sudah saya pilihkan materi yang sangat mudah yang sesuai level mereka tetapi masih ada kesulitannya. Nah sepertinya ketika proses belajar mengajar berlangsung, sepertinya mereka paham.

Tetapi setelah ada quiz begitu hasilnya tidak memuaskan tidak seperti apa yang saya harapkan. Nah yang membuat saya bingung apakah metode yang saya gunakan dalam mengajar itu tidak tepat? Ataukah memang input mereka yang kurang memadai? Ataukah karena faktor lain saya juga kurang tahu? Mungkin mereka pinjam buku kakak kelasnya dan (tertawa) sudah diisi sebelumnya saya juga gak ngerti belom pernah nge cek itu. Cuman ya itu tadi

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hasilnya tidak memuaskan. Nah untuk metodenya sendiri saya e..tidak memakai media..e.. apa namanya? Ee video ataupun gambar tidak..jadi full pure pake apa namanya? Hanya mengandalkan apa namanya?

Maya: Yes Sound Bites 1. I think the teaching materials in that book is not too difficult to understand for my students but in reality they still got difficulties. I even chose the easy teaching materials that were suitable with their level but they still got difficulty. In the teaching and learning process, it’s look like they understood the materials.

However, when I tested them, the results were disappointing. I don’t understand what the problems are: whether my teaching method was not right? Whether their English proficiency was low? Or maybe because of other factors? Perhaps, they borrowed the book from their senior and (laughing) there was answer keys in that book. I’m not sure because I haven’t checked it. The problem is the students’ test results were not good. I did not use media..what is it? Uhm..video or pictures. So only use..what is it?

Researcher: Audio


Maya: Yes only audio. I also have..what is it? A kind of warming up. Oh..brainstorming (laughing) to help them to develop their ideas. I also combine my lesson with speaking. Any ideas how to improve my teaching?

Researcher: Kalau partisipasi dalam proses pembelajaran mereka bagaimana Mbak?

Researcher: How is their participation in the class?

Maya: Oh ya mereka biasanya lumayan aktif

Maya: Oh, they were active enough in the class.

Hani: Almost all?

Hani: Almost all?

Maya: Kalau mereka yang berani raise their hand gitu hanya some tapi ketika saya nanya “ini maksudnya apa?” tanpa minta mereka untuk angkat tangan mereka pasti bisa jawab gitu.

Maya: There were only some students who raised their hand to ask. When I asked them, “what does it mean?”, they could answer the questions voluntarily without I asked them to raise their hand.
Hani : Ketika di tanya gitu.. maksudnya sampai Mbak Meita mendapat gambaran mereka ngerti gitu, pertanyaan yang seperti apa? Pake materi secara langsung ya?

Hani : *What kind of questions did you give them? I mean.. were they taken from the material book directly?*

Maya : Iya berkaitan dengan itu tapi saya bisanya ke detail. Mungkin di materi hanya nanyain ini true atau false. Nah saya nanyanya ke detail lagi bukan hanya dia bisa jawab true atau false saja tapi kenapa kamu bisa jawab true.

Maya : *Yes, the questions were still related to the book but in more detail. For example, I asked them about the statement true or false. I then asked them the reason why they said true or false.*

Hani : *Explain gitu?*

Hani : *So explain?*

Maya : *Iya explain*

Maya : *Yes explain*

Hani : O begitu bisa ya? Waktu di kelas mereka bisa.

Hani : *Oh..it worked? They were able to answer well in teaching and learning process but not in the examination.*

Maya : Iya. That’s the problem (senyum)

Maya : *Yes. That’s the problem (smiling)*

Researcher : Atau pressure nya ya?

Researcher : *or maybe the pressure?*

Hani : Iya kali kan stressful kalo di tes.

Hani : *Yes maybe. They were more stressful if they were tested.*

Researcher : Iya kenapa Pak Andi?

Researcher : *Yes Mr. Andi?*

Andi : Test nya masih relate to the previous lesson?

Andi : *The test you gave was still related to previous lesson right?*

Maya : Iya

Maya : *Yes*

Andi : Tapi hasilnya berbeda ketika praktek?

Andi : *But the result in the test was different?*

Maya : Iya

Maya : *Yes*

Hani : Kan materialnya saja yang beda ya mbak kalau test itu?
Hani : So only the material that was different when you conducted a test right?

Maya : Iya topiknya sama levelnya sama. Jadi di Sound Bites itu kan unit 1 sampai dengan 3 setelah itu unit 4 nya review. Nah review itu membahas material dari unit 1 sampai 3 nah itu yang saya test kan.

Maya : Yes, the topic and the level was the same. So in Sound Bites book, after unit 1 up to 3, there will be unit 4 as the review. I then took the material for test from that review unit to test what they had learned in unit 1 up to 3.

Researcher : Mungkin yang pernah punya pengalaman mengajar Listening ketika memberikan test seperti apa?

Researcher : Maybe for those who experienced teaching Listening, can share more about testing?

Joko : Kalau Listening saya memang kurang punya apa ya? Untuk variannya saya juga bingung juga. Tapi pengalaman saya dulu untuk Listening 1 saya pakai Sound Bites 2 karena Sound Bites 1 itu saya pikir terlalu mudah kenyataanya anak2 bisa waktu ujian juga bisa. Atau mungkin berapa kali memperdengarkanannya?

Joko : I do not have much experience in teaching Listening subject. I think I could not have a variety of teaching methods, I used Sound Bites 2 for teaching Listening 1 because Sound Bites 1 was I think too easy for students. How many times did you play the cassette?

Maya : Setidaknya 3 kali.

Maya : At least 3 times.

Hani : Kalau pas ujian Mbak?

Hani : Then how about in the examination?

Maya : Kalau pas ujian bahkan lebih bisa 4 kali.

Maya : It could be around 4 times or more.

Semua dosen : ooooo (tertawa)

All lecturers : oooooo (laughing)

Joko : Mungkin ini memang berhubungan dengan pressure memang ada itu. Kalau kita analogikan dengan reading ya kalau reading kita suruh ngerjakan berbeda dengan test. Mungkin barangkali kurang relax?

Joko : So I think it is maybe related to pressure. Analogically, when I teach Reading subject to my students, the result of their work in teaching and learning process and test is different. Maybe because they were not relax?

Maya : Mungkin ya.
Maya: Yes maybe.

Researcher: Ketika test posisi tempat duduk tetap sama atau berbeda?
Researcher: When you tested them, did you have different seat arrangement?

Maya: O saya beri sela satu bangku waktu quiz.
Maya: Oh yes.. I asked them to sit row by row.

Semua dosen: Hmm itu (tertawa).
All lecturers: Hmm that’s the problem (laughing).

Andi: Jadi secara psychology itu more stressful.
Andi: So, psychologically, they were more stressful.

Hani: Any kind of test pasti begitu
Hani: I think it happened to any kind of test

Joko: Mungkin pas mau test di beri brainstorming lagi gak pa-pa
Joko: Or maybe you can also do brainstorming when you test them?

Hani: Atau itu coba itu mbak pake movie? Belom pernah kah?
Hani: Or maybe you can use movies? You never do it right?

Joko: Kelasnya di mana di lab traditional atau multimedia?
Joko: Where is your class? In traditional or multimedia language laboratory?

Maya: Di tradisional. Nah itu kalau saya pindah saya harus menghubungi sapa ya?
Maya: In traditional language laboratory. If I want to move my Listening class to Multimedia one, who should I contact?


Andi: Yes. You can move your class to the multimedia laboratory. You just need to contact Mr. Tamam or Mrs. Arining. I have Mrs. Arining’s phone number if you want. I think using video in your Listening class will be more effective. I am also teaching Listening subject this semester. My students are active and their grades are just fine. I have some good videos for teaching Listening as well. If you want to, I can lend them to you.

Maya: Wow, that’s great.
### Appendix N: Sample lesson observation notes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>: Tuesday, 29 May 2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instructor’s Name</td>
<td>: Mr. Joko</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>: Writing 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topic</td>
<td>: Writing Publishing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Class started at 08:40 AM with most students on time, several drifted in after class began.
- Class consisted of approximately 30 students.
- Instructor started the class enthusiastically by greeting his students informally.
- Instructor then reviewed the teaching materials in the previous meeting. The students had been asked to write in the previous meeting and had done peer-checking activity. The instructor then appointed one student by calling her first name to read her writing in front of the class.
- Instructor asked other students to give some feedback on their friend’s writing. Unfortunately, there was no comment. The instructor then explained some mistakes such as grammar and spelling in students’ writing.
- Before pointing another student to read his/her writing in front of the class, instructor moved freely about the room, making eye contact with all students, asking if students had any questions. However, the students did not ask him.
- Instructor pointed another student by calling his first name to read his writing in front of the class. However, some students did not pay attention well on him. The instructor then asked the student to read his writing more loudly.
- When the students were little bit noisy, he warned them to be quiet.
- Instructor interrupted the student when he was reading his writing by correcting the mistakes in his pronunciation.
- Instructor sometimes made a joke that invited the students to laugh.
- By 9:40 AM, the instructor asked all students to hand in their final writing to him. He then explained about some common mistakes in students’ writing and discussed about writing publishing by emphasizing the importance of peer checking.
- At 10:20 AM sharp, instructor finished his lesson.
Appendix O: Sample completed student feedback

Date: October 18th, 2011
Name of Teacher: [BLANK]
Name of Course: Reading 4
Focus: General teaching and learning

To be completed by the students immediately after the lesson ended

1. What did you learn in this lesson?
   Understanding statement

2. What did you like/enjoy most in the lesson? Why?
   Make a group, because we share in our group and discuss
   about the lesson and giving my opinion directly.

3. Was there anything in the lesson you thought should have been done differently? If yes, How?
   Yes, for make a group not only make a group but
   make a game.

4. Did you find any difficulties in following the lesson? What are they?
   No, I did not

5. Could you follow teacher’s instructions?
   Yes, of course I can.
Date : 18 October 2011
Name of Teacher :
Name of Course : Reading 3
Focus : General teaching and learning

To be completed by the students immediately after the lesson ended

1. What did you learn in this lesson?
   Understanding statement

2. What did you like/enjoy most in the lesson? Why?
   When I get something New. Because He always Bring Us
   new experience to this lesson

3. Was there anything in the lesson you thought should have been done differently? If yes, how?
   No, there was not

4. Did you find any difficulties in following the lesson? What are they?
   No, I didn’t

5. Could you follow teacher’s instructions?
   Yes, of course
Date: 27th October 2011
Name of Teacher: [Name]
Name of Course: Vocabulary
Focus: Teacher and student talk.

To be completed by the students immediately after the lesson ended

1.A. How much do you think your teacher talked in this lesson?
   a. a lot  b. sometimes  c. little
   
2. Do you think this is good or bad? Why? Why not?
   Good because he used the simple words so much.
   It's not difficult.

2.A. How much do you think you talked in this lesson?
   a. a lot  b. sometimes  c. little
   
2.B. Are you happy with this situation? Why? Why not?
   Yes, because the give us chance to practice speaking.

4. How much English did your teacher use in this lesson?
   a. a lot  b. sometimes  c. little

5. How much do you think your teacher used Indonesian in this lesson?
   a. a lot  b. sometimes  c. little

6. How much do you think your teacher give positive statements (praise or encouragement) to the students?
   a. a lot  b. sometimes  c. little

7. Did your teacher speak English fluently? [Yes] he did

8. Did your teacher use grammar accurately? [Yes] he did

9. Did you think your teacher's pronunciation is comprehensible/easily understood? [Yes, I think so]

10. Did your teacher use appropriate vocabulary to match your needs? [Yes, he did]