The Development of Vocational English Materials from a Social Semiotic Perspective: Participatory Action Research

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS ii
ABSTRACT v
DECLARATION vi
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS vii
DEDICATION ix
LIST OF TABLES x
LIST OF FIGURES xii
ABBREVIATIONS xiv
TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS xv

CHAPTER 1: Highlighting the Value of Language Materials Development 1
1.1 Rationale 4
1.2 Statements of the Research Problems and Purposes of the Study 7
1.3 Contributions of the Study 9
1.4 Scopes of the Present Study 11
1.5 Organization of the Doctoral Thesis 12
CHAPTER 2: Literature Review and Conceptual Frameworks 13
2.1 ESP 13
2.2 Vocational English 16
2.3 Reframing Needs Analysis in Vocational English Materials Development 19
2.4 Language Materials 23
2.5 Locally Grounded Language Materials Development as Curricular Innovation 25
2.6 Participatory Action Research as a Platform for Locally Grounded Language Materials Development 28
2.7 Theoretically and Research Informed Materials Development: Theory and Evidence Based Practice 30
2.8 Theory of Language and Language Learning: A Social Semiotic Perspective 31
2.8.1 Theory of Language 31
2.8.2 Language Based Theory of Learning 34
2.9 SFL-Informed Pedagogical Practices 37
2.9.1 Content Based Instruction (CBI) 37
2.9.2 Text Based Language Instruction (TBLI) 39
2.10 Previous Studies on ELT Materials Evaluation, Design, and Development 46

CHAPTER 3: Research Context and Methods 49
3.1 Research Design 49
3.2 Research Context 51
3.3 Gaining and Negotiating Access to the Field Site 55
3.4 Participant Recruitment and Participant Profiles 57
3.5 Research Procedures and Data Collection Methods 61
3.6 Data Analysis: Approaches and Procedures 70
CHAPTER 4: The Conditions of English Language Teaching in the Vocational Secondary Education Sector: Macro and Micro Lenses 75
4.1 Educational and Language-in-Education Policies: Policy Makers' Perspectives 75
4.2 Conceptualization of ELT: Textbook Writers' Perspectives 86
4.3 English Language Teaching: Lessons Observed 97
4.4 English Teachers' Knowledge and Beliefs about the Design and Use of Pedagogical Curriculum Materials and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) 102
4.5 Students' Voices: Goals, Interests, and Expectations of English Learning 109
CHAPTER 5: Negotiating Participatory Vocational English (VE) Materials Design 116
5.1 Negotiating the Design of Vocational English Materials: Meeting Different Expectations of School Administrators, Vocational Teachers, English Teachers, and Students 116
5.1.1 The Nature of Negotiated Collaborative Teacher Design 117
5.1.2 Negotiated VE Materials Development 120
5.3 Collegial Training and Mentorship: Teacher Learning in VE Materials Design 124
5.4 Decision Making Processes: Course Design 129
CHAPTER 6: Engaging Students in In-Class and Out-of-Class Meaning Making Activities: Learning to Mean and Learning to Learn 138
6.1 Content or Vocational Vocabulary Building 138
6.2 Understanding and Building Vocational Knowledge 146
6.2.1 Learning to Mean through Dialogic Reading: A Guided Reading Comprehension Task .146
6.2.2 Learning to Mean through Dialogic Reading: Literature Circles 155
6.2.3 Doing Vocationally Oriented Extensive Reading along with Learning Logs 166
6.2.4 Speaking Vocationally through Collaborative Oral Presentations 173
6.3 Authentic Digital Text Navigation 181
6.4 Learning to Write and Writing to Mean Vocationally 185
6.4.1 Summary Writing in Vocationally Oriented Extensive Reading (VOER) 185
6.4.2 Collaborative Vocationally Based Paragraph Writing 192
6.4.3 Job Application Letter Writing 201

6.4 Exploring Lexico-grammatical and Appraisal Resources, Genres, and Use of Digital Dictionaries, Corpus, and Translators as Semiotic Tools 209
CHAPTER 7: Engaging English Teachers in VE Materials Development: Change in English Teachers' Knowledge and Practice 220
7.1 The Value of School-Based Professional Development....220
7.2 Teacher Knowledge and Beliefs about VE Materials Development 226
7.3 VE Materials Development as Pedagogical Innovation....229
CHAPTER 8: Discussion and Conclusions....233
8.1 Summaries of the Findings and Discussion 233
8.2 The Contribution of SFL Theory to Language Materials Development 238
8.3 Participatory Language Materials Development as Curricular Innovation through PAR 240
8.4 Implications of the Findings for ESP Materials Development....242
8.5 Limitations of the Present Study and Directions for Future Studies 243
REFERENCES 245
Appendix A: Ethics Approval....271
Appendix B: Sample Consent Form....273
Appendix C: Sample Participant Information Sheet 274
Appendix D: Research Instruments 277
Appendix E: Sample Official Textbook Texts....288
Appendix F: List of Vocational Competencies....303
Appendix G: Lesson Units Developed by the English Teachers and the Researcher....307
Appendix H: Learning Logs....331

ABSTRACT

This study documents the design and use of vocational English materials informed by Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) as social semiotic theory. Extensive studies in language materials development have been undertaken particularly in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) programs in the higher education context (see Harwood, 2014) but only a few in the secondary vocational education sector (see Hua & Beverton, 2013). The study extends the scholarship of ESP materials development in the context of schooling, integrating context analysis, materials creation, and materials enactment (see Singapore Wala, 2013).

Grounded in a participatory action research design, this study, conducted over a 13-month period, provides a detailed account of the design and use of the materials in one Indonesian vocational school. School administrators, English teachers, vocational teachers, and 142 students volunteered to participate in the study. Data for the study included field notes, non-participant and participant observations, curriculum documentation, focus group and individual interviews, reflective journals/diaries, and photovoice. The data were qualitatively analyzed using critical thematic and SFL based analyses.

The context analysis revealed that while the current language policy provided teachers with full autonomy to design their own materials, the teachers consistently based their instruction on published textbooks, which contained decontextualized exercises geared towards school and national examinations. This situation did not provide students with opportunities to engage with vocational texts. With the support of the school, the teachers and the researcher in consultation with the students created and used text-based materials based on students' vocational specializations. The analysis of the actual use of the materials by the teachers and the students revealed that they had opportunities to explore different vocational texts, to analyze how language works in these texts, and to use the language as a tool for communication, knowledge building, and social participation. From a teacher perspective, the teachers viewed the materials development process as professional learning and a way to understand SFL theory and apply it to pedagogical practices, such as content based instruction and text based instruction. This study offers evidence of how social semiotic theory can contribute to ESP materials development and instruction.

DECLARATION

I certify that this work contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university or other tertiary institution and, to the best of my knowledge and belief, contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference has been made in the text. I certify that no part of this work will, in the future, be used in a submission in my name for any other degree or diploma in any university or other tertiary institution without the prior approval of the University of Adelaide and where applicable, any partner institution responsible for the joint award of this degree.

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DEDICATION

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My Jewels:

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My Parents:

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Suyono and ***Sunarsih***

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1 Basturkmen's Classification of ESP Branches 15
Table 2.2 A List of Previous Studies on Needs Analysis in ESP 21
Table 2.3 Differences between Locally Produced Materials and Commercial Texts 24
Table 2.4 Macro and Micro Strategies of Teachers-as-Curriculum Developers 27
Table 2.5 Metafunctional Discourse in SFL 32
Table 2.6 Metafunctional Meanings in SFL 32
Table 3.1 Ethical Guidelines 58
Table 3.2 A List of Participants 58
Table 3.3 A List of Teacher Participants 59
Table 3.4 Types of Data Collection Methods 63
Table 4.1 A Summary of the National Curriculum Guidelines during the last 10 Years in Indonesia 76
Table 4.2 General English Competencies 84
Table 4.3 Themes in the Students' Textbooks 87
Table 4.4 Core Competencies in the Students' Textbooks 89
Table 4.5 Learning Activities in the Students' Textbooks 90
Table 4.6 Conditions of English Language Lessons 97
Table 4.7 Snapshot of an English Lesson Observation 101
Table 4.8 Reflective Vignettes # 4 and # 5 (20 June 2012) 104
Table 4.9 Roles of Teachers and Students 105
Table 4.10 Preferred Lesson Activities 106
Table 4.11 Teachers' Knowledge about Vocational English 108
Table 5.1 Roles of Team Members in Participatory VE Materials Design 119
Table 5.2 Core Competency Descriptors 131
Table 5.3 Topics or Themes in the Lesson Units 134
Table 5.4 A List of Vocational Textbooks for Sustained Extensive Reading 136
Table 6.1. A Snapshot of How the Teacher Guiding the Students What to Do in a Vocabulary Building Task 139
Table 6.2 A Collaborative Dialog as a Platform for Making Meaning of the Text Hotel, "Guest Registration" 152
Table 6.3 Students' Reflections on Guided Reading Comprehension Activities 154
Table 6.4 The Roles the Students Played in Literature Circles Activities 156

Table 6.5 Criteria for Selecting Vocational Texts 158
Table 6.6 The Students Discussing the Concept of Cash Flow Statements 160
Table 6.7 Students' Reflections on the Roles Played in Literature Circles Activities (Part 1) 162
Table 6.8 Students' Reflections on the Roles Played in Literature Circles Activities (Part 2) 164
Table 6.9 Students' Reflections on Engaging with Sustained ER 167
Table 6.10 Linguistic Realizations Indicating Interactional Meanings 177
Table 6.11 Attempted Paraphrases in Students' First Summaries 188
Table 6.12 SFL Genre Informed Summary Components 190
Table 6.13 Text Types Composed by Students 193
Table 6.14 Guiding Questions by the Teachers 196
Table 6.15 Meta-functional Meanings in Students' Application Letters 201
Table 6.16 A Guide to Evaluating Application Letters 206
Table 6.17 A Guide Sheet of Functional Meta-Language Analysis 210
Table 6.18 Transitivity Analysis of Hotel Front Webpage Text 211
Table 6.19 Students' Engagement in How Lexicogrammar Works in a Text 214
Table 7.1 A Professional Dialogue between the English Teachers, Vocational Teachers, and the Researcher 223

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1 Extended Classification of ESP Domains 17
Figure 2.2 Components of Vocationally-Oriented Language Learning (VOLL) 18
Figure 2.3 A Framework for Context Analysis 22
Figure 2.4 The Stratal Perspective of Language in SFL 33
Figure 2.5 Types of Genres 43
Figure 2.6 The Teaching and Learning Cycle 45
Figure 2.7 Working with Texts for Meaning Making 46
Figure 4.1 Listening Activity in the textbook (Grade X) 91
Figure 4.2 Speaking Activity in the textbook (Grade X) 92
Figure 4.3 Reading Activity in the Textbook (Grade X1, p. 146) 93
Figure 4.4 Writing Activities (Grade XI, p. 146) 94
Figure 4.5 Writing Activity (Grade XII, p. 12) 95
Figure 4.6 Grammar Exercise (Grade X, p. 53) 96
Figure 4.7 Grammar Exercise (Grade XII, p. 14) 96
Figure 4.8 Hotel Hospitality and Management Test Items 112
Figure 4.9 Accounting Test Items 113
Figure 5.1 Different Stages of Curriculum Activities 118
Figure 5.2 Different Stages of Negotiated Collegial Training and Mentorship 127
Figure 5.3 Meaning Making Tasks 137
Figure 6.1. Taxonomic Relations (Hyponym) 141
Figure 6.2. The Students Discussing Technical Vocabulary in Pairs 143
Figure 6.3 A Dialogic Reading Model 147
Figure 6.4 Accounting Text of the Recording Process 149
Figure 6.5 Hotel Management and Hospitality Text of Hotel Websites 150
Figure 6.6 Computer Engineering Text of Website Design 151
Figure 6.7 The Students Engaging in Literature Circles Activities 159
Figure 6.8 A Concept Map of a Cash Flow Statement 161
Figure 6.9 An Extensive Reading Log 167
Figure 6.10 Examples of Learning Objectives in the Accounting Textbook 169
Figure 6.11 Examples of Vocationally Oriented Learning Goals 170
Figure 6.12 Key Words in Hotel Management and Hospitality 170

Figure 6.13 Sample Hotel Management and Hospitality Text 171
Figure 6.14 Students' Learning Portfolios 172
Figure 6.15 The Nature of Collaborative Oral Presentations 175
Figure 6.16 Hotel Webpage Text 179
Figure 6.17 The Skeleton of a Paragraph 195
Figure 6.18 Joint Text Construction Guided by the Teachers 197
Figure 6.19 Moves of Application Letters in Bahasa Indonesia and English 203
Figure 6.20 Guidelines for Application Letter Writing 205
Figure 6.21 Sample Application Letter Written by Students 208
Figure 6.22 Functional Analysis of Hotel Front Webpage Text 212
Figure 6.23 The Use of British National Corpus as a Semiotic Tool 218
Figure 7.1 Necessary Conditions for Invigorating Language Materials Development as Pedagogical Innovation 230
Figure 8.1 Roles of Materials: Content, Process, and Product 240

ABBREVIATIONS

CBI	Content Based Instruction
CTL	Contextual Teaching and Learning
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EGP	English for General Purposes
ELT	English language teaching
ER	Extensive Reading
ESL	English as a second language
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
EVP	English for Vocational Purposes
GE	General English
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
MGMP	*Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran* [Teacher Development Groups]
PAR	Participatory Action Research
PD	Professional Development
PLCs	Professional Learning Communities
SBC	School based Curriculum
SBPD	School Based Professional Development
SFL	Systemic Functional Linguistics
TBLI	Text Based Language Instruction
TBLT	Task Based Language Teaching
VE	Vocational English
VET	Vocational Education and Training
VOER	Vocationally Oriented Extensive Reading
VOLL	Vocationally-Oriented Language Learning

TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

(.) : short pause

… : normal pause

\ : falling accent

(( )) : non-linguistic events

? : question remarks

-- : truncated talks

( ) : Particular word/phrase

bold : particular expressions

CHAPTER 1

Highlighting the Value of Language Materials Development

The aim of this study is to document the design and use of vocational English (hereafter VE) materials in the Indonesian secondary vocational education sector. In this study, the design and use of language materials are referred to as language materials development. Both terms are used interchangeably throughout this thesis. There is an extensive body of research on language materials development in both English for General Purposes (EGP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) programs (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2010). Particularly in ESP programs, there has been a growing body of research investigating the design and use of ESP materials (see Harwood, 2010, 2014; Tomlinson, in press; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2010). Most of this research has been undertaken in the context of higher education with few studies carried out in the secondary vocational education sector (e.g., Hua & Beverton, 2013; Widodo, 2015; Widodo, in press). To fill this gap, this study seeks to examine the creation and use of VE materials in the secondary vocational school setting. The term, language materials, pertains to any texts and tasks or activities, which mediate the processes of language learning and teaching, which provide learners with opportunities to use the language, and which are designed to help learners develop English (Harwood, 2010; McGrath, 2013; Tomlinson, 2013). In educational settings, the actual users of the materials are teachers and students (Tomlinson, 2011).

The impetus for this study came from my long research interest in language materials development since 2001. Language materials development in English language teaching (ELT) in general and in ESP programs in particular has been a subject of interest for both language teachers and researchers since 1980s (for example, Dudley-Evans & John, 1998). For teachers, language materials are core resources, which mediate student learning and facilitate teacher development, and they are also seen as the backbone of language curriculum programs (McGrath, 2013). For researchers, the design and use of language materials are of interest when informed by and evaluated using empirical data.

The recognition of the importance of language materials development has been documented in several published books (see Harwood, 2010, 2014; McGrath, 2013; Tomlinson, 2011; Widodo & Savova, 2010). This recognition has also been reflected in scholarly conferences, such as The Materials Development Association (MATSDA, the UK), the Materials Writers Special Interest Section (TESOL, the USA), and English Language Teaching Materials (ELTeaM, Indonesia). This

importance of language materials development in ELT has encouraged me to extend this scholarship to the area of Vocational Education and Training (VET).

The present study has also been driven by my personal and professional experiences as language learner, pre-service language teacher, and in-service language teacher. Through these journeys, I have learned that to a great extent language materials shape language instruction. To begin with, though I learned English formally since I was in junior high school (1991-1994), I began to become interested in learning the language when I was in vocational secondary school (1994-1997). I specialized in Agronomy, in which I learned to grow horticultural, food, and ornamental crops. At that time, my English teachers taught me General English (GE) emphasizing grammar and reading exercises. In these exercises, I learned how to translate sentences from Indonesian to English and vice versa. Though my English teachers connected this sentence construction to my vocational content, Agronomy, they did not select the content based on my core vocational competencies. Completing sentence construction exercises did not engage me in meaning making oriented tasks, which reflected my vocational area. I thought that connecting English lessons with my vocational area would benefit me: “One stone kills two birds”—while developing my English, I could deepen my vocational knowledge.

To fill this need, I independently explored how English was used in my vocational area. I regularly spent an hour a day reading vocational textbooks written in English at the school library, although I grappled with technical terms. Luckily, the library had agriculture dictionaries, which assisted me to understand vocational terminologies. I felt that reading vocational texts in English allowed me to enrich my vocational knowledge and put this knowledge into practice. In addition to the library resources, my vocational teachers supplied me with English written manuals or guidebooks on agronomy. They had overseas vocational education and training in Australia, Canada, Germany, France, Thailand, and the Philippines. They were a source of inspiration for me to develop my English competence in the field of Agronomy. I also consulted any difficult technical terms with my vocational teachers who had a sufficient command of English. These teachers were resourceful people because they could clearly explain such terms to me. Additionally, my experience in on-the-job training in Japanese-affiliated Edamame (green soybeans) and tobacco firms sparked my burning passion to develop my English ability. During this internship program, I read English medium guidebooks on Edamame and tobacco farming. Drawing on this educational journey, I saw English learning as short-term and long-term investments. In the short term, I could build and deepen my vocational knowledge through English because many agricultural guidebooks and manuals were written in English. These materials were facilitative because I could learn the use of English from

authentic texts. Integrating English lessons with my vocational area strengthened my motivation for and my interest in English learning. As a long-term investment, I realized that being competent in both VE and GE provided me with wider access to vocational knowledge that I had learned.

As a student teacher, I became interested in language materials design when I completed a teaching practicum in an Indonesian vocational secondary school. I witnessed the fact that language materials development was not given much attention in the teacher education curriculum. I was not trained how to evaluate and design language materials informed by relevant theories of language learning and teaching. At that time, I was sure that materials development was theoretically informed activity and worthy of close investigation in terms of how such materials were designed. This concern motivated me to work on a final project on "Developing ESP Materials Using a Content-Based Approach" in 2000 as one of the academic requirements for completing my BA in English Education. I examined the design of English materials for four majors: Agricultural Engineering, Agronomy, Food Processing, and Animal Husbandry. In this study, I only looked into English teachers' and vocational teachers' perceptions of students' needs for English learning. The following elements were missing from my study: (1) a language needs analysis of the students, (2) a rigorous context analysis, (3) classroom observations of materials in use, and (4) materials evaluation. Theoretically, my undergraduate thesis did not give a solid account of a content based framework. These study limitations urged me to undertake the present research project to document how VE materials were designed, enacted, and evaluated, in which both teachers and students worked together.

The present study does not merely continue the tradition of ESP materials development, but also encourages more action research on the design and use of language materials situated in a local school setting, in which teachers experiment with theory and concepts underpinning such design and use. This agenda is commensurate with the concept of think globally but act locally (Tomlinson, 2006). I believe that localizing VE materials development helps cater to what both teachers and students actually need based on their own goal, interest, expectation, and agenda. The localization of VE materials design and use grounded in the schooling context would benefit both teachers and students. This is what publishers or idealized materials that assume learners with similar needs and levels of language ability cannot do.

As my professional journey evolved, I immersed myself in the vocational secondary school where I was educated and taught English part time soon after I completed my BA in 2001. I taught students specializing in Agronomy. As part of this teaching job, I designed English for Agronomy materials targeted at workplace communication. I taught my students to read agronomy-related texts in as much as the school required me to teach this skill. I did not realize that I was perpetuating a tradition

of segregating language skills into: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. In fact, these skills should be seen as integrated competence, where each skill complements the other. I was unaware that this tradition focused on content without exploring how this content was communicated in English within different areas of vocation. From my reflection on my own teaching weaknesses, I learned that VE language instruction had much to with content and context sensitivity as well as language competence development. With this in mind, the design and use of language materials need to be informed by a theoretical orientation. This is the focus of investigation in the present study.

To sum up, my personal research interest and personal and professional journeys in different socio-educational settings have led me to undertake the present study. This study is also practically grounded in the secondary vocational context and empirically and theoretically informed by previous ESP studies and conceptual frameworks respectively. It attempts to bring together practical, theoretical, and empirical perspectives on language materials development. Whilst numerous studies on ESP materials development have been conducted, empirical research on the design and use of VE materials in the context of the Indonesian vocational secondary education remains sparse. This study attempts to add to the research base.

1.1 Rationale

In the Indonesian secondary vocational school context, all the textbooks have remained focused on comprehension based or rote learning exercises (see Chapter 4). There have been a number of curriculum changes related to different language teaching approaches over the past two decades (in 1994, communicative language teaching; in 2004, genre and competency based curriculum; and in 2006, genre and school based curriculum). English textbooks for vocational students generally contain de-contextualized reading and grammar exercises, which are irrelevant to students' vocational areas or interests (Widodo, in press). There is little room for students to work on meaning making activities or tasks, which allow students to make use of linguistic resources for communication, knowledge building, and social participation. Unlike most subjects in vocational schools implemented through specially tailored curricula leading towards designated employment areas, English is treated as a required subject, which provides learners with EGP. Wedell (2008) states that EGP is associated with 'English for everyone courses' while Abbott (1981) even more strongly argues that such courses lead to English with no specific reason or purpose pedagogies. These courses are typical English language instruction in Asian countries whose goal is to enhance "the nation's global competitiveness" (see Hua & Beverton, 2013, p. 102). Based on my experience

in teacher training and teacher professional development in Indonesia and in Southeast Asia, many English teachers working with vocational students use English textbooks prescribed by policy makers without doing a critical analysis of whether they suit students' needs. I have also observed that the neglect of critical textbook analysis leads to much reliance on the textbooks. English lessons are organized and implemented based on these textbooks without any pedagogical adaptation and modification relevant to vocational students' needs.

In a preliminary study (Widodo, 2015), it was found that in addition to EGP, vocational students in Indonesia need to learn English for vocational purposes (hereafter EVP) or VE. English materials, which reflect core competencies of vocational students majoring in hotel management and hospitality, accounting, and computer engineering, remain sparse. Vocational texts, tasks, and language features receive scant attention in English language pedagogies. It is no wonder that vocational secondary schools receive scant attention in vocationally tailored English textbooks, particularly in Indonesia because publishers and governments assume that students share the same needs. From my interaction with the English teachers I realized that, even though English teachers recognize this lack, they do not have a vested interest in designing or developing VE materials because of time constraints, lack of institutional support, lack of resources, no professional training in language materials development, no national curriculum endorsement, and no teacher development groups of language materials development. The present study attempts to address these issues by engaging school administrators, teachers, and students in a locally based language materials development process following on from my previous work (Widodo, 2015; in press; Widodo & Savova, 2010).

The recent development of vocational secondary education in Indonesia requires vocational students to gain sufficient competencies or skills either for immediate employment or for further studies. Particularly, in the vocational areas of hotel management and hospitality, accounting, and computer engineering, being competent or literate in both written and spoken English is an asset for the students. This recent development in the area of ESP has sparked a burgeoning interest in designing or developing English materials, which are relevant to students' vocational specializations. This is the challenge for English language teachers. Another challenge the teachers have to face is that while a myriad of English textbooks exists, not all these materials (e.g., texts, tasks or activities, and target language competence) meet the needs of diverse groups of vocational students and are relevant to their needs for learning or developing English as a working language. To this end, the development of VE materials plays a crucial role in the domain of vocational secondary education, particularly in Indonesia (Widodo, 2014a, 2015). The advent of information and communication

technology (ICT) provides both English language teachers and students with rich resources for VE, but these online resources still go unnoticed (Widodo, 2014a). For this reason, such authentic resources are rarely brought into the language classroom or deployed as pedagogical resources. In the present study, these authentic resources are pedagogically exploited to enrich students' learning resources.

As mentioned earlier, the present study looks into four dimensions of language materials development: context analysis, materials design, materials use, and teachers' and students' reactions to the use of the materials. Although in the Indonesian context there has been extensive use of a research and development design to investigate language materials development (Hardiningsih, Saleh, & Badib, 2012; Sismiati & Latief, 2012), little attention has been paid to action research on language materials development. There have been many initiatives or attempts by researchers and administrators to investigate the creation and use of language materials, but such research does not seem to filter down to language teachers as actual practitioners in a way that always allows them to draw on this practice to inform their own work. Therefore, there should be an initiative to engage language teachers in practitioner research on language materials development.

Even though context or needs analysis (e.g., task based analysis, situational analysis) has been much researched in the English as a second language (ESL) context (Hua & Beverton, 2013; Long, 2005; Wozniak, 2010), little research on context analysis has been undertaken to inform the design and use of VE materials in the context of Asian vocational secondary education. In fact, most recent vocational English textbooks focus on polytechnic higher education. In Indonesia, some recent studies examined needs analysis in order to inform the design of ESP materials for the polytechnic (vocationally oriented) and university (academically oriented) sectors (Hardiningsih, Saleh, & Badib, 2012; Risnawati, 2010; Ro'isatin, 2009; Sismiati & Latief, 2012). This literature indicates that many studies in the area of ESP have taken place in the tertiary education sector. With this in mind, more research on the design and use of ESP materials is needed in the secondary vocational education sector. In particular, there is need for content analysis to investigate curricular artifacts or documents (e.g., curricular guidelines, syllabi, lesson plans, and teaching-learning materials), teachers, students, and teaching-learning environments in order to inform the design and use of language materials.

Theoretically speaking, a few studies focus on how particular conceptual frameworks inform the design and use of VE materials (for example, Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2010); the present research study fills this void. Additionally, a substantial number of recent studies on ESP materials have been undertaken. These studies are relevant to further development of ESP materials. Among others,

these studies include vocabulary and technology (Rusanganwa, 2013), course design (Hua & Beverton, 2013), content (Chen, 2008), task (Hayati & Jalilifar, 2010), and discourse analysis (Sadeghi & Samuel, 2013). However, there is a paucity of empirical research or literature on the design and use of vocational English (VE) materials, which adopts Systemic Functional Linguistics (henceforth SFL) as social semiotic (meaning making) theory (Halliday, 1978). What is also lacking in the previous studies is that the process of designing and using language materials through negotiation and collaboration is not carefully investigated.

It is argued that functional and social semiotic orientations respond to the challenge of bringing content and contextual sensitivity into ESP classrooms, particularly VE pedagogies (Widodo, 2014a, 2015). In this instance, learning to mean mediated by vocational language and discourse is emphasized. At this moment, little is known about how the design and use of VE materials is empirically documented in the context of Indonesian secondary education, where English plays a role in mediation of vocational knowledge building. Even though English has long been institutionalized in the Indonesian vocational secondary education curriculum, little is known pedagogically about how VE materials are designed, enacted, and evaluated through participatory action research (henceforth, PAR). Further, no empirical studies focus on PAR to study the design and use of English materials in the context of vocational secondary schools. To address this shortcoming, following Dressen-Hammouda's (2013), this study allows for thick description (rich data) of educational experiences of both teachers and students mediated by the use of materials.

1.2 Statements of the Research Problems and Purposes of the Study

Many published ESP textbooks "only superficially deal with content matter required by students of a particular field" (Bhatia, Anthony, & Noguchi, 2011, p. 145). These textbooks do not provide students with tasks or activities, which help the students build their language resources and utilize these resources in understanding vocational texts in English. Relevant ESP materials help elementary and pre-intermediate-level students build VE competence. These groups of students will gradually develop their language competence through vocationally oriented language tasks, which enable students to make meaning of vocational texts. To this end, an awareness of how VE operates within vocational domains is the key to the development of student language competence. This issue is worthy of close investigation.

Much empirical research, both qualitative and quantitative, has investigated learners' language needs in a variety of educational contexts, yet the outcomes of such analyses rarely inform materials

development in a thorough investigative undertaking. Belcher (2013) emphasizes that “many studies reporting on needs analysis include at least brief descriptions of the resulting materials. Few ESP specialists, however, have offered for close inspection their own materials development processes and products” (p. 545). ESP researchers have carried out investigations into materials, but how such materials are developed by ESP researchers and ESP practicing teachers working together on the selections of topics, texts, and tasks, as well as the formulation of pedagogical goals and competencies, has not been a focus for research.

While a sufficient amount of research reports the design and use of language materials in the context of Asia and beyond, there is little information openly available about language materials geared towards vocational education programs in Indonesia (Widodo, 2015). It has been equally difficult finding research discussing the design and use as well as the impact of VE materials in particular on learner engagement, progress, and success as well as teacher development. Additionally, materials for occupational English (e.g., English for Business Purposes, English for Medical Purposes, Legal English, English for Technology and Science, and English for Workplace Communication) have been investigated (Harwood, 2014; Paltridge & Starfield, 2013; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2010), but English materials for vocational purposes in the context of vocational secondary education remains under-researched (Hua & Beverton, 2013). Based on a survey of the current ESP literature, few empirical studies examine the design and use of VE materials in the context of vocational secondary education or how such design and use are informed by particular theoretical orientations.

Few ESP studies examine ethnographic collaboration between school administrators, ESP practicing teachers, vocational teachers, students, and researchers on needs analysis, materials design, materials use, and reactions to the materials use. This kind of research not only assists students to have relevant VE materials, but also engages them and ESP teachers in a negotiated decision making enterprise. This joint endeavor also helps the ESP teachers grow professionally in that they will learn how English operates within different vocational texts. This personal observation concurs with Bhatia, Anthony, and Noguchi’s argument that “[m]any ESP practitioners are not experts in the target field of the learners, and sometimes struggle to comprehend materials that they require learners to master” (2011, p. 145). This argument warrants a close investigation into how ESP teachers learn different vocational discourses.

To fill the gaps above, the following questions guide the present study.

1. What were the conditions of English language teaching in the Indonesian vocational high school context from policy and pedagogical curriculum perspectives?
2. What factors influenced participatory language materials development?
3. How did students work with the locally-developed materials?
4. What changes were observed in English teachers' knowledge and practice in the design and use of the materials through a participatory action research (PAR) project?

These four research questions aim to capture the processes of designing and using VE materials. Thus, the design and use of the materials is not merely a practical or pedagogical undertaking, but also an empirical enterprise because the actual design and use of such materials are empirically documented. The whole research project involves close investigation into context analysis, a materials design process, the use of the materials, and students' and teachers' reactions to the materials use. It not only extends the scholarship of ESP materials development but also attempts to frame such materials in social semiotic or SFL theory in order to provide students with learning resources, which recognize the socio-educational backgrounds of students and teachers and the psychology and sociology of particular language classrooms and a school.

1.3 Contributions of the Study

The study aims to provide theoretical, empirical, and practical contributions to English language materials development, particularly in the Indonesian vocational secondary education sector. Theoretically, Tomlinson (2008, p. 7) argues that "ELT materials should be driven by principles of language acquisition and that ideally all units of material should be principled, relevant and coherent" so that such materials can benefit students and assist the students develop their English language. With this in mind, language materials development should be informed or guided by particular theoretical or conceptual frameworks. Most of these language materials put emphasis on exposing students to the authentic use of English through spoken and written texts and engage the students cognitively and affectively (Tomlinson, 2008). From a social semiotic or learning-to-mean perspective, these materials fail to help students socialize into the authentic use of texts and engagement in tasks. Additionally, the nature of texts remains restricted to spoken and written forms, but in fact, texts are also visually and non-verbally presented. To fill these voids, this study documents the application of Hallidayan socio-semiotic theory to language materials development. Anchored in this theory, language materials are seen as resources for meaning making or as

semiotic mediation of language. Additionally, language materials are a mediation of language socialization, which emphasizes texts and tasks or activities enabling both teachers and students to engage in the actual use of language in a particular social context (Mickan, 2013b). The design and use of language materials informed by a social semiotic theory provides students with authentic texts and tasks, which assist students to learn to mean in English in the context of vocationally oriented language learning and develop their vocational and general English ability alike.

In fact, teachers who just rely on textbooks tend to reduce and skip particular portions of materials (e.g., Shawer, 2010b), but professionally, language teachers are supposed to engage in everyday tasks of selecting, adapting, and supplementing their own materials when preparing lessons. The selection, adaptation, and supplementation of the materials are based on students' responses to the materials actually implemented inside and outside the classroom (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2004). These everyday pedagogical practices remain under-researched; therefore, the present study attempts to investigate how VE materials in particular are created and implemented. Furthermore, this study continues a research tradition in the area of language materials development to show the importance of research informed, realistic, and contextually sensitive materials. This context-specific research emphasizes the whole spectrum of teaching situations, teachers, and students, which constitute the educational system. It also expands the tradition by closely investigating contexts where language materials are created, used, and evaluated. To know whether these processes impact student learning and teacher development, an ethnographic approach along with a series of pedagogical actions is adopted. This ethnography, as Harwood (2010) suggests, can longitudinally document the design and use of materials. The adoption of participatory action research (PAR), for instance, recognizes the roles of negotiation and collaboration between school administrators, teachers, and students in language materials development. Thus, the findings of the study will, hopefully, provide further directions for empirical studies on the development of ESP materials in other vocational secondary schools in Indonesia or in other Asian contexts (e.g., Taiwan, Hong Kong, Thailand, Turkey, Vietnam, and China). For instance, more studies are needed to investigate different types of VE materials and to know if such materials impact development of student language ability or cater to their goals, interests, expectations, and agendas as they see English learning as short and long term investments.

Practically, the present study provides the following contributions. To begin with, because the design and use of materials are documented, the findings can showcase evidence-based practice, which is informed by a theoretical orientation. Secondly, the findings can be further impetus for development of locally-produced ESP materials in Indonesian vocational secondary schools to meet changing

language needs of diverse students because ESP texts vary from one vocational area to another. These local materials can cater to discipline-specific needs of students. For this reason, the findings can be a guide to designing materials, which challenge available course books that do not cater for specific groups of students. Moreover, context analysis provides a way of examining teachers, students, resources, and school and classroom environments. In this way, English teachers design and use their English materials based on empirical data. This evidence- or document-based practice may invigorate materials development and instructional design. This can be a starting point for pedagogical exploration informed by differing voices (goals, interests, expectations, and agendas) of interested stakeholders such as school administrators, teachers, and students. Student needs or context analysis can complement teachers' reflections on their own teaching practices, so teachers' pedagogies are based on students' input, not based on teachers' intuitive decisions. The sample materials in the present study can serve as a blueprint for the design of locally-situated ELT materials in order to meet language needs of different students. The findings and discussions of the present study can provide language practitioners with a practical way to select, adapt, supplement, design, and use materials, which make learning more engaging and meaningful for students.

1.4 Scopes of the Present Study

The creation and use of VE materials in particular involve multi-layered processes. These processes include: context analysis, materials design, materials use, and materials evaluation and reflection. These specify what has been investigated in relation to the research questions.

- Context analysis: A term, context analysis, is used to capture characteristics of teachers (teacher knowledge and beliefs about language materials development), students (students' goals, interests, and expectations), and environments (e.g., a school and classrooms), as well as curricular resources available (e.g., curricular guidelines, textbooks, syllabi, lesson plans, handouts, and test papers) so that the design and use of VE materials are locally grounded in the school setting and can cater to institutional, teachers', and students' needs (Masuhara, 2004). Thus, the context analysis captures the conditions of the enacted language curriculum in the secondary vocational education sector.
- Materials design or creation: This portrays how both teachers and students create theoretically-informed language materials through a series of processes in a negotiated way. This materials design includes navigating, selecting, and adapting texts and tasks. In this joint enterprise, teachers see students as active partners rather than as recipients or consumers of materials (McGrath, 2013).

- Materials use: This depicts how both teachers and students use the materials inside and outside the classroom. The actual use of the materials is empirically documented.
- Materials evaluation and reflection: In both evaluation and reflection, both teachers and students share their stories as lived experience with the creation and use of the materials. For students, how the materials impact their learning is examined. For teachers, how the creation and use of the materials facilitate their professional development is investigated.

In other words, the boundaries of what has been investigated in relation to the statements of the research problems include context analysis, materials design, materials use, and materials evaluation and reflection.

1.5 Organization of the Doctoral Thesis

As a whole, this thesis contains 8 chapters including the introductory chapter. Chapter 2, Literature Review and Conceptual Frameworks, provides an overview of guiding concepts and previous studies, which serve as an overall theoretical framework for the thesis. Chapter 3 introduces research context and fieldwork processes. The remaining chapters, 4-7, present key findings along with discussion. These findings are presented based on four themes: (1) conditions of ELT in the vocational secondary education sector through macro and micro Lenses, (2) negotiating participatory vocational English materials design, (3) engaging students in in-class and out-of-class meaning making oriented activities, and (4) change in English teachers' knowledge and understanding of language materials development. Chapter 8 includes more discussion about four major finding themes drawing on the previous four chapters and also provides an account of limitations of the present research study and makes suggestions for future studies.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review and Conceptual Frameworks

This chapter provides an overview of the key theories and concepts relevant to the study. Fundamental to the review are discussions of English for specific purposes (hereafter ESP), vocational English (henceforth VE), needs analysis (also known as needs assessment), and language materials. Other key concepts discussed include language materials development as evidence-based and exploratory practice and curriculum innovation. These two sections emphasize how language materials development is part of a curriculum process in the educational landscape as a whole. This chapter moves on to chronicle SFL social semiotic theory along with the application of this theory to pedagogical practices such as content based language instruction and text based language pedagogy. The chapter ends by summarizing previous studies on language materials development in the areas of ELT in general and of ESP in particular. The chapter provides an account of the conceptual frameworks, which inform the entire development of VE materials within the present study.

2.1 ESP

The last three decades have seen significant developments of ESP studies in different academic and professional settings; some of which have been the impetus for the development of ESP courses. The drivers of ESP development include internationalization in academia, international publications, student exchange programs, international internship programs, international scholarships for further studies, joint research partnership programs, international conference presentations, the mobility of workplaces, and globalization as the mobility of a global economy. Paltridge (as cited in Belcher, 2013) contends that "for those engaged in ESP, English is "the property of its users, native and non-native speakers alike"" (p. 546, emphasis in original). This suggests that the language plays a role as a global language or a contact language between speakers who do not share the same language (Galloway & Rose, 2014). ESP is strongly linked to international mobility because a large number of people from different countries want to learn English for specific purposes and build international collaboration.

Pedagogically, ESP courses are designed, implemented, and evaluated to meet burgeoning professional and academic communication needs. The primary goal of this endeavor is to equip learners with ESP competence or ability to function in English mediated professional or academic encounters. Johns (2013, p. 7) argues that "ESP has come a long way in terms of research practices

since its inception in the 1960s…" (2013, p. 21). The history of ESP can be divided into four eras of ESP research and practice: "The Early Years (1962–1981), The Recent Past (1981–1990), The Modern Era (1990–2011), and The Future (2011 plus)." Johns (2013, p. 7) observes that over this period, there has been a plethora of theories, concepts, approaches, and analytical tools, drawn on to examine, support, and assess ESP courses. These include critical academic literacies, content based instruction (CBI), genre analysis, SFL, task based language teaching (TBLT), the New Rhetoric, and a text based framework. The applications of different theories and concepts to ESP pedagogies in particular are attempts to meet a growing demand of understanding disciplinary or specialized language, knowledge, and social practice in changing professional and vocational domains.

In terms of empirical research, ESP has touched upon such varied topics as rhetorical moves and devices (e.g., generic and rhetorical moves in scholarly articles), discourse analysis in academic and professional communication (e.g., genre, SFL, corpus linguistics), ESP curriculum and materials design, and ESP pedagogy and assessment. One of the major ESP journals, *English for Specific Purposes*, publishes papers, which expand the research and practice of ESP to respond to burgeoning ESP programs and learners' professional or vocational interests. This scholarship also continues to develop in Asia as evidenced by the publication of the *Asian ESP Journal*. These studies inform the role of ESP in bringing authentic or real-world texts in different communicative settings (e.g., academic, professional, and occupational) into language classrooms. This is because professional and academic domains vary from one context to another. These varied specialized discourse contexts make ESP contextually sensitive and disciplinary oriented. For this reason, ESP teachers or practitioners do not simply teach English or specialized vocabulary, but they teach both the general and disciplinary specific English valued and expected in academic or professional domains. In addition, because students need to be socialized into and develop a command of target community discourse, ESP teachers are challenged to have a sufficient knowledge of the various disciplines in which students are interested. Belcher (2009) adds that ESP courses are designed to implement learner centeredness, commitment to meeting the specific needs of specific groups of learners in specific contexts, and target specialized situations in which they would like to function.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) make the point that "ESP is an approach to language teaching which aims to meet the needs of particular learners" (p. 21). The guiding principle of ESP is derived from what they suggest: "if language varies from one situation of use to another, it should be possible to determine the features of specific situation and then make these features the basis of the learners' course." This notion proposes that the nature of ESP is context-specific and specifically-situated in a

wide range of specialist or disciplinary discourse communities. With this in mind, ESP operates within certain social groups, which enact a particular interest of specialty and social practices (Mickan, 2013b). This specialized interest or social practice is highly variable, which is manifested in specialized texts and within various disciplines and sub-disciplines (Hyland, 2002; Paltridge, 2009). This specialty or specialization (or abstraction), to some extent, makes disciplinary knowledge and language differ from every day or commonsense knowledge and language (Fang, 2006).

Drawing on Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998, pp. 4-5), ESP has the following characteristics.

- ESP programs are designed to cater to the discipline- or vocation-specific needs of learners with a different level of language ability to communicate for work or study purposes in specific disciplines.
- The programs are informed by a theoretical orientation (approach) along with instructional design (design and procedure).
- ESP materials and methods are developed or adapted to provide learners with needs-responsive instruction.
- ESP centers on a myriad of disciplinary knowledge, language, genres, discourses as social practices, and situational specificity.
- Both language and activities are appropriate to particular disciplines.
- In ESP programs, students learn knowledge or concepts from their discipline or specialization
- These programs require the students to learn to recognize how language operates within genres and sub-genres in this discipline or specialization.

From both wide-angled and narrow-angled perspectives, Basturkmen (2010, p. 6) categorizes the different ESP branches as follows:

Table 2.1 *Basturkmen's Classification of ESP Branches*

Branches	Sub Branches	Examples
English for Academic Purposes (EAP)	• English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP)	English for academic writing
	• English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP)	English for law studies
English for Professional Purposes (EPP)	• English for General Professional Purposes (EGPP)	English for the health care sector
	• English for Specific Professional Purposes (ESPP)	English for nursing
English for Occupational Purposes (EOP)	• English for General Occupational Purposes (EGOP)	English for the hospitality industry
	• English for Specific Occupational Purposes (ESOP)	English for hotel Receptionists

This broad classification shows that ESP has a range of areas or domains. These areas have particular specialized or disciplinary knowledge, language, genres, social practices, and discourses, which are not static because disciplinary and specialized discourse communities continue to evolve, and their communicative interests and needs always change. Thus, the specificity of ESP lies in specific groups of learners with different language abilities, specific needs and language, particular disciplinary knowledge, particular genres and discourses, community-based social practices, and particular contexts of situation.

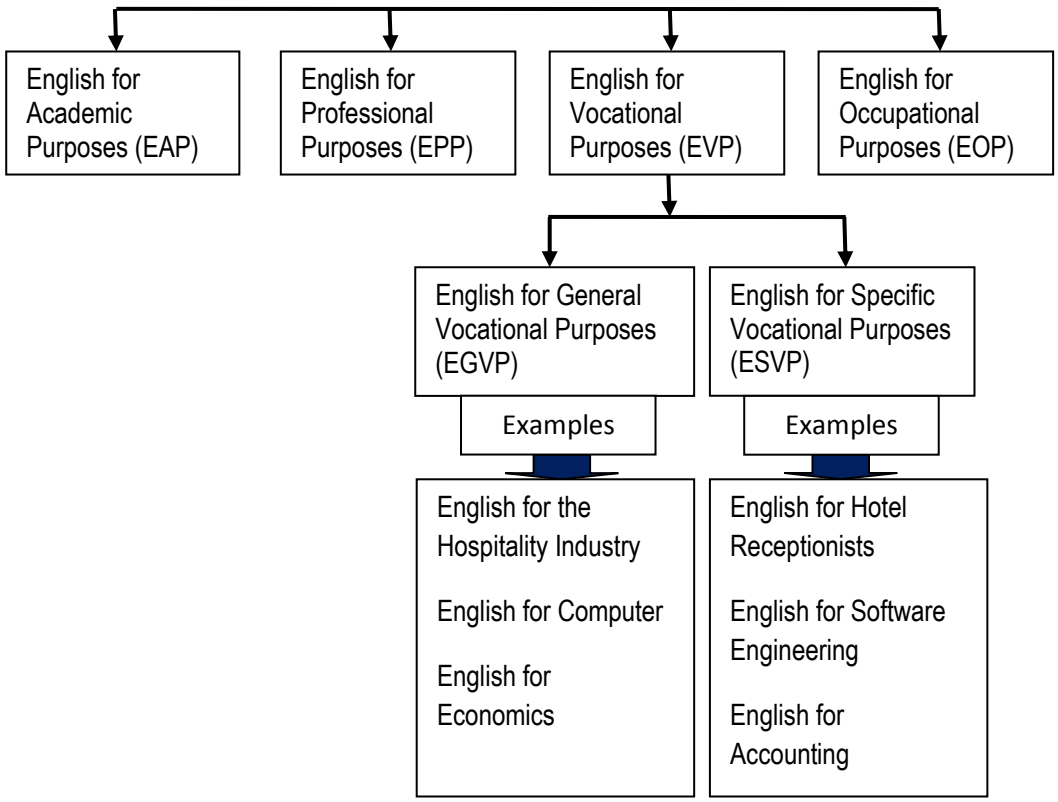
2.2 Vocational English

Of Basturkmen's (2010) ESP Branches, the one area of ESP, which remains rarely explored in the ESP literature, is English for Vocational Purposes (EVP) or Vocational English (VE), though some studies have reported vocationally-oriented language learning (hereafter VOLL) or VE programs (see Black & Yasukawa, 2012; Platt, 1996; Vogt & Kantelinen, 2013; Widodo, 2015). In these studies, English language programs are contextualized within the process of learning vocational competencies, and English language skills are viewed as social practices and specific disciplines as dynamic because the actual use of the language happens in authentic environments, in which students engage (Platt, 1996). In other words, the emphasis is on using the language to learn or make sense of vocational content. In addition, vocational socialization (inducting learners into the culture of their chosen vocations or disciplines) and literacies (language as dynamic social practice) are key components of VOLL.

The issue of VE or VOLL in the context of English as a second language (ESL) has a history dating back to the 1970s (Gage & Prince, 1982). Since its inception, this type of ESP has been designed for language minority or immigrant learners in adult education programs and for school leavers in secondary and post-secondary education to prepare them for possible study and employment opportunities (Platt, 1993, 1996). Within the framework of VOLL, VE refers to a program "enabling learners to communicate not only in the (future) workplace but also provides a more general competence that integrates vocational, linguistic, and social skills" (Egloff, as cited in Vogt & Kantelinen, 2013, p. 64). Further, it involves "the vocational aspects of the learner´s life but is not limited to the immediate occupational demands of work" (Vogt & Kantelinen, 2013, p. 65). In the secondary education sector, VOLL is designed for learners who are prepared for a range of semi-skilled employment or occupations, which require English as an additional competence (Vogt & Kantelinen, 2013). Thus, in the educational sphere such as in the secondary vocational education, VE has been institutionally recognized.

In many ESP studies, the context of EVP or VE remains institutionally situated in higher education (e.g., colleges and universities). Although some ESP scholars categorize EVP into EOP, VE can be categorized as a kind of ESP or a content based language learning program, in which the specific language demands of students' vocational areas need to be learned (Platt, 1996). Following this argument, Widodo (2014a) adds one more category to Basturkmen's classification of ESP branches as in the following figure:

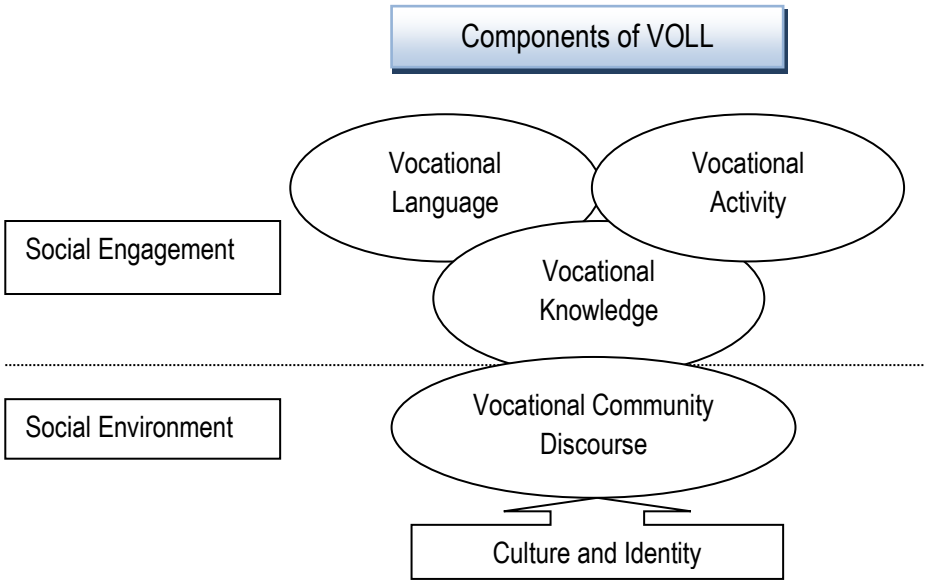
Figure 2.1 *Extended Classification of ESP Domains*



In this study, the term, EVP or VE, is viewed as a program socio-institutionally situated in the secondary education sector; VE is designed for students who have a particular vocational interest. Depending on student choice of specialization, EVP is the point of departure for developing EAP, EPP, or EOP competences as students continue their studies into higher education programs. Taken together, the ESP domains are grouped into four major branches: academic, professional, vocational, and occupational. In particular, EV is designed to meet the English language needs of learners in a myriad of specializations, in which these learners prepare both for immediate employment and for higher education either at college or university or polytechnics. This suggests that vocational pathways enhance interconnectedness between education and employment and between secondary education and relevant higher education by showing vocational learners which sectors best match their strengths and support them to identify their strengths. In other words,

vocationally-oriented pathways help learners see how their strengths, interests, and talents relate to study and employment possibilities. Currently, VE is also a major trend addressing the integration of language learning and vocational learning for learners across vocations. In the context of VOLL, it is also an ESP-based language approach. This program can be characterized by (a) the specificity of vocational (disciplinary) language coupled with general (commonsense) language; (b) the relevance of vocational knowledge; (c) the centrality of vocational discourses; and (d) specificity of vocational activities or tasks. Both culture and identity are socially embedded. This characterization of VOLL can be depicted as follows:

Figure 2.2 *Components of Vocationally-Oriented Language Learning* (*VOLL*)



As seen in Figure 2.2, in the context of VOLL, ESP learners experience social engagement. This engagement is mediated by language, knowledge, and activity. For instance, when students participate in a hotel room reservation activity, they need to know the language of room reservation and the convention of booking a room (knowledge). Another example is that in order for students to create a general ledger in an accounting area, they have to understand the language of a general ledger. They also need to know what counts as a general ledger in accounting terms. The two examples indicate social engagement. This social engagement is socially influenced by a discourse community. This community holds a particular culture and identity (e.g., ways of having room booking done and organizing a ledger).

From a wide-angled perspective, VOLL is viewed as an approach to learning English, where learners practice the language of vocational discourse communities, which varies depending on particular vocational interests and needs. Specifically significant in this regard is Jones's (2013) definition of language in action that "language as not just a means for exchanging information but as a means of

performing social actions" (p. 18, italics in original). This definition is taken from SFL, which views language for both experiential and also interpersonal meanings. Mickan (2013a) adds that language is a means of participating in social practices. With this in mind, ESP practitioners should be able to recognize particular texts representing how practitioners in different areas of vocations use language and other semiotic or meaning making tools to perform social actions or engage in social practices (e.g., *booking a hotel room*, *preparing a general ledger*, and *designing a firm website*).

Vocational programs provide further impetus for VOLL in that English programs are designed to address vocational knowledge. This vocational knowledge provides contextual input for using English. In this way, knowledge is constructed with language. Thus, VOLL programs address what vocational texts in English are commonly used, and enhance awareness of how the language characterizes these texts. The programs also respond to "existing contextual realities and priorities, thereby helping most learners feel that their English learning efforts are worthwhile" (Hua & Beverton, 2013, p. 102). This implies that English is not only seen as a required subject, but also as a tool for making sense of vocational knowledge and for participating in particular vocational discourse communities.

2.3 Reframing Needs Analysis in Vocational English Materials Development

Needs analysis or needs assessment particularly in ESP is not a new concept because of its long history dating from the 1970s and its constant evolution. According to West (1994), "[b]efore the 1970s, needs analyses were based on teacher intuitions and sometimes informal analyses of students' needs" (as cited in Flowerdew, 2013, p. 326). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) emphasize that needs analysis is "an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning" (1987, p.19). In practice, needs analysis is common in ESP, and is underrepresented in EGP "*because of an erroneous belief that it is not possible to specify the needs of General English learners, and partly because of a lack of literature on the practicalities of analysing needs data in the context of General English"* (Seedhouse, 1995, p. 59, italics in original). Despite these arguments, a recent study by Liu, Chang, Yang, and Sun (2011) emphasizes the use of needs analysis in both EGP and ESP. This suggests that when designing any English programs including EGP and ESP, teachers usually start with this question: "Why do these learners need to learn English?" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 53). In short, both EGP and ESP require needs analysis as a starting point for identifying texts and activities or tasks learners need to experience or engage.

Needs analysis is goal-oriented, context-dependent, and population-specific (Krohn, 2009) in that it is subject to change on the basis of competing needs and interests (Flowerdew, 2013). It is an initial step in language materials development, and provides the basis for the design and use of curriculum materials, such as lesson plans, syllabi, textbooks/lesson units, and test papers among others. Needs analysis serves a number of different purposes. For example, Richards (2001, p. 52) provides a list of six:

1) to find out what language skills a learner needs in order to perform a particular role, such as sales manager, tour guide, or university student
2) to help determine if an existing course adequately addresses the needs of potential students
3) to determine which student from a group are most in need of training in particular language skills
4) to identify a change of direction that people in a reference group feel is important
5) to identify a gap between what students are able to do and what they need to be able to do
6) to collect information about a particular problem learners are experiencing.

Widodo and Pusporini (2010, p. 150) add that needs analysis aims to:

1) plan, implement, and evaluate specialized instruction for specific purposes or needs (e.g., situations, tasks or activities, skills, and functions);
2) identify present situation and target situation needs of learners; and
3) bridge a gap between insider's perspective/assumption and outsider's perspective/assumption.

Due to the importance of needs analysis in different domains of life, a number of studies in this area (see Long, 2005) have been undertaken over the last 30 years, and examined needs of "diverse learner groups in academic, professional, and occupational as well as "survival" settings" (Krohn, 2009, p. 260, quotation marks in original). During the last ten years, there has been a plethora of needs studies in ESP using a variety of data collection methods as summarized in Table 2.2.

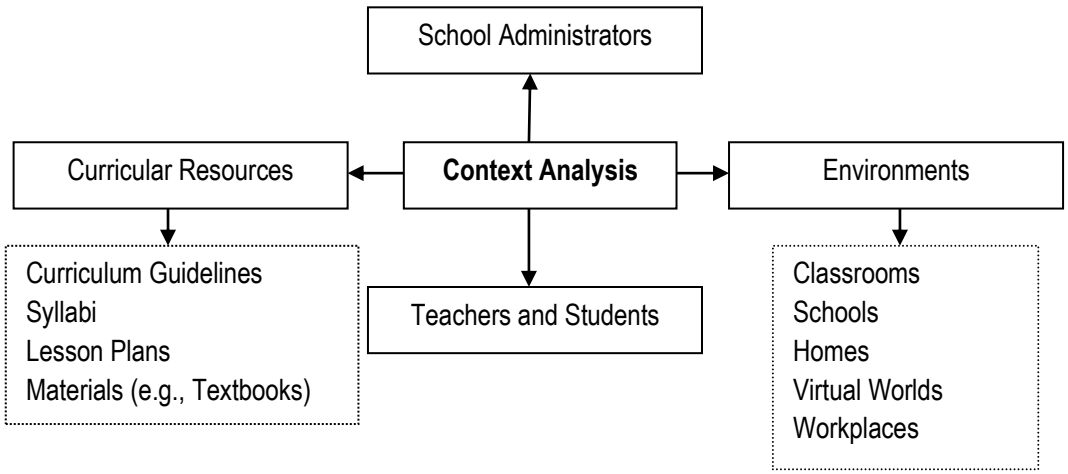
Table 2.2 *A List of Previous Studies on Needs Analysis in ESP*

Authors	Sector	Analysis Focus	Target Population	Data Collection Methods	Approach to Needs Analysis
Paul Spence & Gi-Zen Liu (2013)	The high-tech industry	English needs of engineers	process integration engineers	Survey questionnaires, observations, and interviews	Skills and task-based approach
Tzu-Ling Hua & Sue Beverton (2013)	Vocational secondary education	Students' expectations of English courses	Vocational high school students	Questionnaires and interviews	Learning-based approach
John Macalister (2012)	Marine training center	Needs analysis of trainee seamen	Trainee seamen	Narrative frame	Narrative approach
Rhonda Oliver, Ellen Grote, Judith Rochecouste, & Mike Exell (2012)	Vocational and education training (VET)	Language and literacy needs of Aboriginal high school VET students	VET students, teachers, trainers and school administrators, local employers, a workforce department representative, lecturers, and local community members	Individual and focus group interviews, observations, and documents	Task-Based approach
Mahmood Reza Atai & Leila Shoja (2011)	Higher education	Academic language needs of Iranian university students	Undergraduates of computer engineering, undergraduates of computer engineering, academic instructors, ESP instructors,	Questionnaire survey, interviews, and observations	Situational approach

These studies indicate the role of needs analysis in educational and business/industrial sectors, where English plays a pivotal role in academic and professional encounters. Despite this extensive research of needs analysis, there are only a few studies in ESP, which provide a detailed account of how the outcomes of the needs analysis inform the design and use of materials situated in the vocational secondary school sector.

Drawing on McDonough, Shaw, and Masuhara (2013), in this study, needs analysis is termed context analysis and includes teachers, students, school administrators, curricular resources (e.g., curriculum guidelines, syllabi, lesson plans, and textbooks), and environments, where both teachers and students use language materials inside and outside the classroom. The relationship of all the participants in needs analysis as demonstrated in the literature is summarized in Figure 2.3 below.

Figure 2.3 *A Framework for Context Analysis*



This context analysis takes into account the roles of school administrators, teachers, and students in jointly making curricular and pedagogical decisions, including making decisions on designing and using language materials. It also captures what materials fit best with students' experiences, needs, wants, interests, or intentions. For teachers, context analysis boosts their creativity and flexibility in creating language materials. From a learner perspective, students are not only asked about their wants and aspirations, but also involved in content selection; this involvement triggers "learner investment and participation" (Belcher, 2006, p. 136). Understanding the histories, social and cultural values, beliefs, and expectations of the students in the educational landscape is facilitative of locally grounded language materials development in which students' voices are heard. Context analysis also recognizes curricular resources that both teachers and students experience. Curricular materials are resources for pedagogical innovation and change. These resources help teachers unpack and appropriate mandated or official curriculum materials (e.g., curriculum documents,

syllabi, guidelines for pedagogical standards, and textbooks). Engaging in context analysis is one of the ways to build shared vision and motivation between teachers and students. It is also an attempt to interpret curriculum materials mandated by policy makers and higher level curriculum consultants. With this in mind, language materials development is a social activity, which involves both teachers and students in negotiating what to teach and what to learn, how teaching and learning take place, and how these endeavors are evaluated. This negotiation is not as simple as is in that both actors are institutionally tied to other actors such as school administrators, school committee members, school superintendents, parents, and other interested stakeholders (e.g., employers, universities, and policy makers). However, at least, both teachers and students potentially understand the what, the why, and in what ways teaching and learning have a significant bearing on students' learning and teachers' professional learning or teacher development.

2.4 Language Materials

Language materials are examples of curriculum resources or documents. They take the form of pages of texts, textbooks, workbooks, reference materials, pictures, realia or real-life artifacts (e.g., *bus timetables*, *event flyers*, *payment summaries*, *posters*, and *sales receipts*), virtual artifacts (e.g., *websites* and *computer programs*), teacher-prepared worksheets, exercises and activities, student-prepared authentic texts (e.g., student-generated poems), and other forms of materials (Epstein, 2010; Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013; Hall, 2010). These varied texts can become useful resources for language teaching and learning. Tomlinson (2012) adds that materials include any texts and media that English teachers and students make use of to make English language learning happen (e.g., live talks, photographs, videos, DVDs). The term, *materials*, is also referred to as texts and language learning tasks or activities in textbooks, course books, or handouts (Harwood, 2010). These texts also take the form of "any artifacts that prompt the learning and use of language in the language classroom" (Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013, p. 779). The term, *materials*, is now used to refer to texts and tasks alike (Mishan, 2005). Many of these resources are now available on the Internet. Search engines and corpora, for instance, quickly and easily, offer language teachers and students resources such as verbal information, illustrations, and other texts. They open up possibilities for teachers and students to find authentic texts and activities, which showcase the actual use of language. These texts and activities can be vital resources for language teaching and learning.

Commonly, there are two types of language materials: locally produced or teacher created (in-house) and expert created or commercial materials. These can take the form of textbooks, worksheets, lesson units, course books, workbooks, and handouts. Some authors prefer commercial materials to

textbooks. There are a number of differences between locally produced materials and commercial texts. These differences, as highlighted by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Tomlinson (2008, 2012), and Widodo and Savova (2009), are summarized in Table 2.3 below:

Table 2.3 *Differences between Locally Produced Materials and Commercial Texts*

Locally Produced Materials	Commercial Texts
• attempt to meet a group of learners' specific needs.	• are geared for learners with diverse backgrounds and different needs.
• are grounded in these needs, which provide the basis for selecting, designing, and using such texts.	• serve as a guide, which provide activities, language resources, and topics, which may not relevant to a specific group of learners.
• are not designed based on the basis of "the profit imperative," but are driven by "considerations of the needs and wants of their target learners and by principles of language acquisition" (Tomlinson, 2008, p. 9).	• put more emphasis on marketability (largely driven by commercial factors) than pedagogical concerns or values).
• are tailored to current pedagogical needs. The texts may respond to immediate constraints and resources.	• are not designed based on classroom research and do not take into account actual classroom concerns.
• may not be based on a sound theory of language learning and teaching because of teacher lack of training in language materials development.	• fill this need because they are mostly written by experienced writers or experts, but these may also not be based on sound theory.
• suit learners' local cultures and contexts.	• may be culturally and contextually inappropriate in content.
• allow teachers to create their own syllabus.	• offer a ready-made and structure syllabus, which teachers can follow.
• may not carefully be edited and contain mistakes.	• have pleasing visual features such as full-color illustrations, and they are carefully designed and edited for content and readability and regularly updated.
• challenge teachers to find other texts, which supplement core materials.	• offer a variety of additional materials such as teachers' workbooks, ready-to-administer tests, and CDs.
• may accommodate the expectations of school-level policy makers, teachers, and students.	• represent the third voice (materials writers), so teachers' and students' voices are underrepresented

Although commercial texts have some weaknesses, they can be useful if appropriated or adapted in particular language classroom contexts. Teachers can make use of such materials as a starting point for developing or designing their own classroom materials. Additionally, commercial materials can be a stimulant for teacher thinking and creativity, so they can be resources for the teachers instead of seeing commercial materials as expert endorsed products to which they have to stick slavishly. For this reason, teachers need to have sufficient knowledge and understanding of language materials development. Otherwise, they merely rely upon their personal beliefs. For example, in a study of textbook evaluation, LaBelle (2011) observed, "[m]any classroom instructors rely on their own personal judgment or intuition to select texts for their students or simply depend upon the textbooks approved by their district, school board, or nonprofit corporation" (p. 95). This situation is exacerbated by the fact that there is no institutional support for developing local materials, and there is no room for teachers to design materials due to heavy teaching loads.

In this study, language materials are defined as locally produced texts informed by theoretical orientations. In the design and use of such materials, both teachers and students alike navigate, select, adapt, and use materials through a process of negotiation and collaboration. These locally produced materials respond to the fact that not all commercial ESP materials can cater to students' specific language learning needs across a wide range of specializations within a context where both teachers and students engage in a vocationally oriented language learning enterprise. The disciplinary context will vary from one institutional domain to another.

2.5 Locally Grounded Language Materials Development as Curricular Innovation

Language materials are an integral component of language curriculum development (Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013). These texts mediate curriculum implementation or enactment. Graves (2008) suggests using enactment rather than implementation in order to emphasize "the agency of teachers and learners in the classroom" (p. 152) because the curriculum is always locally enacted. Enactment does not position teachers or learners as "recipients and implementers of received wisdom, rather than decision-makers in their own right" (Graves, 2008, p. 151). This notion suggests pedagogical curriculum 'making,' in which both teachers and students negotiate curriculum materials. Pedagogical or classroom materials serve as the provider of social and educational experiences jointly created by the teacher and students in the classroom. Whilst these teaching and learning processes take place primarily in the classroom, they may also continue outside the classroom (e.g., home and virtual classrooms).

Curriculum innovation or remaking is defined here as appropriating or adapting language policy and curriculum materials, pedagogy, and assessment as described in the mandated curriculum. For instance, locally grounded language materials development is one of the ways to appropriate or remake curriculum materials by involving teachers, students, and school administrators in making decisions about the content of the materials. In this respect, they are entrusted to voice and negotiate curriculum and materials adaptation to ensure quality of processes and outcomes (experiences) (Mayes, 2013). These processes and experiences align with people and context as well as principles of language learning and language teaching (Crabbe, 2003).

Language materials locally developed by teachers cater to local needs in a way that commercial or global materials cannot (Al-Busaidi & Tindle, 2010). The 'home produced materials movement' aims to accommodate the aspirations of local learners and teachers. From a curricular perspective, locally grounded language materials development is commensurate with school based curriculum development where school administrators, teachers, and students take an initiative to develop their own materials because of local needs while responding to global demands. Tomlinson and Masuhara (2010) contend that locally developed language materials can provide relevant, engaging and meaningful content informed by an appropriate choice of theory and methodology.

The design and use of language materials locally tailored to particular groups of learners are the impetus for materials adaptation, a process whereby adjustments in materials are made by teachers and those who use the materials in the school or classroom context (Shawer, 2010a). At the classroom and school levels, both teachers and students negotiate language materials; ''teachers' knowledge, experience, and skills affect the interactions of students and materials in ways that neither students nor materials can'' (Cohen & Ball, 1999, p. 2). In practice, locally grounded materials development is the manifestation of classroom curriculum making, which involves negotiation between teachers and students. The classroom becomes a dialogic space for bringing language materials as a product (artifact) into action; materials involve texts and tasks jointly developed by teachers and students that reflect their understanding of the programmatic or formal and institutional curriculum frameworks. This notion suggests that teachers along with school administrators are interpreters of the mandated policy and programmatic curricula. The interpretations of teachers, school administrators, and students may or may not resonate with the curriculum as envisioned or mandated at the language planning and policy level in that the mandated curriculum may not identify the diverse needs of students. Hence, locally grounded materials development, has the potential to bridge the gap between top-down policy expectations and grass-roots needs.

In Shawer's (2010b) terms, locally grounded materials development positions teachers as materials and curriculum developers and materials and curriculum makers. As materials and curriculum developers, they creatively supplement and adapt the curriculum materials such as syllabi and textbooks, which do not suit pedagogical contexts. The curriculum developers re-design what to teach and how to teach as prescribed in textbooks. They also explore pedagogical practice as well as evaluate what works and what does not work in the classroom context. Shawer (2010b) identifies macro and micro strategies of teachers-as-curriculum developers as follows:

Table 2.4 *Macro and Micro Strategies of Teachers-as-Curriculum Developers*

Macro Strategies	Micro Strategies
curriculum change, development, supplementation, adaptation, planning, experimentation, design, and expansion; material writing; material evaluation	textbook cherry-picking, lesson topic supplementation, unit topic supplementation, lesson adaptation, task adaptation, and task skipping

Local curriculum makers start by undertaking a needs or context assessment using multi-sourced input, and then select topics and organize pedagogical tasks. They adjust curriculum materials (pedagogical topics, content, and activities) according to the outcomes of context analysis. In this way, language materials development challenges teachers' role as curriculum transmitters or implementers, who just follow or implement the mandated curriculum materials and whose primary goal is to prepare students for high-stakes tests, drawn from the textbooks. As Shawer (2010a, 2010b) reported, teachers as curriculum transmitters tend to use a linear sequence of pedagogic practice, static lesson plans, a single source student book, and teacher guide. Locally grounded language materials development as the driver of classroom level curriculum making posits teachers as curriculum developers and curriculum makers who do not comply with ''prevailing concepts of teacher as technician, consumer, receiver, transmitter, and implementer of other people's knowledge'' (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999, p.16).

Locally grounded language materials development can lead to curriculum integration where school based curriculum development through continued context analysis, grassroots initiatives, and top-down initiatives are mutually intertwined to frame vision and motivation of teachers and students. Both vision and motivation are key factors in a transformation of classroom practice. This transformation "has to begin with the teachers, because they are the people in the best position to shape classroom life" (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2013, p. 7). Through locally grounded language materials development, teachers critically perceive what to teach and what to learn as shared vision

and motivation between students and themselves. The teachers assist their students to fully understand their realistic needs and wishes to learn English.

In these ways, locally grounded language materials can mediate classroom curriculum adaptation and curriculum making in which both teachers and students negotiate the interpretation and reconstruction of official curriculum materials. Teachers play crucial roles as context analysts and classroom curriculum developers and makers by making sense of English that their students want and need to learn, and of how these expectations are met through shared vision and motivation. This shared vision and motivation provide a key impetus for enacting curriculum materials, which suit the identified goals, interests, expectations, and agendas of students, teachers, and school administrators. In summary, local grounded language materials development as classroom curriculum making can be understood as a participatory or emancipatory curriculum process, which recognizes the agency of both teachers and students as the actual actors in the classroom where the curriculum is enacted and experienced.

2.6 Participatory Action Research as a Platform for Locally Grounded Language Materials Development

Locally grounded materials development involves collaboration and negotiation between teachers and students at a classroom level. It also integrates theory and practice. Therefore, participatory action research (hereafter PAR) is one of the ways to develop locally tailored language materials. In PAR, both teachers and students engage in a series of action: doing context analysis; formulating goals and outcomes (competencies); negotiating a materials design process; collaborating, finding, selecting, and appropriating (adapting, deleting, and adding) texts; enacting or implementing the created texts, and evaluating the texts. Through PAR, the engagement of both teachers and students facilitates locally grounded language materials.

The adoption of PAR as a platform for developing locally tailored language materials is relevant for three fundamental reasons. Firstly, Kemmis (2009) argues that the main goal of action research (PAR) is to change "practitioners' *practices*, their *understandings* of their practices, and the *conditions* in which they practice" (p. 463). Locally tailored materials development is part of teacher's daily practice. In this practice, teachers should have understandings of this development, including theory, concepts, and processes. This materials development is always locally situated in the classroom where teachers interact with students. PAR has the potential of addressing teaching and learning efficiency, which prioritizes the quality of life in the language classroom. Classroom life

involves multiple interactions between a teacher, students, and curriculum materials in that it is socially constructed (Walsh, 2011). It is argued that "[s]uch interactivity can be vertical, as in teacher–student interaction, or horizontal, as in student–student interaction" (Pritchard & Woollard, 2010, p. 37). Classroom life can be multimodal as in teacher-student-other curriculum material interaction. Classroom interaction, shared social activity, is mediated by language and other resources for learning. Thus, PAR provides teachers with a room for making informed decisions about formulating pedagogical goals and outcomes, managing resources, anticipating constraints, framing and organizing pedagogical content and activities or tasks, and planning and managing other curriculum materials in order to promote teaching and learning. These decisions can be the basis for developing locally produced language texts.

In the educational domain, PAR also addresses transformation of teacher practices (what materials teachers design and use), transformation of the way teachers understand their practices (what the teachers think and say about language materials development), and transformation of the conditions that enable and constrain their practice (factors affecting language materials development processes) (Kemmis, 2009). With this in mind, locally grounded language materials development provides a dialogic space for teachers to select and transform information from past and current knowledge and experience of learners into their new personal knowledge and understanding. It recognizes the impact of both past and current knowledge and experience on development and better understanding of knowledge and competence. Understanding this can be the point of departure for providing curriculum materials, which suit students', teachers', and institutional needs. Understanding needs as social and psychological reality can be the basis for developing locally produced language materials.

PAR foregrounds three aspects: participation, action, and research. The participation of both teachers and students is a key component of locally grounded language materials development, in which both teachers and learners negotiate a mutual process of working together. This mutual understanding is the key to talking about what materials are needed. Bringing every course of action into consciousness helps teachers think of more innovative practice. Both teachers and students think globally of needs for learning English, but develop this competence locally. Locally grounded language materials development is a negotiated and collaborative action. Through critical reflection as sense making of their engagement with language materials, both teachers and students can gain informed understandings of the importance of locally tailored materials development. With this in mind, PAR allows teachers and students to engage with, exercising, and practicing local developed materials (Glassman & Erdem, 2014).

Grounded in the principle of PAR, local grounded language materials development is viewed as continuous understandings of socially changing language classroom life and as a dialogue for constructing what materials students want and need to learn. The heart of PAR in locally grounded language materials development is to understand teachers' own practices, students' own learning, and their own lives. The design and use of locally tailored language materials development becomes a continuing enterprise for negotiated exploration of teaching and learning. This exploration is guided by theory-to-practice interconnectedness, situatedness or context sensitiveness, feasibility, and local needs.

2.7 Theoretically and Research Informed Materials Development: Theory and Evidence Based Practice

Grounded in PAR, this study emphasizes the interlocking relationship between theory and practice. Pedagogically, language materials development is informed by particular theory. Experimenting with this theory is part of a research process. Tomlinson (2011) points out that materials development is "both a field of study and practical undertaking" (p. 2). As a field, it examines "the principles and procedures of the design, implementation and evaluation of language teaching materials" (Tomlinson, 2011, p. 2). As a practical undertaking, materials development embraces any teaching activities, which involve materials developers, teachers, and students to maximize language learning experiences. Both ideas suggest that materials development should be theoretically principled whilst practically aiming to facilitate language learning and teaching. In particular, language materials development in ESP has become "a more theoretically grounded and research informed enterprise" (Hyland, 2013, p. 105). The most recent literature of language materials development shows the importance of developing language materials as pedagogical practice, which is informed by theory and research (Mishan & Chambers, 2010). There is extensive research on the application of theory to the design and use of language materials (see Harwood, 2013, 2014; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2010). However, the application of SFL as language-based theory of learning to the design and use of language materials remains under-researched (see Singapore Wala, 2013). The value of SFL theory in language materials development as theory of language and language learning is detailed in Section 2.8.

2.8 Theory of Language and Language Learning: A Social Semiotic Perspective

2.8.1 Theory of Language

Social semiotic theory is an interdisciplinary model of language and language learning, which "sits at the intersection between linguistics, anthropology, sociology, and education" (Halliday, as cited in Teramoto, 2010, p. 45). Halliday and Hasan (1989) propose that this social semiotic perspective attempts to apply systemic linguistics to educational inquiry. Social semiotic theory at the heart of educational linguistics provides fresh insight into the nature of language and language learning. It also foregrounds the value and role of language in education (see Byrnes, 2009; Gebhard, 2013).

Social semiotic theory is a functional semantic theory of language that illuminates how people use language to make meaning (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). Halliday (1978, pp. 16, 21, 27–29, 109) argues that language is defined as follows:

- Language is *functional* in terms of what it can do or what can be done with it.
- Language is *semantic* in that it is used to make meanings.
- Language is *semiotic* in that it is a process of making meanings by selecting "from the total set of options that constitute what can be meant" (p. 53).
- The meanings generated and exchanged are motivated by their social and cultural *contexts*.

Halliday and other scholars working within the framework of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) argue that language is functional in that it is a systemic resource for making and exchanging meaning and intentional acts of meaning. "Acts of meaning are the linguistic instances of the linguistic system of meaning potential. Acts of meaning are a subclass of semiotic acts that are semantic" (Webster, 2009, p. 5). For example, people use language to do different things by talking, listening, reading, and writing. From a Hallidayan social semiotic perspective, functions of language include experiential (representing experience of the world), logical (creating logical connections among various elements of a text to create a coherent whole), interpersonal (enacting social roles/role identities), and textual (creating a coherent whole). These general categories of meaning are all intertwined in the fabric of discourse. Thus, from an SFL perspective, language is an aspect of human experience, and it is a resource for construing or representing, negotiating, and organizing that experience (Halliday, 1978; Webster, 2009). Unsworth (2000) sums up that "[a] fundamental premise of SFL is the complete interconnectedness of the linguistic and the social. The focus is on how people use language to make meanings with each other as they carry out the activities of their social lives" (p. 3). For individuals to make meanings, they make use of the range of the linguistic resources or choices, which are available in particular contexts.

Grounded in SFL, Coffin and Donohue (2012) state that "three key dimensions of context are seen as shaping and being shaped by language: field (the topic), tenor (the roles and relationships of the interlocutors) and mode (how written or spoken a text is)" (p. 66). Hasan (2004) calls these dimensions meta-functional discourses. The original definitions of meta-functional discourses (Halliday & Hasan, 1985, p. 12) are presented below.

Table 2.5 *Metafunctional Discourse in SFL*

The Field of Discourse	The Tenor of Discourse	The Mode of Discourse
What is happening, to the nature of the social action that is taking place: what is it that the participants are engaged in, in which the language figures as some essential component?	Who is taking part, to the nature of the participants, their statuses and roles: what kinds of role relationships obtain among the participants, including permanent and temporary relationships of one kind or another, both the types of speech role that they are taking on in the dialogue and the whole cluster of socially significant relationships in which they are involved.	What part the language is playing, what it is that the participants are expecting the language to do for them in that situation, the symbolic organisation of the text, the status that it has, and its function in the context, including the channel (is it spoken or written or some combination of the two?) and also the rhetorical MODE, what is being achieved by the text in terms of such categories as persuasive, expository, didactic and the like.

Drawing from metafunctional discourses by Halliday & Hasan (1985), Christie and Unsworth (2000, p. 4) relate contextual variables to metafunctional meanings as shown in the following table.

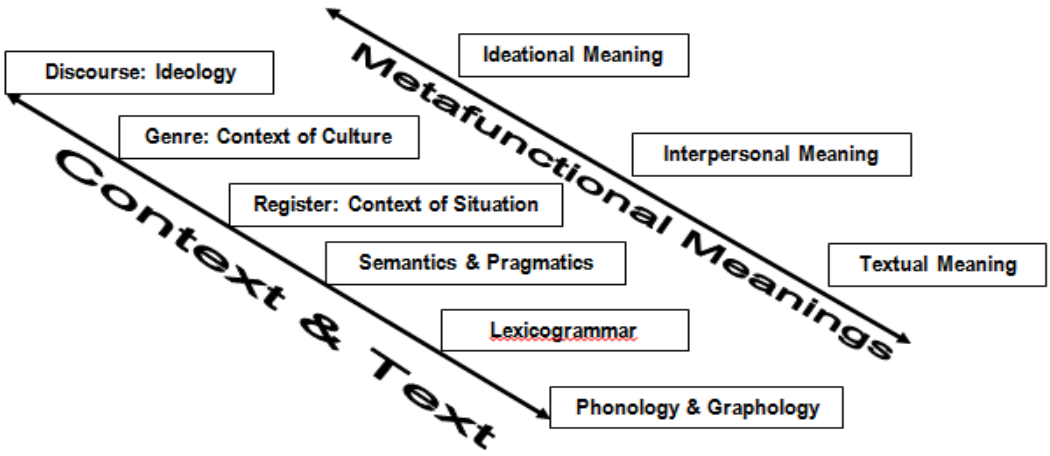
Table 2.6 *Metafunctional Meanings in SFL*

Contextual variable	Metafunction (Meaning)	'reality construal'	'work done'
FIELD	Ideational	Reality	representing our experience of reality
TENOR	Interpersonal	social reality	enacting our social relation
MODE	Textual	semiotic reality	presenting messages as text in context

Hasan (2004) argues that the relationship between language and context are closely implicated in the production of discourse. The production of discourse is related to the field of discourse, the tenor of discourse, and the mode of discourse. The field of discourse pertains to the specific identity of social action, what is being done by way of using language. The tenor of discourse refers to how the use of the language demonstrates the social relations being enacted between the interactants. The mode of discourse relates to the channel of communication and the potential for feedback between the interactants, for example actual (face to face) and virtual (online or long instance communication) interactions. Thus, text as discourse is an instance of the process and product of social meaning in a particular context of situation. Language as text emphasizes situation type and text type; thus, meaning relies upon a particular instance, that is, "what is immediate or experienced" (Hasan, 2009, p. 169). SFL provides a principled account of both how forms (language) and meanings (content) are encapsulated in discourse.

In that SFL is a theory of language as text and language as discourse developed by Halliday and other SFL scholars, meaning is realized at six different levels of abstraction or strata: phonology and graphology, lexico-grammar, semantics and pragmatics, register (context of situation), genre (context of culture), and discourse (ideology). These levels of strata emphasize both "the structure [and] the ecology of language—the context that enables language behavior" (Akerejola, 2012, pp. 13-14).

Figure 2.4 *The Stratal Perspective of Language in SFL*



Adapted from Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) and Martin (2014)

Figure 2.4 shows there is the relationship between text and context. The smallest unit of texts is phonology (spoken) or graphology (written). Lexico-grammar is the key unit of meaning at a clausal level. It is a resource for conveying ideational, interpersonal, and ideational meanings. The key unit

of text is semantics and pragmatics or discourse semantics. Discourse semantics pertain to meaning and function. The text is an intersubjective stretch of language where involved interactants exchange meaning in a context of situation and in a context of culture. These discourses may convey ideological values or beliefs (e.g., ways of doing, being, relating, and behaving). Texts move beyond linguistic resources. They entail social, cultural and ideological meanings.

Thus, SFL theorizes language in terms of the relationship between the meanings being made in a particular context and the linguistic resources, which have evolved to realize those meanings. SFL as a social semiotic theorizes language as resources for representing our experience of the world, resources for establishing and maintaining relationships in interaction, and resources for forming and organizing texts. With this in mind, SFL as a social theory of language stresses the importance of the sociocultural functioning of language. Understanding language as a tool for meaning making is essential because "the ability to see how language shapes our construction of the world and experience, our relationship with others and the packaging and organizing of our messages and meanings places teachers and students in a strong position to reflect critically on the language interactions they participate in, [and] the texts they read and they write" (Coffin, 2010, p. 3). This holistic view of language theory provides the basis for reframing or defining how language learning helps learners become meaning makers to use language for different social purposes.

2.8.2 Language Based Theory of Learning

Some scholars who apply SFL to the field of education have a shared understanding of language and language learning and teaching, which "differs from behavioral and psycholinguistic orientations of language learning and teaching" (Gebhard, 2013, p. 1). Framed in Halliday's (1993) language based theory of learning, learning of any subject matter, including learning of another language, is linguistic in nature. Gebhard (2013) adds that language learning is viewed as a social process, in which language is seen as a fluid system of linguistic choices that students learn to use. Halliday (1993, p. 93) contends that "[t]he distinctive characteristic of human learning is that it is a process of making meaning-a **semiotic** process;" (bold in original). This suggests that human learning is a semiotic process or a meaning making process mediated by language (Painter, 1999; Wells, 2004). In other words, learning language is learning how to mean.

Further, Halliday (1999) maintains that in the educational landscape, language takes three forms: learning language (first language or second language development), learning through language (content matter), and learning about language (metalanguage). Anchored in this language based theory of learning, language is viewed as the primary means of learning as a process of making

meaning and as the primary means for members of a particular culture jointly to construct their shared experience into social reality (see Halliday, 1999). We learn language in order to understand language and how it works as well as to understand what people do with it (Halliday & Hasan, 1985).

Language resides in human cognition, which is formed through social activities and organized as well as developed through a myriad of culturally constructed semiotic artifacts. From the SFL perspective, language development is not defined in behavioral and psycholinguistic terms but in a social domain. This implies that language learning is a social process, which enables learners to develop "language as a dynamic system of linguistic choices that students learn to use to accomplish a wide variety of social, academic, and political goals" (Gebhard, 2013, p. 1). Byrnes (2009) argues that educational processes have a bearing on language development. Such processes help learners learn how to go about making meaning in and through and with language (Halliday, 1999, 2007a, 2007b). This suggests that educational knowledge or learning is affected by language development. Achugar and Colombi (2008, p. 36) argue that "SFL theory situates language development in its sociohistorical context linking patterns of language use to particular culturally relevant situations."

Learning is a social process, which formally takes place in social institutions: schools (at a macro level) and classrooms (at a micro level). Schools are formal institutions, which provide a social environment for making instructed or schooled language learning possible (Halliday & Hasan, 1985). The typicality of language use is decontextualized, where learning language is geared to meet curriculum requirements. This decontextualized language is not rooted in the context of situation and the context of culture where relevant immediate time, space, and situation, are lacking. This decontextualized language learning is framed in traditional cognitive psychology, in which language is seen as a school subject that students need to internalize through rote learning or memorization. This rote learning exemplifies the mechanics of classroom interaction, which predominates in the educational discourse. This legitimizes language learning as transmission and acquisition of language knowledge, but deemphasizes language as a form of action and the enactment of social relationships, as well as the role of language in the social process (Halliday, 1999). Additionally, Halliday (1993) observes that educational theories and practices dissociate language from text, competence from performance, language from culture, form (grammar) from meaning, and other related oppositional pairs.

In particular, language learning involves (1) logogenesis: 'instantiation of the text/process' called **unfolding**; (2) ontogenesis: 'development of the individual' known as **growth**; and (3) phylogenesis: 'expansion of the culture' called **evolution** (Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999). These three processes are collectively labeled as semogenesis (the process of meaning making), where particular

meanings are created, transmitted, recreated, and changed. From these perspectives, learning language is learning to mean, in which language is viewed as a systemic and semiotic resource for doing social life. With this in mind, instructed language learning aims to enable people to learn. Achugar, Schleppegrell, and Oteiza (2007) argue that today's education attempts to engage students in learning, which enables to make meaning in different ways and deploying linguistic diversity as a resource for making the learning much richer in both language and content or information. These goals emphasize how language mediates the learning of language itself and content knowledge as a way of knowledge building.

SFL outlines a social theory of language as being fundamentally about meaning making. In the context of formal education, SFL offers a way of understanding language and specialist or disciplinary content or knowledge. It is concerned about how language operates and means in different contexts. Language learning emphasizes meaning and how people exercise choices in order to make meaning. SFL provides learners with a tool for representing patterns of experience, building a mental picture of reality, making sense of experience of what goes on both outside and inside people. With this meta-language tool, language teachers can help learners become aware of how language means metafunctionally (the ideational—representation, interpersonal—interaction, and textual—message). Hodgson-Drysdale (2014) states that "[o]n a more practical level, the ideational function enables people to use language in specific contexts to share experiences, the interpersonal enables us to interact with others, and the textual supports us as we combine the first two functions to make coherent oral or written texts" (p. 2).

Thus, SFL theory has the potential to assist teachers and students become fully aware of the linguistic choices available to them while using language. The theory also helps them to increase these linguistic resources, which make meaning making potential possible (Christie & Derewianka, 2008; Coffin, 2010; Schleppegrell, 2004). Understanding language and its functions through an SFL lens "expands the language resources of both teachers and students so that they can make meaning in new and varied ways across content areas . . . . This is especially important for bilingual learners who need explicit knowledge of how the English language functions" (Hodgson-Drysdale, 2014, p. 3). This suggests the importance of learning language through content to make meaning. SFL is a not approach, but theory and viable tool for deconstructing the meaning of texts or signs. SFL-inspired language pedagogy helps students how texts work and provides the students support to become "critically aware of the differences between everyday and disciplinary language practices" (Gebhard, Harman, & Seger, 2007, p. 422). Thus, informed by SFL theory, language learning is a social process of language development.

2.9 SFL-Informed Pedagogical Practices

SFL as social semiotic theory provides the basis for pedagogical practices. It has been adopted in both content based instruction (CBI) and text based language instruction (TBLI). It provides tools for educational researchers, applied linguists, and language teachers to understand the ways in which language builds disciplinary language, knowledge, discourse, and social practices in different disciplinary or vocational areas. With this in mind, the application of SFL becomes relevant to these pedagogical practices: CBI and TBLI. Within the present study, both CBI and TBLI complement one another because they provide the basis for pedagogical practices in vocationally-oriented language learning (VOLL) programs. Both practices recognize the integration of content and language and explicit language instruction. Both pedagogical practices are discussed through the lens of SFL.

2.9.1 Content Based Instruction (CBI)

CBI is an approach to language teaching, which attempts to interweave language and content. Some authors associate CBI with bilingual programs, content and language integrated learning (CLIL), and language immersion programs. CBI has been considered as a valuable curricular approach in a wide range of educational contexts. It has successfully been adopted in ESP programs, vocational and workplace education, bilingual education, and foreign language instruction (e.g., Song, 2006). The impacts of CBI including accelerating academic English skills development, enhancing academic performance, scaffolding meaning making activities through content linked language, and facilitating academic success have been reported by a number of studies (for example, Murie & Thomson, 2001; Song, 2006),

Over the last two decades, the successful implementation of CBI has been well documented in Canada, the United States, Europe, and other countries around the world (e.g., Cammarata, 2009; Chou, 2013; Stryker & Leaver, 1997). These successes are due to a number of factors. From a student perspective, students are afforded opportunities to participate actively in meaningful, related discipline-based tasks/activities and socialize themselves to the use of discipline specific language (see Chou, 2013). From teacher and institutional perspectives (see Cloud, 1998), language teachers have sufficient discipline specific knowledge (e.g., science, mathematics, accounting, tourism, and computer engineering). They are also able to develop subject matter expertise and to move beyond the teaching of language as a skill. The teachers are capable of balancing content and language as integral to language instruction. Schools or universities provide language teachers with much room for interdisciplinary exchanges.

From a pedagogical curriculum design, the goals of CBI are twofold: (a) to build students' disciplinary knowledge and to develop their language ability (Schleppegrell, Achugar, & Oteíza, 2004). Schleppegrell, Achugar, and Oteíza (2004) further argue that language and content are never separate. In this regard, students learn to "understand how language construes meanings in content area texts and how the important meanings and concepts of school subjects are realized in language. In other words, disciplinary knowledge is not taught in isolation from language" (p. 68). Snow, Met, and Genesee (1989) contend that CBI provides students with useful language resources and relevant opportunities for the use of language in social and academic contexts. CBI works well when it recognizes the fact that students learn the language for communication in meaningful social and academic contexts (Genesee, 1994). Mohan (1986) adds that language is used as a vehicle for learning about the world (e.g., content). This suggests that content triggers the actual use of language, so this can lead to a meaning making activity. As pointed out earlier, CBI emphasizes how knowing disciplinary or specialized content relates to knowing the language of the discipline. In this respect, knowledge is created or constructed in and through language. Disciplinary content gives motivation the need for using the language in context. Because "[l]anguage is the most elaborated semiotic system we use, and it is inextricably linked with the meaning that it conveys" (Heine, 2010, p. 1), content based language learning specifies which content and language students need to learn. Thus, CBI is based on a discipline or subject matter core; use of authentic language, texts, and tasks; and the needs of specific groups of students (Stryker & Leaver, 1997). Another feature of CBI is collaboration between content teachers and language teachers in developing pedagogical curricula (Song, 2006). This collaboration also aims to coordinate instructional materials, which aim to equip students with meaningful discipline specific language, knowledge, and experience.

Pedagogically speaking, a number of CBI models have been introduced and studied (see Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 2003). Two models of CBI are relevant to the present study. First, a model of CBLI called a Content and Language Familiarity and Novelty Continuum (CLFNC) proposed by Coyle, Hood, and Marsh (2010) includes the following steps:

1) Familiar content and familiar language: A teacher helps students familiarize themselves with familiar content and language;
2) Familiar content and new language: After students know the content and language in the tasks, new vocabulary is introduced;
3) New content and familiar language: After the students learn the new vocabulary, new concepts are introduced. This new concept is explained using the language along with the context where the language is used;

4) Integration of new content and new language: The language becomes more complicated as language and content are integrated. All language skills are integrated.

Chou (2013) examined the application of this model to a content-based English for tourism course in the Taiwanese elementary school context. In this study, the participants were socialized into the actual use of spoken English in different tourism-related authentic texts and activities. The evidence shows that the pupils showed improvement in listening skills, and they felt the course was useful in helping them develop their listening skill. They could connect this skill to another language skill, speaking.

Another model of CBLI is theme based instruction, where teachers identify relevant content themes and take the themes as the organizing principle for language curriculum development. Teachers do not simply use these themes superficially to contextualize language instruction, but they integrate language and content using different language skills and activities. The goals are to teach language based on the selected content based themes and to emphasize learning to mean within the context of language instruction. In conventional K–16 foreign language (FL) programs in the United States, Cammarata (2009) investigated how teachers implemented content based instruction (CBI) in their language classrooms. They found the implementation of CBI intellectually stimulating and useful in engaging students in meaning making oriented activities. For their professional learning, they also argued that engaging in CBI provided them with pedagogical innovation and exploration.

In SFL, language is never separable from social contexts and is always tied to historically and culturally rich environments. In CBI, language and content are already integrated because [l]earning content means learning the language that construes that content as students participate in new contexts of learning" (Schleppegrell, 2004, p. 18). In ESP, texts as content are a component of the language curriculum and materials. The previous studies hold evidence justifying the argument for the implementation of content-based ESP curricula and materials (Su, 2009). To help students become fully aware of how language construes content meanings, text based language instruction (TBLI) would complement CBI. In this regard, language is seen as texts arising out of social practice in social and academic contexts.

2.9.2 Text Based Language Instruction (TBLI)

Recent studies (see Hodgson-Drysdale, 2014) into text based language instruction (TBLI) have shown that explicit language teaching contributes to the development of student language, meaning making, and knowledge building. Through working with texts, students have opportunities to learn

language through content to make meaning. This explicit meaning making of discipline specific language works well in bilingual programs (see Schleppegrell, 2004). Research suggests the use of language to engage students in construing the world differently and in presenting information about the world in different ways (Schleppegrell, 2004). The implication of this research is that TBLI aims to engage students in meaning making through language.

Some scholars align TBLI with genre based language teaching. Genre based studies (see Deng, Chen, & Zhang, 2014; Yasuda, 2011) show that students develop their awareness of how texts are organized for different readers to fulfill certain social goals in particular social Situations and how linguistic resources shape the texts (Widodo, 2006). Research (see Cheng, 2008) has also shown that increased awareness of generic moves helps writers shape their understanding of a new genre. Empirical findings (see Yasuda, 2011) show that new writers benefit a lot from genre based language instruction, and genre based language teaching enhances students' language skills (e.g., reading and writing; including translation competence), and summary writing skills (see Deng, Chen, & Zhang, 2014; Chen & Su, 2012; Yasuda, 2011). Recent studies (see Bunch & Willett, 2013; de Oliveira & Lan, 2014) into genre based pedagogy informed by SFL have revealed that this pedagogy helps young learners to write content area texts in English.

In TBLI, texts are the manifest of language as a system for making meaning (Halliday, 1994). Learning language means experiencing a text because language as texts is the fabric of life (Mickan, 2013a). Learning the meanings of texts is a social process (Mickan, 2014). In other words, students learn language through working with texts in contexts. It is widely known that texts in language learning and teaching (hereafter language pedagogy) play a crucial role as meditational means of socializing learners to language use in real-life contexts of situation and culture. de Silva Joyce and Feez (2012) argue that TBLI is deeply rooted in a social orientation to learning. This orientation sees "learning as a social activity and the outcome of collaboration between teacher and student" (p. 46). TBLI follows two principles:

> **Principle 1**: Language is the medium for learning, which means we use language to turn our experience into knowledge we can apply from one context to the next.
> **Principle 2**: Learning occurs more effectively if teachers are explicit about what is expected of students and collaborate with students to enable them to meet those expectations (de Silva Joyce & Feez, 2012, p. 46).

At the outset, it is important to briefly discuss what a text means from a social semiotic viewpoint. The realization of language use takes the form of texts. Texts are social and cultural artifacts, which convey metafunctional meanings: ideational (representation), interpersonal (interaction), and textual

(message). Halliday and Hasan (1985) point out that text is viewed as product and as process. Text as product suggests that it is a representation of social reality, interaction, and message. It is instance of meaning in a particular context of situation. Text as process shows social exchange of meanings. Feez (1998) adds that literally text is defined as "any stretch of language which is held cohesively through meaning" (p. 4). In other words, the text used should be the entity of social meaning, which operates within social practices. Feez (1998) further exemplifies that a single word, *stop*, on a road sign may represent a text as a whole since it has a social meaning, while an excerpt of a novel, although it may be written in a page and thus is longer than the word, *stop*, does not represent a text as it cannot stand alone.

Knapp and Watkins (2005) point out that that "[t]exts are always produced in a context. While texts are produced by individuals, individuals always produce those texts as social subjects; in particular, social environments" (p. 19). These arguments is congruent with Mickan's propositions (2013a, p. xv) "[t]ext are people's everyday experience of language: language used in contexts for social purposes." Texts construct meaning constructed in experience; people create meaning by exchanging signs/symbols (e.g., language) in shared contexts of situation. Humans as social actors construct reality through interaction, and regular patterns of language use tell us how people construct reality in culturally specific ways. Text as instantiation of language is a resource for making and exchanging meaning (Halliday, 1978). Widodo (2012) emphasizes that texts are the actual use of the language that has meaning and function in the context of situation. Thus, we as humans produce a variety of texts as the upshot of social activities or practices, and these texts are socially and culturally fluid. This social and cultural fluidity implies that any texts reproduce or reconstruct social and cultural representations of individuals. This indicates how language, social system, and culture are mutually intermingled.

Pedagogically speaking, engaging students with texts means that students not only make meaning or sense of meanings, but also get things done, depending on the context of situation and the context of culture. With this in mind, texts are a systemic or semiotic resource for students' construction of meanings and for familiarizing students with social practices through texts in that the texts comprise different registers (the context of situation) and genres (the context of culture). This has two main pedagogical implications. First, teachers should assist students to use uses and forms of a variety of specialized or vocational texts. The students can communicate and act in discipline or vocation-specific domains. For example, in the hotel hospitality sector, students engaging with room reservation texts should understand how a hotel room reservation is practiced in a particular hotel as a social institution so that the students can perform a hotel room reservation activity generally

accepted in the institution. In other words, pedagogical tasks or activities are geared to lead students to recognize different texts based on vocation-specific practices and goals.

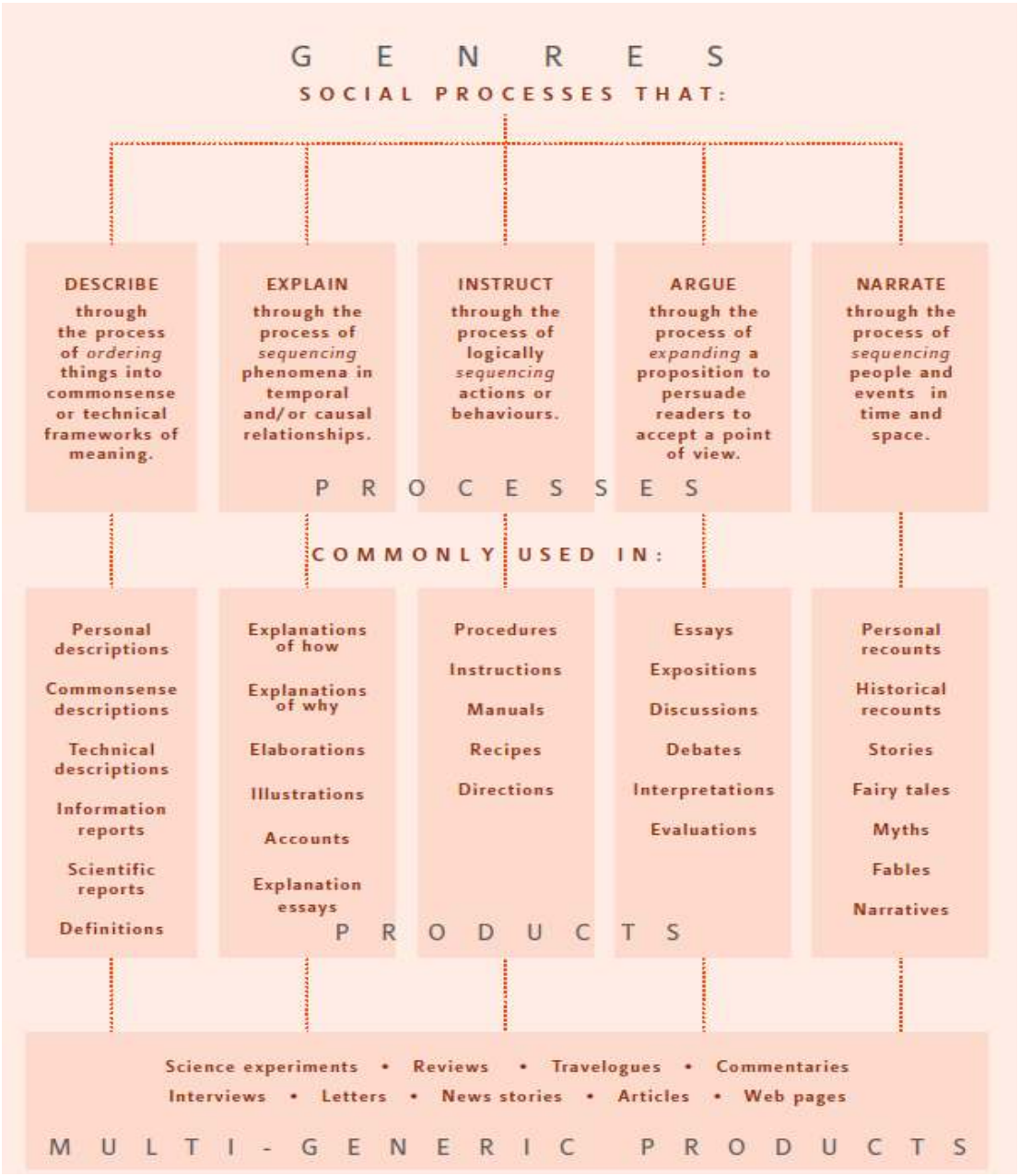
The second pedagogical implication is that students need to recognize that the nature of vocation-specific texts is always multimodally diverse. For example, accounting texts contain both verbal texts and non-verbal texts (e.g., numbers, graphs, and tables). As another example, computer engineering texts contain numerous visuals to facilitate make meaning. This indicates the definition and scope of text expanded beyond printed words. Students are fully aware that a variety of semiotic resources, which take the form of verbals and visuals, operate within vocation-specific texts. This awareness is a starting point for construing such semiotic resources in vocationally-oriented communicative settings.

To engage students with texts, the text-based cycle of language teaching and learning is enacted. This cycle conventionally includes (1) deconstruction of text, (2) joint construction of the text, and (3) independent construction of text proposed by Rothery and Stenglin (1994). At the stage of text deconstruction or modeling, teachers scaffold or assist students to notice and explore genres and lexico-grammatical resources/features. The term, *lexico-grammar*, "embraces the idea that vocabulary (lexis) is inextricably linked to grammatical choices" (Bloor & Bloor, 2004, p. 2). In professional and vocational contexts, students are afforded opportunities to notice and explore the global patterns of professional and vocational texts so that they are fully aware that such patterns pertain to human activities and meanings in each of these cultures. Deconstruction of text genres aims to help students see how particular professional and vocational practices with certain communicative and interactional goals are manifested through texts based on social and cultural institutions, the domain of knowledge, the participants engaged, and the role played by the language.

Martin and Rose (2005) maintain that students should be trained to become fully aware of different genres and see the interconnectedness among the genres learned so that they become members of these cultures. In text deconstruction, teachers commonly guide students to understand text types, social purposes, and schematic/generic structures/stages. These genres give students a solid understanding of the contexts, in which language is used frequently (e.g., accounting companies, hotel industries, computer engineering and the development of genres (e.g., business letters, reservation emails, and computer product labels) as well as styles or registers (e.g., accounting English, English for hotel hospitality and management, and computer engineering English). Scholars in the area of genres classify genres differently, but they share a similar understanding of genres as a process and product. For example, Knapp and Watkins (2005) categorize main genres into:

Describing, *Explaining*, *Instructing*, *Arguing*, and *Narrating*. Each of the genres is briefly described in the following figure.

Figure 2.5 *Types of Genres*



(Taken from Knapp & Watkins, 2005, p. 27)

At the lexico-grammatical level, teachers can lead students to notice how lexico-grammar is used in particular contexts and explore how lexico-grammatical choices are meaningful choices. These noticing and exploration activities help students to practice using these resources to make meaning (Jones & Lock, 2011). With this in mind, teacher support plays a crucial role in assisting students to notice and explore what is important. Text deconstruction helps students become aware that "a language consists of a set of systems, which offer the speaker (or writer) an unlimited choice of ways

of creating meanings" (Bloor & Bloor, 2004, p. 3). The students also need to know the fact that "grammar is *semantic* (concerned with meaning) and *functional* (concerned with how the language is used)" (Bloor & Bloor, 2004, p. 2). This emphasizes that communication is an interactive process through which meaning is negotiated in authentic communicative contexts. Thus, text deconstruction aims to give students a better understanding of the nature of language use in English in vocational domains such as engineering, the hospitality industry, and accounting.

In addition to deconstruction of genres and lexico-grammatical resources, teachers can focus on unpacking three meta-functional meanings: ideational, interpersonal, and textual. Teachers can scaffold students to notice and explore such meanings interactively. Teachers may ask prompt questions, such as

- What is the text about?
- What is the social purpose of the text?
- How is the text organized?
- What is the setting or situation of the text?
- What is the perspective of the author?
- Who is the intended audience of the text?
- What shared values and understandings are implied in the text?
- What text type seems to be mostly represented in the text?

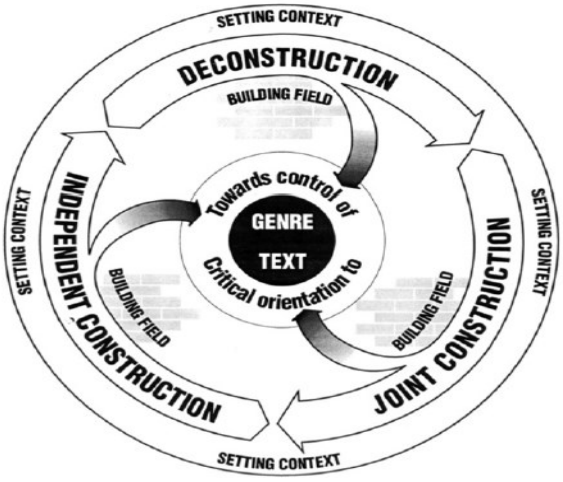
In recognizing the guiding role of the adult or more capable person, SFL-inspired developmental linguistics has made connections with the Vygotskyan notion of ZPD and made use of the related metaphor of scaffolding to describe the provision of adult or more capable person support gradually dismantled over time as the learner gains mastery (Painter, 1999). Thus, text deconstruction affords students opportunities to recognize meaning, function, and social context of the language use. Also, it can build and enhance student's critical awareness of genres (the context of culture) and registers (the context of situation). Equally important, students are given opportunities to unpack or deconstruct texts. This awareness is a springboard for making meaning or sense of texts.

The second cycle of text-based language pedagogy is joint construction or joint negotiation of text. Both teachers and students jointly produce or construct a text. In this joint text construction, both participants should have a shared understanding of the context and of the meanings being negotiated. Negotiation between the teacher and the students aims to avoid teacher domination. The teacher commonly asks scaffolded questions, which lead students in producing a text. Through this process, both the teacher and the students engage in making meanings and choices. It is important for the teacher to establish contexts, in which the use of English is appropriate and meaningful. Teacher scaffolding or interactive guidance through "shared experience, which refers to shared

knowledge of field, specific texts and knowledge about language" (Macnaught, Maton, Martin, & Matruglio, 2013, p. 55). Dreyfus and Macnaught (2013) argue that joint text construction enables teachers to "use their expert knowledge of texts to carefully mediate students' contributions and provide supportive explicit feedback" (Dreyfus & Macnaught, 2013, p. 79) and affords a negotiated space in which "students receive explicit guidance and have the opportunity to initiate interaction as questions arise" (Dreyfus & Macnaught, 2013, p. 79). Thus, joint text construction mediates what the students have explored in text deconstruction and the reproduction of similar genres in independent text construction. This interactive process also facilitates "the shared negotiation of meaning-making in specific contexts of use" (Dreyfus & Macnaught, 2013, p. 79). Thus, joint text construction reinforces or strengthens what the students have learned in the text deconstruction. This central role of interaction contributes to language development in that instances of language use are negotiated between the teacher and the students.

The last stage of text based language pedagogy is Independent Construction of Text. The learners work on their own texts as they undergo socially-staged processes of text construction, such as outlining, drafting, conferencing, editing and publishing. In the Independent Construction of Text, students can work individually or collaboratively with their peers (Widodo, 2006). The entire text based language pedagogy can be presented in the following figure.

Figure 2.6 *The Teaching and Learning Cycle*

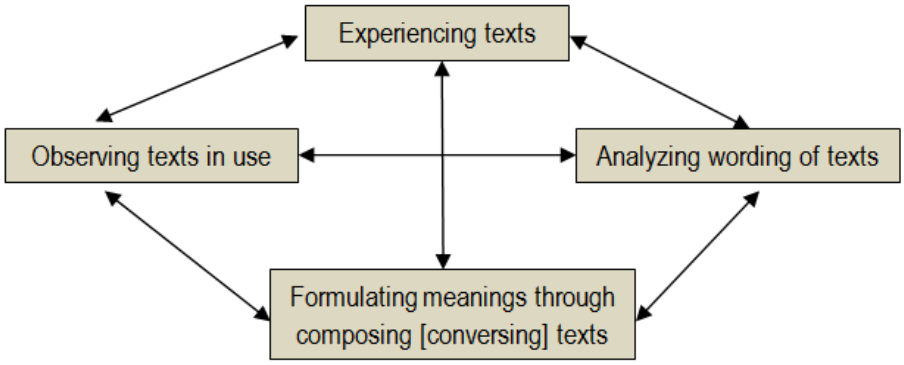


(Rothery & Stenglin, 1994, p. 8)

In addition to this text based language pedagogy model, Mickan (2013a, 2014) adds that text based language pedagogy is designed or constructed around the texts of social practices. The goal of this pedagogy is geared to unpack social practices couched in texts, social purposes of texts, and meanings of the texts. This accentuates how language pedagogy addresses language as a means of

socialization, in which language, text, context of situation, and context of culture intermingle each other. Mickan (2013a) proposes a framework for working with texts for meaning making in context. The framework includes a series of activities such as observing texts in use, experiencing texts, analyzing wording of texts, and formulating meanings through composing and [conversing texts].

Figure 2.7 *Working with Texts for Meaning Making*



(Taken from Mickan, 2013, p. 54)

Mickan's (2013a) framework for working with texts emphasizes how teachers engage students in meaning making through working on text-rich activities and text construction/production. It also accentuates how language awareness through text observation, experience, and analysis can be a springboard for text construction as a social practice, in which the ultimate goal is to make meanings through social practices. The present study attempts to give an empirical account of how the two models of text based language instruction as discussed earlier could contribute to students' language learning. It also expands the application of text based language instruction to different text-based activities (e.g., extensive reading and summary writing, see Chapter 6).

2.10 Previous Studies on ELT Materials Evaluation, Design, and Development

In this section, I firstly summarize what has been studied in the area of ELT materials evaluation, design, and development. I also review empirical studies into materials design, use, and evaluation in the area of ESP materials, and spells out what is missing in the previous studies.

Considerable empirical research has been conducted on ELT materials. Previous studies in this area have examined different aspects of materials, including the application of theory to practice and practice to theory (Tomlinson, 2012). Extensive lines of empirical research focus on the use of textbooks (see Savova, 2009), evaluation of EFL textbooks (see Takahashi, 2014; Xiong & Qian, 2012), teachers' beliefs in the use of materials (textbooks) in language classrooms (see Zacharias, 2005), teacher and learner reactions to ESP/ELT materials (see Huang, Cheng, & Chern, 2006;

Wolf, 2013), cultural values in ELT materials (see Tajeddin & Teimournezhad, 2015), roles of textbooks (see Leung & Andrews, 2012), gender and ELT textbooks (see Lee, 2014), students' reactions to different methods of ELT textbook use (see Rowland & Barrs, 2013), the impacts of authentic and local language materials on student language learning (see Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2010), students' reactions' to classroom materials and their use (see Harwood, 2010), selection and use of ESP materials (see Wette, 2011); the trialing of published textbooks (see Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013), teachers' decision-making in the designing of ESP materials (see, Kuzborska, 2011), and the authenticity of textbook topics, texts, and situations (see Chan, 2013; Clavel-Arroitia & Fuster-Márquez, 2014; Siegel, 2014). In spite of this growing body of research into language materials development, a handful of research on ESP materials focuses on the vocational education sector.

To begin with, Su (2009) reported a case study on the design and implementation of content based English for hospitality purposes syllabus and materials. The study was situated at the Taiwanese vocational college context. Drawing on proficiency test data, 33 juniors and 49 seniors, majoring in culinary arts and bakery technology and management, improved their English proficiency. Questionnaire data reveal that the syllabus and textbooks met students' ESP learning needs for their future employment. The students found the materials useful in promoting student-centered language learning. To conclude, content based ESP instruction assisted the students improve their language ability and engaged them in language-oriented, skills-based, and learning-centered activities. It also worked well in technical English language education in Taiwan.

In a survey study of the use of English textbooks for teaching English to vocational Students in Singapore Secondary Schools, Lee and Bathmaker (2007) report on teachers' beliefs in the use of the textbooks. A semi-structured questionnaire was used to examine factors influencing teachers' perceptions on the roles the textbook plays in language teaching and learning. The data show that institution and classroom factors have a significant impact on how the teachers use their textbooks. The institutional and classroom factors include the demands of meeting the stipulated pass rate in English examinations and students' cognitive weakness and behavioral problems. In the study, most of the teachers used not only the prescribed textbooks but also commercially produced and self-developed materials as supplementary teaching materials. Of these types of materials, self-developed materials had the highest frequency of use. The teachers adapted the content of the textbooks in order to meet the learning needs of their students. In line with previous studies, Lee and Bathmaker conclude that teachers' theoretical beliefs influence instructional practices, including the

use of textbooks. They also call for the implementation of a more vocationally-oriented English curriculum including materials.

What is missing in the previous studies includes:

- Despite the importance of materials in a range of ELT situations, there has been little classroom based research on the use of materials and their roles play in the entire processes of language pedagogies (except Banegas, 2013; Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013). Relatively little information is currently available about design, use, and evaluation processes that follow directly from locally based materials development projects.
- Very few research reports have been published on what teachers and learners actually do with materials in the classroom (except Widodo, 2015)
- Few studies focus on close investigation into the relationship between materials and the totality of the classroom experience (except Guerrettaz & Jonston, 2013; Wette, 2011).
- Scanty attention has been paid to looking at how school administrators, students, and teachers engage in the design of language materials.

The present study attempts to fill these gaps and paint a comprehensive documentation of the design, use, and evaluation of vocational English (VE) materials, which take the form of lesson units, student created materials, and pedagogical practices implemented over a period of 13 months.

CHAPTER 3

Research Context and Methods

This chapter describes the research approach and design adopted in the present study. It also provides justifications for adopting ethnographic participatory action research (PAR) for epistemological and pragmatic purposes. This research design guided how data were collected through the entire research process. I also describe the process of gaining and negotiating access to the field site. Understanding the research context and negotiating the access is the key to building trust and close relationship with the research participants because at the start of doing fieldwork I was an outsider in an uncharted territory. The research participants and their profiles are also described. The chapter details research procedures and data collection methods as well as qualitative data analysis. In other words, it provides contextual and methodological accounts of the present study.

3.1 Research Design

The research questions examined pedagogical curriculum processes (the context analysis), the design of vocational English (VE) materials, the use of the materials, and English teachers' and students' perspectives and experiences of the entire VE materials development inside and outside language classrooms. These questions open up a qualitative inquiry inasmuch as the study examined non-hypothetical questions and naturally occurring phenomena as well as attempted to understand multiple constructions of meanings and knowledge situated in a school setting (Stake, 2010). With these arguments in mind, qualitative research methodology was adopted because it cast light on individuals' understandings, meanings, and experiences (Kingsley, Phillips, Townsend, & Henderson-Wilson, 2010). This qualitative approach also allowed the researcher the flexibility to discover novel or unanticipated findings. Additionally, it gave more space for exploring meaning making of human experience and making sense of the world around them.

This study sits at the intersection between theory and practice (known as praxis). This pedagogical practice was transformational action, aimed at changing the way language materials were designed and used. Epistemologically, the present study was grounded in poststructuralist, interpretative, participatory, and critical traditions because central to the study was participants' engagement in research processes as social practice and

community of practice because this engagement involved learning by doing and collaboration in order to attain shared goals. The engagement of the participants was participatory because they were involved in three recurring stages: inquiry, action, and reflection (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2005). In this study, ethnographic PAR design was adopted; two research approaches; ethnography and action research served as the basis for the whole research design. The thrust of the study aligns with Kemmis, McTaggart, and Nixon's (2014, p. 2) argument that "action research itself is a social practice, a practice-changing practice, which cannot ignore the theoretical terrain that might help participants to work from a critically informed perspective on social life." Kemmis, McTaggart, and Nixon further emphasize that action research was aimed at "changing people's practices, their understandings of their practices, and the conditions under which their practices are carried out" (p. 51). Following these arguments, language materials development in this study was a way to change how teachers' creation and use of language materials, their understandings of this development, and the conditions under which this curriculum practice was carried out. This development also aimed to impact how students used and experienced the materials as part of their learning journey.

There are some other arguments for the amalgamation of ethnography and PAR. Ethnographic PAR methodology emphasizes proposed actions as a social process, which evolves over time. By including ethnography, PAR is viewed as a naturalistic endeavor, which seeks to "describe a human community or culture, built up of the subjective meanings and perspectives of those people participating in the culture" (Reeves, 2010, p. 315). Both ethnography and PAR involve developmental processes and share the same purposes: investigating everyday experience and looking at the development of living knowledge (Reason & Bradbury, 2001). Empirically, the current study documented how teachers and students engaged in pedagogical curriculum development activities (e.g., navigating, selecting, creating, and using pedagogical texts) on a regular basis. Both the research participants and the researcher jointly constructed or generated the data. This collaboration in research processes was a catalyst for the pursuit of knowledge building and pedagogical innovation/change alike. It also allowed for closing the gulf between researcher and the researched.

The ethnographic PAR allowed the researcher to develop in-depth understanding of local project routines and to have a nuanced understanding of how both the research participants

and the researcher interacted with each other on a daily basis. Because ethnographic PAR involves observing (seeing, asking, and listening) and reflecting (making sense of phenomena studied), it requires long-term engagement to see such social phenomena in depth. Therefore, the researcher served as a facilitator in the change process while the research participants played roles as co-collaborators in order to promote empowerment by increasing opportunities for both the teachers and the students to make decisions affecting their own teaching and learning lives. With this in mind, ethnographic PAR is a learning process, helping the participants shape the ways they understand and interpret their world as well as interact with others and the world and make it possible for them to do these things (Kemmis, McTaggart, & Nixon, 2014).

The term, *intervention*, is common in action research from a positivist perspective, but in the current study, it is conceptualized as "collaboratively engage change in the lives of participants. It is carried off in an egalitarian, critical, self-reflective manner making sure that participants experience autonomy and empowerment in the decisions affecting their own lives" (Dennis, 2009, p. 133). Thus, ethnographic PAR becomes a form of a longitudinal qualitative study, which informs a reflexive analysis of the practice or classroom life (O'Reilly, 2012), where pedagogical materials were implemented. This allowed for thick description of data through continual and extended observation and reflection. Relatively prolonged engagement with both teachers and students in their everyday encounters and active participation as a member of the social group allowed the researcher to capture multiple realities (Walters, 2007).

Thus, in this study, ethnographic PAR was an investigative tool for documenting a detailed account of processes, practices, and experiences of the design and use of VE materials over a period of 13 months through which these social phenomena and processes were understood within broader social, historical, and cultural contexts. This investigative undertaking required access to the field.

3.2 Research Context

Understanding a research context along with social actors is one of the key issues in qualitative research. Self-immersion in the field as a site of engagement helped me as outsider and researcher understand the nature of a community of practice and the ways actors in the community interacted with each other. This contextual information could

provide me with an understanding of the dynamics of the situation before the research actually commenced (Oliver, 2010). The present study was conducted in a vocational high school located in the eastern part of East Java. The school got different ethnic groups such as Javanese, Madurese, Balinese, Chinese, Arabs, and Buginese. This school was purposefully chosen for five main reasons.

Firstly, the school offers specializations that strike a balance between vocational competency and English competency. These specializations include computer engineering, accounting, and hotel hospitality and management. Students are expected to attend on-the-job training and work in internationally-certified firms or institutions where English is used at work. Secondly, I obtained entry access to this school because the project was relevant to the vision and mission of the school: preparing students for vocational English (VE) (The School Annual Report, 2012). The school initiated English language programs, which were relevant to students' vocational competences. In addition, since 2004, the Government of Indonesia has encouraged vocational high schools to prepare their students to have a sufficient command of English (The School Accreditation Report, 2011). This English ability helps students compete with others for either an academic career or a professional career. Investigation into VE materials development on a secondary education level remains scarce because most of the vocational secondary schools use commercially published or mandated textbooks. The school was positive about this research project believing that the English teachers could learn a lot from it, particularly the design of VE materials (as reported in Chapter 5). This could be part of teacher professional development (For more details, see Chapter 5). Fourthly, this school is nationally accredited, and it has institutional collaboration with companies or institutions where English is used at work. Lastly, I was quite familiar with the context and development of vocational education in Indonesia because as pointed out earlier in Chapter 1, I was a student of a vocational secondary school and even taught in different vocational secondary schools. This experience assisted me to easily adapt to the sociocultural dimensions of the school. In other words, understanding the context of research on both micro and macro levels enabled me to position myself as the researcher and member of the school community.

The school was established in 1967 and is currently ISO certified and offered the following main areas of vocation: management and business, information technology, and tourism. Each of these areas had specializations such as office administration, accounting,

marketing, software engineering, computer network engineering, multimedia, and hotel hospitality and management. Each of the specializations was equipped with computer laboratories and workshops. Like other vocational secondary schools in Indonesia, the school emphasized the use of a competency framework, in which students were expected to have both vocational competencies and additional or supporting competencies, including computer literacy and English. To achieve this goal, the school offered three categories of subjects: *normative*, *adaptive*, and *productive* as spelled out in the school based curriculum or *Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Sekolah* (KTSP). Each of the categories of subjects had different goals, including

- Normative subjects focusing on building students' good personality/characters, attitudes, and motivations.
- Adaptive subjects preparing students for being able to adapt to any changing social environments.
- Productive subjects equipping students with sufficient vocational competencies.

Thus, the school provided students with normative, adaptive, and productive (vocational) competencies. In particular, English falls within the remit of an adaptive subject. This indicates that English plays an important role in preparing students for an increasingly globalized environment or becoming global citizens (Lim, 2008), where the language serves as a tool for human social and knowledge mobility or as a lingua franca in social, academic, and professional encounters (Mackenzie, 2014). This goal was clearly articulated in the vision and mission of the school.

In terms of human resources, the school employed 54 general and vocational subject teachers, 6 English teachers, and 23 administrative staff. Both the teachers and the administrative staff were government employees with 3 to 25 years of service. Both general subject teachers and vocational subject teachers had subject based teacher professional development groups. These groups consisted of a teacher leader or coordinator and members. A teacher leader coordinated school-level teacher professional development activities such as syllabus and materials design, instructional design, assessment and evaluation design, and other curriculum tasks. English teachers in particular worked jointly on lesson preparation, delivery, and evaluation. They were also members of a local professional development group, *Musyarawah Guru Mata Pelajaran* (*MGMP*) *Bahasa Inggris*. This group met at least on a monthly basis in order to share curriculum materials,

teaching experience, and pedagogical and assessment issues (Widodo & Riandi, 2013). Sometimes, the group invited a teacher educator or teacher trainer from a neighboring university to give a talk or do a workshop on issues in ELT. In addition to a local teacher development group, a regional teacher development group exists at a provincial level consisting of representative English teachers based in each of the provinces (e.g., East Java, West Java, Central Java, Jakarta). This teacher development group was established based on a school subject (e.g., English) and vocational area (e.g., tourism). Because the school falls within such vocational areas as tourism, business management, and technology, the English teacher participants have engaged in professional learning with other teachers who teach groups of students majoring in these vocations. Upon the completion of the study, I had a chance to share the findings of the study with this group through two language teacher workshops in two counties: Banyuwangi and Pasuruan. Thus, *MGMP* provides a platform for teachers to engage in professional learning through sharing pedagogical content knowledge and experience with each other.

With regard to instructional facilities, the school had a Wi-Fi connection, so all school community members could access the Internet. Each of the classrooms was equipped with an LCD projector. This was used for presenting teacher materials and student work. The school library also got a number of vocational subject related collections written in English. These collections complemented those written in Bahasa Indonesia, and these learning resources allowed students to enrich their vocational knowledge. In other words, teaching and learning resources were sufficiently available at school.

For school admission, prospective students were annually recruited based on a school entrance examination. This examination included two series of tests: a written test (general subjects) and an interview test (student area of vocation). Students were grouped into offered specializations, for which they opted in the first year. Each of the classes consisted of between 25 students and 35 students. The nature of instruction embraces both theory and practice. For example, students, majoring in hotel hospitality and management, attended formal classroom instruction, and they also practiced hotel reception-related work in a mini hotel laboratory. Moreover, all the students underwent an on-the-job training or internship program in a relevant company or institution. This program aimed to complement students' vocational competencies gained in the school and immerse them in a real-life

work environment. This program ran for one semester (6 months), scheduled in the second year (Term 1).

Concerning the official status of English, this language is a compulsory school subject, and it is a foreign language that students have to learn as one of the curriculum requirements. In addition, English is a required subject included in a high-stakes examination called *Ujian Nasional* (the National Examination). Majors such as hotel hospitality and management, computer engineering, and accounting particularly required students to have sufficient command of English both spoken English and written English in order to strengthen their vocational competencies and to be able to read vocational textbooks written in English. Therefore, the design and use of VE materials attempted to cater to this need among others (For more details, see Chapter 5).

3.3 Gaining and Negotiating Access to the Field Site

Conducting formal research in an organization such as a school requires access negotiation with school administrators as gatekeepers who control access to the site and who are social actors participating in, affecting relations of powers, and have the authority to decide if a researcher is permitted to carry out the research project (Crowhurst, 2013). In this study, the gatekeepers were school administrators. In the Indonesian context, school administrators include a school principal and four main vice school principals: (1) curriculum affairs, (2) student affairs, (3) human resources, (4) facilities and infrastructure. These gatekeepers also mediated access between the participants and my role as a researcher. With this access negotiation, I aimed to initiate a rapport building process from the first encounter with the participants in order to build a research relationship that allowed me to access to participants' lives (Dickson-Swift, James, Kippen, & Liamputtong, 2007). To build a closer relationship and trust as well as develop a rapport, I had to stay for an extended period of time (13 months). This extended immersion allowed me to impact the scene for the better while involved in the research. The study involved multi-layered processes, so it was "actually based on a complex mosaic of interactions in which approaches towards ethical guidelines become fluid and variable" (Levinson, 2010, p. 194). Thus, gaining access was an ongoing process, negotiated at each level or tier of contact throughout the fieldwork.

Initially, I met up with a vice school principal and communicated my fieldwork to him in late April 2012. He was my initial contact and I hoped that he could facilitate access to

prospective participants by endorsing my research project (Crowhurst, 2013). This official endorsement was the first step in gaining access to both the site and the participants. To inform him of my research project, I detailed how the project would benefit teachers, students, and the school. Despite this, the vice school principal told me that he would consult the research proposal with the school principal and an English teacher coordinator. He said "Kami akan diskusikan kemungkinan dan manfaat penelitian Bapak dengan kepala sekolah dan koordinator guru Bahasa Inggris karena kegiatan ini melibatkan banyak pihak. Selain itu, Kami ingin Bapak benar-benar diterima di sekolah Kami sebagai anggota keluarga sekolah" [we would discuss the possibility of working with you and potential benefits of your research with the school principal and the English teacher coordinator because we would involve some parties in your research. In addition, we would like you to become part of our school community] (personal communication, initial meeting, 23 April 2012). This communication implies that the school did not quickly place trust in me as an outsider. I did not have any connection with the school before, but my confidence was that the research project would benefit the school because vocational English (VE) materials development was part of school based curriculum innovation. In addition, the phrase, *to become part of our school community*, indicates that the school wished me to play a role as an insider.

In the first meeting, the vice school principal was seen as a gatekeeper who could help or hinder the proposed research project, depending on his personal thoughts or beliefs in the usefulness of the research. Following the initial meeting, he asked me to meet up with the school principal and the English teacher coordinator after he communicated the project to them. Negotiating access with the school administrators as gatekeepers does not necessarily mean seeking legitimization of exploiting the researched. This is because I was fully aware that a school is a socio-cultural site, which consists of diverse groups "made up of individuals, and the interests of the group do not necessarily converge with those of the individuals that constitute it" (Levinson, 2010, p. 205). A week after my initial contact with the vice school principle, I met with them, and they had a look at the proposal and talked about the feasibility of the research. In this meeting, we discussed and negotiated groups of students with whom I would work. Both the school administrators and the teacher suggested that students in the second year cohort (Term 2) be research participants for four main reasons. The first reason is that they just finished undergoing on-the-job training, so they

had work experience in a company or an institution. They would provide relevant and useful input for the needs of English at work. Second, the students had sufficient vocational knowledge, which could be facilitative of learning vocational English (VE). The third reason is that first-year students focused on learning English for general purposes (EGP) in order to provide them with foundational English skills. Another reason is that because the project would run for a year, the school administrators wanted this project to have an impact on students' learning and on teachers' professional development. For these reasons, the school administrators, the teacher coordinator, and I agreed to choose Year-2 students. We proceeded to arrange a meeting for student participant recruitment.

Negotiating access to the site recognizes the fact that a school is viewed as an educational institution that has norms that I needed to follow. This negotiation built a more reciprocal researcher-researched relationship and humanized the research participants as co-constructors of knowledge during the fieldwork, and they were the actual actors who engaged in the entire research process (Oliver, 2010).

3.4 Participant Recruitment and Participant Profiles

With the help of the school administrators, I convened three meetings with the student participants and the teacher participants to detail the research project ethically approved by The Human Research Ethics Review Board, discuss informed consent, and distribute consent forms (Appendixes A, B, and C). These documents were written in Bahasa Indonesian at an appropriate language level to ensure full understanding of the research project regarding benefits, risks, and feasibilities. I also asked the student participants to obtain consent from their parents or guardians that they would participate in the research project. I also emphasized that their participation was fully voluntary; the participants had to be informed about their rights not to take part in the research if they did not wish to and that a withdrawal would not have deliberately negative consequences for them (Beach & Eriksson, 2010). Ethically speaking, research information sheets and consent form served as legal and written documents to ensure that the research participants were given access to sufficient and appropriate information about the investigation and its aims and purposes. This pre-study briefing meeting informed prospective participants of the research project including the research focus, goals, and objectives, the benefits or expected contributions to

prospective participants, the levels of engagement; and the fieldwork timelines (Sales & Lavin, 2000).

Equally important, the research participants and I discussed the storage and use of research data during and after the fieldwork. This negotiation and discussion did not attempt to persuade them to participate for the sake of the research, but to ensure the data were representative and accessed all relevant groups of participants (Tyldum, 2012). As a whole, the research project followed ethical guidelines from different perspectives as suggested by Flinders (as cited in Beach & Eriksson, 2010, p. 135). Here is a list of the ethical guidelines from Flinders that were followed in this study:

Table 3.1 *Ethical Guidelines*

	Utilitarian	Deontological	Relational	Ecological
Recruitment	Informed consent	Reciprocity	Collaboration	Cultural sensitivity
Fieldwork	Avoidance of harm	Avoidance of wrong	Avoidance of imposition	Avoidance of detachment
Reporting	Confidentiality	Fairness	Confirmation	Responsive communication

Central to the study were engagement and collaboration in order to build a stronger relationship between the participants and me as a researcher. Purposive sampling was, therefore, used to recruit participants (Creswell, 2012). As stated earlier, this participant recruitment was based on ethical protocols to ensure that participant autonomy to make a decision on whether to participate was recognized. Four groups of the research participants are categorized below.

Table 3.2 *A List of Participants*

Participants	Ages	Number
1. School administrators	55-60	2
2. English teachers	34-55	6
3. Vocational subject teachers	28-36	3
4. Students:		
- Hotel hospitality and management	16-17	57
- Accounting	16-17	57
- Computer engineering	16-17	28

At the time of the fieldwork, the school administrators, a school principal and a vice school principal for curriculum affairs had managed the school since 2007. They held Masters in education, and they were senior teachers who had been teaching at the school for more than 25 years. They witnessed the development of the school since its inception in 1968. They also successfully got the school to be nationally standardized and certified to ISO's management system standards (ISO 9001: 2000 and 9001: 2008). In 2008, under the management of the in-service school administrators, the school was selected to become a fledging international standard school. This type of school could offer English medium instruction, but this program ceased in early 2013 because this instruction was criticized for a lack of subject teachers other than English teachers who were competent in English and students' low English proficiency (see Zacharias, 2013). Despite this, the school administrators still encouraged teachers to optimize the use of English through bilingual instruction (Bahasa Indonesia and English). The school administrators demonstrated exemplary school management performance. The school administrators were recruited to provide policy-level information to allow the researcher to better understand school programs that supported the design and implementation of English language curriculum.

6 English teachers participated in this study. Here is a profile of the teachers.

Table 3.3 *A List of Teacher Participants*

Participants (Pseudonyms)	Age	Years of Teaching	Level of Education	Languages Spoken	TOEFL Scores (ITP)
ANI	34	10	Bachelor in Education	Bahasa Indonesia and Javanese	550
JEK	51	20	Masters in Education	Bahasa Indonesia and Javanese	500
KES	40	10	Masters in Education	Bahasa Indonesia and Javanese	520
POL	36	10	Masters in Education	Bahasa Indonesia, Madurese, and Javanese	580
SOL	60	20	Masters in Education	Bahasa Indonesia and Javanese	500
WID	45	15	Masters in Education	Bahasa Indonesia and Javanese	520

All the English teachers received formal and informal training in English language curriculum. Five English teachers except ANI were government full-timers, and they were certified teachers. This teacher certification was awarded by teacher education institutions. In the current policy on the national teacher certification, teachers should participate in this certification through teaching portfolio assessment or a teacher training program hosted by 23 appointed teacher education institutes throughout Indonesia. This national certification scheme aims to improve teacher quality and welfare (Jalal, Samani, Chang, Stevenson, Ragatz, & Negara, 2009). The teacher participants engaged in a local teacher professional group called *Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran* (*MGMP*), and they attended relevant professional training. However, none of the English teachers attended training particularly in ESP materials design. For this reason, the project assisted them with the design of ESP materials in the context of vocational education. The project was also part of professional learning or teacher professional development at a school level.

Three vocational subject teachers were part-timers at the time of the fieldwork, but two of whom served as a program coordinator. They attended vocational training and were involved in on-the-job training or internship programs. These three vocational subject teachers were competent in English, Bahasa Indonesia, and Javanese. They received vocational certification. This certification shows vocational qualifications. They were also responsible for running both English medium instruction and English medium practica. The teachers held Bachelor of Social Sciences, but they were well-versed in vocational knowledge and had vocational competencies certified by the Indonesian Association of Vocational Teachers. They engaged in vocational teachers' development groups locally and regionally. One of the vocational teachers was an editorial member of vocational certification at a provincial level. These teachers were recruited because they had a solid knowledge of vocational content or fields, which provided useful input for the selection of vocational topics and texts.

The student participants received formal English instruction for 11 years, and their English ability ranged from elementary to intermediate based on TOEIC paper based placement test (The Test of English for International Communication). Annually, all the students had to sit for this examination. When the fieldwork commenced, these students were in the second year (Term 2, Grade XI). All the students were competent in two languages: Bahasa Indonesia (national lingua franca) and one of the local languages (e.g., Javanese,

Madurese, Balinese). Some of the students were competent in Javanese, Madurese, and Bahasa Indonesia. They were brought up in social environments where society members had diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Major local languages such as Javanese, Osing, Balinese, and Madurese were spoken in Banyuwangi. The students came from families with different socio-economic backgrounds (e.g., government employees, merchants, farmers, teachers, entrepreneurs, casual workers).

Over a period of 13 months in the field, I interacted with all the groups of participants on a daily basis (from Mondays to Saturdays: from 6:45 am to 2:30 pm) in that these interactions were school curriculum activities. Thus, the recruited administrators, the teachers, and the students were the most appropriate participants "who best represent or have knowledge of the research topic" (Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson, & Spiers, 2002, p. 18) and who "represent the important characteristics that [the researcher] consider of interest to the study" (Williamson, 2006, p. 87).

3.5 Research Procedures and Data Collection Methods

The development of Vocational English (VE) materials was integral to the school's regular curriculum. The nature of the project was staged, collaborative, and process oriented because both the research participants and I (as both an outsider and researcher) and an insider (participating in curriculum renewal in the school) engaged in the process together. As an insider, I assumed different roles as co-teacher, materials co-developer, teacher trainer and consultant, and student tutor. Each of the roles was constructed, negotiated, and developed within the research context (Brockmann, 2011). In each interaction, my role was determined to some extent by the particular institutional and learning cultures and by what my participants believed to be the purpose of my presence in the school community. This suggests that my presence in the field was not only to collect data for the sake of the research, but also to contribute my expertise to the teachers, the students, and the school. These are the key features of critical-emancipatory ethnographic PAR (Kemmis, McTaggart, & Nixon, 2014)

Insider-outsider positioning helped me engage in two enterprises: pedagogical practice and research as an investigative enterprise. This positioning played dual roles as a practitioner (putting theory into practice) and as a researcher (making sense of theory-driven practice) (Kemmis, 2009). In addition, I involved the English teachers in playing these roles. The

nature of my relationship with them was collaborative. The arguments for this collaborative relationship are that the English teachers had to be empowered to contribute to the development of knowledge through theory-driven practice, and that they were the authorities of pedagogic practice on a daily basis. This collaboration is viewed as "both a reciprocal and recursive venture where [we worked] together to achieve a shared aim by sharing the learning experience, knowledge and expertise" (Bevins & Price, 2014, p. 271). Throughout the processes of both pedagogical practice and investigative practice, the participants and I built a community of practice, which recognized mutual engagement; a joint enterprise; and a shared repertoire (Wenger, 1998).

Spanning 13 months, with regard to pedagogical practice, there were two cycles of actions taken, including (1) the use of lesson units along with literature or reading circles and (2) extensive reading and reading logs with oral presentation. All these pedagogical practices implemented were based on the context analysis and negotiation between the teachers, the students, and the researcher. Before the start of the negotiated intervention, the researcher explored the existing situation in order to understand pedagogical curriculum guidelines, classroom realities, and characteristics of teachers and students (see Chapter 4). The current research project grounded in negotiated intervention proceeded through cycles of inquiry, negotiation, action, and reflection between the teacher, the students, and the researcher (see Chapter 5).

In terms of investigative practice, both the research participants and I as the researcher collaborated in generating data throughout four cycles of the research: (1) context analysis, (2) materials design, (3) materials use, and (4) reflection on the entire materials use. Empirical data were garnered from different methods in four cycles of the research project listed in Table 3.4 (Appendix D). Following the table, justifications for deploying these methods are presented.

Table 3.4 *Types of Data Collection Methods*

Timelines	Cycles	Data Collection Methods	Actors Involved/Artifacts
April-July 2012	**1**	Field notes, non-participant observations, documentation, focus groups, interviews	English teachers, the researcher, students, vocational subject teachers, curriculum documents, and student works
August-September 2012	**2**	Documentation, field notes, reflective journals/diaries	English teachers, vocational subject teachers, the researcher, curriculum documents, and student works
September-December 2012	**3**	Participant observations, photovoices, reflective journals, field notes	English teachers, students, the researcher
January-March 2013	**3**	Participant observations, photovoices, reflective journals, field notes	English teachers, students, the researcher
April-May 2013	**4**	Focus groups, interviews, photovoices, reflective journals, students' written works	English teachers, school administrators, students, the researcher, vocational subject teachers

1. Non-participant observations

Non-participant observations were used to examine classroom life (e.g., the use of the materials) that I did not know before. Even though I got access to the field and negotiated this access with the school community members, in the beginning, I took on non-participant positioning in observing classroom realities (e.g., teacher-student and student-student interactions). Before observing English lessons, the teachers introduced me to the students and told them why I was in the class. I realized that the participants had to know my role as an observer or an outsider from the start in order to establish a close relationship with members of the classroom community. As an outsider, I sat at the back of the classroom in

order to watch and record how the teachers and students used the textbooks and other materials. This positioning attempted to avoid obtrusiveness while looking at how the teachers and the students interacted with each other and with curriculum resources, such as textbooks, worksheets, and technological tools. I was fully aware that due to the presence of the researcher and any recording device (Labov, 1972), the teachers and the students might behave differently, such as changing their natural behavior, disguising their actions, and altering the way they interacted because they might wish to please the researcher (the Hawthorne effect or the *observer's paradox*). Therefore, I did not use portable video recorders to capture classroom life, but I took notes to avoid the observer's paradox. Another reason for taking on an outsider position is that I wished to build trust and relationship with the teachers and the students as insiders.

I observed English classes on a daily basis. I conducted multiple observations for 3 months from early May and Mid July 2012. Once the research participants were accustomed to my presence, I asked permission for using a portable video recorder to capture closer classroom life. At the outset, the teachers objected to the use of this equipment. To convince them of using this equipment, I did not evaluate how they taught and how the students performed. Finally, both the teachers and the students granted me permission for the use of video recording in June 2012. The goals of this video recorded classroom observation were to capture classroom life in detail and explore issues that happened in the classroom and how the teachers and the students interacted with each other and with materials, as well as to document a portrait of the classroom community of practice (Creswell, 2012). These data were used for collaborative reflection when designing language materials at a later stage. Spanning 3 months, I was allowed to observe English classes 12 times though I visited the school on a daily basis to establish a closer personal relationship with the teachers, the students, and other school community members. Thus, I played a role as a non-participant observer who was physically present with the research participants in classrooms as naturalistic settings. Through prolonged self-immersion in the school, the research participants familiarized themselves with my presence gradually.

2. Participant observations

After 3 months spent being a non-participant observer and when rapport was developed, I switched to being a participant observer in the school setting. To learn more about any on-going events at the research site, I became involved in pedagogical curriculum activities to see experiences from the views of the participants. The central idea of participation was to delve into the experiences of social actors in the classroom and in the school. Taking on an insider position as a participant observer put me as a researcher in a vantage position as a member of the school community. At the stage of materials use, participant observations aimed to look closely at how the teachers and I as a co-teacher interacted with the students, in what ways the students interacted with their peers, and how they interacted with lesson units and other materials as resources for meaning making inside language classrooms. Equally important, as a participant observer, I assumed the role of an insider who recorded empirical information.

Ethically, I obtained permission from and negotiated this role with the research participants. I also sought permission from them to use video and audio recorders because it was difficult to take notes while participating. I was also fully recognizant that the presence of these recorders would exert influence on the behavior of those being studied, making it impossible for me to closely document social phenomena. Therefore, with extended time in the field, my research participants became inured to the presence of the equipment and me as a researcher and behave naturally (Monahan & Fisher, 2010). I video recorded all the classroom interactions over a period of two semesters from September 2012 to March 2013. The classes met twice a week (2 hours and 1.5 hours) for each of the majors: accounting, hotel hospitality and management, and computer engineering. The video recorders were set up at the back and front of the classrooms. In addition, the teachers as my co-researchers also took notes of critical incidents in relation to the use of language materials. Teachers' field notes recorded any in-class interactions (e.g., small group discussions), which were not captured by video recorders; thus, teachers' field notes enriched video recorded data. The video and audio recording of the classroom allowed for descriptive, focused, and selective observations at a post-observation stage because digital technology enhanced the degree of reflexivity and allowed the teacher participants and me to provide a thick or rich description.

3. Curriculum documents and students' works

I examined different curriculum documents or materials known as artifacts before the English teachers and I designed lesson units and pedagogical practices. Curriculum materials are "'social facts', which are produced, shared, and used in socially organised ways" (Atkinson & Coffey, as cited in Bowen, 2009, p. 27). Key curriculum documents under close scrutiny included the national curriculum guidelines, syllabi, lesson plans, textbooks, test papers, and student worksheets. These documents were meditational tools for facilitating pedagogic practices in the school domain (Grossman & Thompson, 2008) and contained systems of values, beliefs, and ideologies, shaping instructional practices on which both the teachers and the students worked. They are natural texts (words and images) archivally recorded without a researcher's intervention. The curriculum materials are also resources for data rigor (thick description) in ways that support other data gleaned from interviews, field notes, and observations. In addition to curriculum documents, students' works (what the students generated and what texts the students worked on) provided richer data. These artifacts depicted students' ability discourses. I asked permission from the students to copy samples of their works.

4. Focus groups and interviews

I formally and informally interviewed the research participants and convened focus groups in order to explore their stories as lived experience in school-based curriculum (policy, pedagogy, and assessment) practices. The nature of both the focus groups and interviews was conversational and informal so that the research participants felt free to express their beliefs, values, opinions, and experiences in relation to their engagement in school-based curriculum (SBC) practices. Each round of the focus groups and interviews ran for 30-45 minutes. My interactions with the research participants in the focus groups and interviews continued in informal talks in the school canteen, during school recess, in the teacher room, and on FB chats. In this way, I was fully informed of the social psychology of the research participants and became a familiar person in the life of the school. Both the focus groups and the interviews were video and audio recorded with the permission of the research participants.

In terms of focus groups, I realized that focus groups allowed me to glean "direct evidence about similarities and differences in the participant's opinions and experiences as opposed

to reaching such conclusions from post hoc analyses of separate statements from each interviewee" (Morgan, 1997, p. 10). I also recognized that shared experience did not equate with shared meaning because individuals interpreted phenomena differently. Thus, the focus groups are the hallmark of meaning co-construction or co-making. In the interview sessions, I prepared questions, which guided this close inquiry in advance. Despite this, there was a great deal of scope for the interviews to follow the research participant agenda, with room to pursue unexpected aspects of information reported by the participants. These interviews explored important insight into the constructed realities or lived experiences of the participants regarding the design and use of the English language curriculum. In the interviews, audio recordings were used to capture or elicit data in greater detail and to facilitate easy and focused transcription as a tool for representing, analyzing, and interpreting talking or verbal data (Widodo, 2014b). The interviews involved three different groups: (1) teachers, (2) school administrators, and (2) students. The reasons for employing group interviewing instead of one-to-one interviewing are that each of the participants complemented each other's information, thereby allowing for collective stories or narratives and for idea sharing in face-to-face interactions, thereby enriching empirical data (Stake, 2010).

5. Field notes

As an educational ethnographer, I wrote field notes as ethnographic texts over 13-month self-immersion at the field site (Kalthoff, 2013). The English teachers served as my co-researchers or research assistants. This role was discussed and negotiated before the design of VE materials commenced. With this role in mind, we jointly wrote field notes. This field note writing was used to describe situations/realities, particular interactions, a chain of critical events, and the researchers' observations, conversations, and reflections (Wolfinger, 2002) particularly when the use of video and audio recordings was not permitted and not possible in order to avoid obtrusiveness and the Observer's paradox. The organization of field notes follows Spradley's (1980) list as follows.

1. *Space*: the physical place or places
2. *Actor*: the people involved
3. *Activity*: a set of related acts people do
4. *Object*: the physical things that are present
5. *Act*: single actions that people do

6. *Event*: a set of related activities that people carry out
7. *Time*: the sequencing that takes place over time
8. *Goal*: the things people are trying to accomplish
9. *Feeling*: the emotions felt and expressed (as cited in Wolfinger, 2002, p. 91)

The field notes were written when negotiating entry to the field, doing non-participant observations, and designing curriculum materials. In addition, both the English teachers and I wrote field notes when we implemented the materials in language classrooms to record critical incidents in the classroom. In this regard, the teachers also helped took field notes particularly in observing in-class activities when I played a role as a co-teacher. These field notes complemented reflective journal and photovoice data.

6. Reflective journals

Reflection is the heart of ethnographic PAR, which serves to understand personal and professional stories as lived experience (Hagevik, Aydeniz, & Rowell, 2012). This reflection is also a tool for action and change because it helps enhance self-awareness of experiences. In this study, to facilitate reflection, the teachers wrote reflective journals as a tool for reflecting on what they experienced in their pedagogical journey and their engagement in the research project. The participant students also wrote a reflective diary as a tool for documenting their learning journey and for increasing awareness of their own learning. As a researcher, I also wrote reflective journals, which documented my interactions with all the research participants and to record my research journey over a period of 13 months. Thus, reflective journals or diaries helped the research participants and me understand our own experiences and practices and become more reflective, critical, and analytical about what we did.

7. Photovoice

Photovoice or photo elicitation (also known as photo novella), a documentary photography from the perspective of visual sociology, is a means of documenting a variety of social activities and settings (Hurworth, 2004). Photovoice, an ethnographic PAR tool, gave the participants and the researcher the opportunity to create and discuss photos as a semiotic mediation of sharing their views, ideas, and experiences. This method was used to glean more information/perspectives or data collected from classroom observations. In addition, it was deployed to depict what the students did when working collaboratively on assigned

activities or tasks outside the classroom. This photovoice could add more information to students' reflective diaries. The use of relevant photographs provided the research participants with visual cues to generate more responses in research interviews and reflective journals. Photovoice as a meta-language tool helped gain deeper insight into participants' actions or social practices (Harper, 2002) and elicit more participants' thoughts, beliefs, values, ideologies, intentions, motivations, and other information that the researcher asked to the research participants. In other words, photovoice was used to make sense of observational data from the perspective of the participants and to afford them the opportunity to express their voices of experiences. Using photovoice engaged the participants in generating data as part of the research process.

Taken together, the entire process of the present study involved four features:

- **Collaboration**: Activities described involved collaboration between school administrators, teachers, students, and the researcher as a resource person.
- **Design process**: The collaborative team activities embraced a design cycle: context analysis, design of lesson units as one of the curriculum materials and instructional design, implementation of the lesson units in practice, and evaluation/reflection on the lesson units. These reflections involved the teachers and the students as the actual actors in the implementation of the lesson units.
- **Curriculum materials**: The collaboration contributed to the remaking and developing of curricular products, such as the national syllabi, lesson plans, modules, and lesson units.
- **Empirical evidence**: The project involved data collection, analysis, and interpretation (making sense of data). Ethically, in the post-study or debriefing session, I informed all the research participants that all the data collected were gathered, analyzed, interpreted, and reported for a PhD dissertation and for publication. In this session, I also reiterated ethical issues regarding data storage and use to avoid conflicts of interest. This debriefing also allowed for member checking and data verification from the participants to maintain information originality (Creswell, 2012) because all the data were co-constructed by the research participants and the researcher. In addition, this member checking and data verification were carried out after the fieldwork in that I could communicate these

issues to the participants via both a Facebook closed discussion group of teachers and students and via Emails.

3.6 Data Analysis: Approaches and Procedures

This section details conceptual approaches to and procedures for analyzing and interpreting the collected data. Grounded in ethnographic PAR, critical, constructive, and interpretative frameworks were deployed to elucidate and make sense of emergent findings of the study. These findings were elaborated or discussed in relation to SFL as social semiotic theory and two pedagogical practices: content based language instruction and text based language instruction per se. In this way, the findings of the study could be interpreted whether they support, complement, add to, or expand on existing theories and previous empirical studies (Creswell, 2012).

1. Analytical approaches

All the data, garnered from (1) classroom observations, (2) focus groups and interviews, (3) field notes, (4) documentation, (5) reflective journals, and (6) photovoice, were integrally presented in the findings and discussion. The nature of the data was interdiscursive because the data could not be created, analyzed, and presented in isolation to paint a thorough picture of social reality or life. The data represented production and reproduction of social reality and involved a representation of knowledge, beliefs, values, voices, interaction or social practice as a meaning making process, use of language as a resource for meaning making, agency, and identity. All these were manifested through texts. In this respect, all the data were viewed as texts. The texts provided a starting point for investigating how social actors engaged in school-based language curriculum practices and how these social actors interacted with curriculum materials as resources for making such practices possible situated in the vocational school domain.

Through language as texts, I came to understand how the “social world is interpreted, understood, experienced, produced, or constituted” (Mason, 2002, p. 3). Grounded in social theory, CDA serves as a tool for interpreting or making sense of the data in the form of wordings socially tied to the context where the data were generated (Martin & Rose, 2003). Selected video-audio, visual, and written data were transcribed (garnered from focus groups and interviews), coded, and analyzed using critical thematic analysis, SFL, and CDA. The

critical thematic analysis was used to critically identify emergent or recurring patterns or themes of findings. The outcomes of the critical thematic analysis provided the basis for closer examination of the data. Both SFL and CDA are seen as both living theories and methods because both provide conceptual and analytical foundations of language in use or language in action. In addition, both recognize what people do with language and how this action represents who they are and how they should behave.

All the data comprised a variety of semiotic meanings, which were a subject of multilayered interpretations. Halliday (1994) argues that "meanings are realized through wordings; and without a theory of wordings—that is, a grammar—there is no way of making explicit one's interpretation of the meaning of a text" (p. xvii). This SFL-informed data analysis is more fine-grained or elucidated than a content analysis because SFL seeks to make explicit how language operates semiotically and serves as a tool for meaning making. SFL recognizes the interplay between meta-function, text, context, and genre. "Halliday's metafunctional perspective of language as a meaning-making system is utilised to investigate the ways in which the participants represent and organise knowledge as well as the impact of their social roles in relation to the negotiation of meanings" (Woodward-Kron & Remedios, 2007, p. 09.4). The data were socially and historically constructed, thereby containing ideology, beliefs, power, identity, agency, dominance, hegemony, and social and cultural processes. These issues are relevant to CDA. Rogers (2011, p. x) maintains that "[t]he CDA framework is grounded in readings of social theory and systemic functional linguistics; it features a three-part scheme of analysis: text (roughly, words and phrasal units), discourse practice (roughly, communicative events and their interpretation), social practice (roughly, society-wide processes)." In addition, interdiscursive analysis in CDA is "informed by a knowledge of how a range of genres, discourses, and styles are used in social practices more generally, and how, in the text in question, they are drawn upon and articulated together" (Hanrahan, 2005, p. 16).

Both SFL and CDA align conceptually with ethnographic PAR because ethnographic PAR seeks to initiate change in practice, to understand social reality, and to seek emancipatory (a post-positivist perspective) rather than technical (a positivist lens) gains (Hanrahan, 2005). Through an epistemological lens, ethnographic PAR recognizes both individual agency and social factors as operating in the reconstruction of language during a particular event situated in a specific social practice. SFL and CDA as analytical tools examined texts,

which represent any social situation, perspectives, or products at all of the micro, intermediate, and macro levels. These critical questions recognize that language is never neutral; it is always “caught up in political, social, racial, economic, religious, and cultural formations” (Rogers, Malancharuvil-Berkes, Mosley, Hui, & Joseph, 2005, p. 369).

In particular, following Rymes’s idea (2008), pedagogical discourse analysis is a way to look at language in use in an educational context. This context embraces a school and classrooms influenced by multiple social contexts beyond and within the educational domain. Pedagogical discourse analysis was a useful tool for examining the nature and enactment of curriculum processes in the school and classroom domains. Both schools and classrooms were sites of meaning construction and negotiation mediated through language between the school administrators, the teachers, and the students, between the teachers and the students, between the students and their peers, between the teachers and curriculum materials, and between the students and the curriculum materials as semiotic resources. All these perspectives of the educational actors were intertwined.

2. Procedures for data analysis

Data analysis embraced two main layers of critical, constructive, and interpretative data analysis: (1) critical thematic analysis and (2) textual analysis using SFL and CDA. All the original data were generated in English and Bahasa Indonesia. The research participants had the rights to use the language that they felt comfortable and confident (Murray & Wynne, 2001) so that they could generate rich and relevant data (Bashiruddin, 2013). Bashiruddin (2013) suggested an essence approach to translation when translating qualitative data into another language such as English. The approach focuses on translating the gist of data; a translating task is a meaning making process. The data in Bahasa Indonesia were translated into English for closer analysis. Regarding acts of translation, I served as a translator along with three English teachers because the four of us are competent in Bahasa Indonesia and English. Another reason is that we are familiar with the knowledge of the people and of the context under study (Chen & Boore, 2009). The translated version of the data was checked by the participants to ensure the meanings of the data. This member checking aimed to maintain the trustworthiness of the data. Due to space limitations, most of the data are presented in English, and some data are presented in Bahasa Indonesia and English throughout this thesis monograph.

a. The critical thematic analysis

To categorize all the data, Braun and Clarke's (2006) thematic analysis was used. I reviewed the data, took notes, and began to group the data into categories. The goal of this analysis was to critically identify patterns and develop themes. All the data were coded and labeled using key words or phrases highlighted. Six steps in thematic analysis moved back and forth between these phases.

1. **Familiarization with the data**: I read and re-read the data to familiarize myself with the data many times. My prior knowledge of the people and of the context under study helped write initial ideas for selective coding.
2. **Initial coding**: I highlighted the texts I wished to analyze. This coding helped me find out emergent themes or patterns of the data in relation to the research questions. All the relevant data in the form of excerpts, vignettes, snapshots, illustrations, and narratives were coded for further data analysis.
3. **Searching for themes**: I listed and sorted out the highlighted data to identify broader patterns of the data. Searching for key themes of findings enabled me to closely analyze the coded data.
4. **Reviewing themes**: I re-read and double checked the coded themes against the dataset in order to determine if they elicited important features of the data, relevant to the research questions. This theme review allowed for careful and detailed thematic data analysis.
5. **Defining and naming themes**: I developed a fine-grained analysis of each finding theme. I also worked out the scope and focus (essence) of each finding theme.
6. **Writing up**: I weaved together and analyze the data using SFL and CDA because data categorization and coding were incomplete and because "the thematic analysis is a relatively straightforward form of qualitative analysis" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 94). Therefore, SFL and CDA were badly needed. The procedures for data analysis using both SFL and CDA are presented below.

b. The textual analysis: SFL and CDA

In the study, all the data were collected from pedagogical curriculum processes. These processes created a myriad of living data as texts. These texts convey a host of meanings that could be analyzed using SFL and CDA. For example, the language classroom,

teacher's enacted lesson from opening to closing is a larger text, which includes semiotic resources "to direct students' constructions of meaning" (Wilson, 2011, p. 436). All the categorized data drawing from the critical thematic analysis were re-organized into major finding themes arising out of four stages of data gathering or fieldwork. Grounded in the SFL analysis, I examined these data based on experiential meaning (reality and lived experience), interpersonal meaning (agency and interaction/participation), and textual meaning (use of language and other semiotic artifacts, which mediated curriculum processes). In some data analysis (e.g., data that illuminated propositions, perceptions/beliefs, opinions, thoughts, and feelings), I deployed the SFL-informed appraisal framework (see Martin & White, 2005) as a systematic tool for painting how the research participants used language to express their feelings, signal their attitudes and values, and position themselves and their audience explicitly or implicitly in relation to the experiences they reported in this study. These appraisal systems or resources embrace three semantic dimensions (1) attitude: affect (human emotions, perceptions, and cognitions), judgment (ethical evaluation of people's behaviors/characters/actions), and appreciation (aesthetic awareness of man-made things/natural phenomena); (2) engagement or intersubjectivity; and (3) graduation or amplification. These resources are a helpful tool for meaning making of the data. Integral to SFL, CDA was used to analyze ways of representing (e.g., teacher authority), acting and relating to others (e.g., classroom interactions), and identifying (e.g., student roles and teacher roles). Thus, bringing both SFL and CDA together opens a wide field for understanding all the curriculum processes within the remit of pedagogical discourse.

CHAPTER 4

The Conditions of English Language Teaching in the Vocational Secondary Education Sector: Macro and Micro Lenses

This chapter presents data to examine the first research question: What were the conditions of English language teaching in the Indonesian vocational high school context from policy and pedagogical curriculum perspectives? First, I analyzed curriculum materials: the national curriculum guidelines, the official documents, and the prescribed English textbooks. These materials provide useful information about how English language instruction was socio-institutionally shaped. I move on to report the realities of English lessons through classroom observations in order to understand interactions between teacher and students, between the students and their peers, and between the students and the materials as well as other aspects of classroom discourses. In the two remaining sections of the chapter, I examined English teachers' knowledge and beliefs about English language materials development and students' voices on English language learning. The context analysis serves as the basis for the design of vocational English (VE) materials.

4.1 Educational and Language-in-Education Policies: Policy Makers' Perspectives

Both educational policy in general and language-in-education policy in particular are generally conceived of as multilayered phenomena and processes, which embrace policy activities at different levels: state, district, school, and classroom. These processes embrace creation, interpretation, and appropriation of the policies (Johnson & Johnson, 2015). Educational and language policies have a bearing on innovation in the design of language materials. While meeting the standards of the national policy, this innovation is viewed as a process of remaking the current national policy and curriculum. Language-in-education policy in the context of Indonesia is shaped by the ideological and political agendas of governments and interested agencies as well as sociopolitical and economic forces (Widodo & Zacharias, 2014). It is de jure stipulated in constitutive, legislative, and ministerial documents. These documents serve as the legal basis for developing school curricula. In other words, both educational planning and policy, particularly language planning and policy influence curriculum processes (e.g., instructional design, pedagogical practices,

assessment) and materials (e.g., syllabi, lesson plans, textbooks). These processes and materials, in turn, impact working lives of teachers and learning lives of students.

During the past ten years, the Indonesian Government has revised the national curriculum guidelines four times: The 2004 Competency Based Curriculum (CBC), The 2006 School Based Curriculum (SBC), The 2011 Character Based Education (CBE), and The 2013 Curriculum. Here is a summary of changes in the national curriculum guidelines (for a fuller discussion, see Agustien, 2014; Hamied, 2014).

Table 4.1 *A Summary of the National Curriculum Guidelines during the last 10 Years in Indonesia*

Curriculum Design	Periods of Implementation	Theoretical Perspectives	Pedagogic Practices	Comments
2004 CBC	2004-2006	Communicative competence & SFL genres	• Instructional goals were formulated based on four communicative competences: grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic. • Students' main activities were designed based on text types and genres. • Students worked with different texts. • Language skills were taught in an integrated manner.	• Teachers had to follow the mandated curriculum and the prescribed textbooks. • Teachers were allowed to adapt the prescribed textbooks in order to cater to their students' needs.
2006 SBC	2006-2013	Communicative Competence & SFL genres	• Instructional goals were formulated based on four communicative competences: grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic. • Students' main activities were designed around text types and genres. • Students worked with different texts. • Language skills were	• In response to policy on educational autonomy, there were no mandated curriculum and prescribed textbooks. • The government set up the national educational standards, which served as the basis for school

Curriculum Design	Periods of Implementation	Theoretical Perspectives	Pedagogic Practices	Comments
			taught in an integrated manner.	based curriculum design and development. • Each of the schools was entrusted to develop their own curriculum based on local needs. • Teachers could design or develop their own materials based on their students' needs.
2011 CBE	2011-to date	The integration of moral values into ELT	• Instructional goals were formulated based on moral values or attitudes (e.g., hard work, honesty). • The 2011 CBE guidelines supplemented The 2006 SBC. • Moral values were included in the English language curriculum.	• The government encouraged schools to instill moral values in students through formal education. • Learning all school subjects including English had a lot to with building moral identity.
2013 Curriculum	2013-to date	Scientific approach (SA)	• Instructional goals are formulated based on three components of competence: skills, knowledge, and attitudes. • Instructional goals are also formulated based on moral values and around text types and genres. • A teaching cycle follows a scientific approach including (1) observing, (2) questioning, (3) exploring/experimenting, (4) associating, and (5) communicating.	• This curriculum was implemented in mid 2013 (Term 1). • Teachers have to follow both the mandated curriculum and the prescribed textbook. • Teachers have the right to supplement teaching materials based on their students' needs.

Both the school principal and the vice school principal (personal communication, 30 April 2012) reported that the national curriculum guidelines were designed by the national curriculum development team consisting of representatives of educational authorities/administrators, faculty members, consultants, and teachers. Written in *Bahasa Indonesia,* the guidelines were disseminated to all the schools to be implemented throughout the nation and were intended for all the school subjects. To assist teachers to translate the guidelines into practice, the Indonesian Government provided nationwide in-service teacher training through a cascade model. Initially, the national curriculum developers along with appointed trainers did five-day long workshops for key teacher participants nominated by educational authorities on a ministerial level. During the workshops, the participants were introduced to the guidelines and shown to the implementation of the guidelines through peer teacher teaching demonstrations. The workshop participants then returned to their schools and did in-service workshops to other teachers in the local districts, usually over 1-2 days. Additionally, monitoring activities by appointed school superintendents were organized on a monthly basis to ensure the implementation of the new curriculum. Additional workshops were regularly organized in teacher professional development groups called *MGMP*.

The school administrators added that the guidelines were accompanied by ministerial documents, which supported and provided elaboration on the curriculum guidelines. These documents defined a new set of prescribed competency standards, prescribing the content to be covered, recommending teaching and assessment methods, and outlining the outcomes to be achieved for each of the school subjects. The difference among school subjects rested in a common set of competency standards. This standardization dictated lesson objectives, content, pedagogy, assessment, and evaluation. The national curriculum guidelines had implications for the design of pedagogy and assessment as a whole. Both curriculum policies and curriculum documents were policy directives, which exerted influence on "…the ways in which they describe, position and authorize teachers' use of the curriculum text, frames how teachers might exercise discretion, autonomy and expertise within their classroom practice" (Gerrard & Farrell, 2014, p. 636). These standardized curriculum guidelines represented the authorities of policy makers or bodies of authorized knowledge, which were supposed to be passed down to both teachers and students. Policy makers here included government officials (central and local governments) through boards of education, assigned curriculum consultants/developers, and school administrators.

For closer analysis of curriculum documents, I drew on a range of ministerial documents and statements that aimed to communicate the central ideas of the national curriculum guidelines. Because during the fieldwork, the adopted national curriculum was the 2006 school based curriculum (SBC), and the 2013 Curriculum was not yet implemented in the school, the present document analysis includes official documents published in between 2003 and 2011. A few selected excerpts of the documents and statements were analyzed in depth. One of the most prominent features of the education policy documentation at a macro level is the assertion that what standards of national education in relation to competencies means. Both standardization and competency impacted on how foreign language-in-education policy and curriculum in particular were framed. As mandated in the 1945 Constitution of Indonesia, the Ministry of National Education (MONE) was responsible for planning, implementing, and evaluating educational policies and educational curricula. The Ministry of Religious Affairs (MORA) was no exception. Administratively, both ministries had three levels of bureaucracy: central, provincial or regional, and district or local. They controlled all educational policies, curricula, and practices. All the developed curricula had to be based on standards of national education. National education standards set a benchmark for evaluating educational curricula. To this end, this benchmark was institutionalized in legal documents, as echoed in the following excerpts.

Documentary Excerpt # 1: *National Education Standards*

(1) *Standar nasional pendidikan terdiri atas standar isi, proses, kompetensi lulusan, tenaga kependidikan, sarana dan prasarana, pengelolaan, pembiayaan, dan penilaian pendidikan yang harus ditingkatkan secara berencana dan berkala*

[National education standards comprise curriculum content and process, graduate competencies, staffing, facilities and resources, management, financing, and evaluation, which need continually to be improved in a planned manner]

(2) Standar nasional pendidikan digunakan sebagai acuan pengembangan kurikulum, tenaga kependidikan, sarana dan prasarana, pengelolaan, dan pembiayaan.

[National education standards serve as the basis for developing educational curricula, staffing, facilities and resources, and financing]

(The National Education System Act of 2003, Chapter 35, Articles 1-2)

The two articles demarcated eight features of national education standards, which underscored curriculum development at a school level. These features constructed the totality of standards of national education. In particular, the second article reinforced standards of national educations as indicators, which reflected dimensions of program design and management in order to develop curriculum, staffing, facilities and resources, management, and financing. It is evident that the National Education System Act of 2003 positioned standards of national educations as the primary agent of quality of national education at a macro level. This standardization, which specified educational objectives and outcomes called the ends of learning, aimed to ensure quality of curriculum implementation. Even though policy makers emphasized educational standardization, they recognized different factors, which underscored the development of school curricula. This is clearly articulated in the following excerpts.

Documentary Excerpt # 2: *Curriculum*

(2) *Kurikulum pada semua jenjang dan jenis pendidikan dikembangkan dengan prinsip diversifikasi sesuai dengan satuan pendidikan, potensi daerah, dan peserta didik.*

[Curricula at all levels of education are developed within the framework of contextual diversity in accordance to the characteristics of schools, sociocultural environments, and students].

(3) Kurikulum disusun sesuai dengan jenjang pendidikan dalam kerangka Negara Kesatuan Republik Indonesia dengan memperhatikan:

a. peningkatan iman dan takwa;
b. peningkatan akhlak mulia;
c. peningkatan potensi, kecerdasan, dan minat peserta didik;
d. keragaman potensi daerah dan lingkungan;
e. tuntutan pembangunan daerah dan nasional;
f. tuntutan dunia kerja;
g. perkembangan ilmu pengetahuan, teknologi, dan seni;
h. agama;
i. dinamika perkembangan global; dan
j. persatuan nasional dan nilai-nilai kebangsaan.

[Curricula at all levels of education framed in the national unity of the Republic of Indonesia are designed based on the following factors: (a) improvement of religiosity; (b) character building; (c) development of students' potential, ability, and interest; (d) diversity in regional potential and environmental uniqueness; (e) demands of national and local development; (f) labor demands; (g) development of science, technology, and arts; (h) religion; (i) global dynamics and competitiveness; and (j) national unity and nationalism].

(The National Education System Act of 2003, Chapter 36, Articles 2-3)

These regulatory statements recognized a variety of factors, which impacted on the development of school curricula. In this respect, the government did not impose the national educational standardization as rigid one-size-fits-all curricular mandates, but such standardization had to be redefined or reinterpreted within the framework of local needs. The standards were not meant to be prescriptive for all schools and classrooms, but school administrators and teachers were encouraged to interpret the educational standards from an adaptation perspective. This redefinition of the national curriculum problematizes a teacher as a conduit, who promotes "a passive vision of teaching as the mere transmission of information and characterizes teachers as middlemen between content standards and children rather than professionals and intellectuals" (Mirra & Morrell, 2011, p. 409). Both school administrators and teachers were afforded an opportunity to remake established policies of standardization when making or developing educational curricula. As mandated in the National Education System Act of 2003, they had to take into account such factors as schools as a micro-level implementation of educational policy; local resources; students; moral, religious, and civic values; demands for regional and national development; labor demands; and the development of science, technology, and arts. Thus, the constitutive statements opened up renegotiating or remaking of policies of standardization. Pease-Alvarez and Thompson (2014) point out that policy remaking recognizes agentive roles of teachers as engaged policy makers at the local or school level together with school administrators (e.g., school principals).

In terms of the socio-political status of languages in the national curriculum guidelines, English was a required school subject in secondary education (the National Education System Act of 2003, Chapter 37, Article 1), and one of the major subjects tested on the national examination called *Ujian Nasional*. For vocational high schools, such school subjects as Bahasa Indonesia, English, Mathematics, and Vocational Subjects were tested on the *UN* (Ujian Nasional 2014: http://www.un2014.com/2013/09/ujian-nasional-smk.html). This indicates that English was institutionally recognized as a core subject in the national curriculum in terms of planning and policy, pedagogy, and assessment. This language-in-education policy was reinforced in the Chapter 33 of the Act of 2003. In addition to Bahasa Indonesia and local languages, such a foreign language as English might be used as a medium of instruction.

Documentary Excerpt # 3: *Medium of Instruction*

(1) Bahasa Indonesia sebagai Bahasa Negara menjadi bahasa pengantar dalam pendidikan nasional.
(2) Bahasa daerah dapat digunakan sebagai bahasa pengantar dalam tahap awal pendidikan apabila diperlukan dalam penyampaian pengetahuan dan/atau keterampilan tertentu.
(3) Bahasa asing dapat digunakan sebagai bahasa pengantar pada satuan pendidikan tertentu untuk ***mendukung kemampuan berbahasa asing peserta didik****.*

(1) Bahasa Indonesia as a national lingua franca or a unifying language **becomes** a medium of instruction in national education.
(2) Local languages can be a medium of instruction in order to facilitate teaching and learning in pre-school and primary education
(3) Foreign languages can be used as **a** medium of instruction in a school in order to **support students' foreign language abilities**.

(The National Education System Act of 2003, Chapter 33, Articles 1-3)

Chapter 33 articulated language-in-education policy and recognized linguistic diversity and roles of languages as national lingua franca or unifying language, local or vernacular language, and foreign language. Bahasa Indonesia is recognized as an official language in educational policy and practice. The use of Bahasa Indonesia in formal schooling aims to cement national identity and unity (Widodo & Fardhani, 2011). The Act of 2003 also legitimizes the use of local language in primary schooling. Foreign language, such as English, is seen as the language of economic development, social mobility, stability, international communication, and scientific knowledge (Widodo & Zacharias, 2014). In particular, Widodo and Fardhani (2011) observed that parents as one of the key stakeholders saw English as a long-term investment or asset for their children's future. Commonly, parents aligned English with such advantages as increased opportunities for social and economic mobility, better formal education, prestigious social status, overseas studies, and better paid or tenure-track job prospects.

Through the Ministerial Regulation of 2005, the government stated that curricula were developed based on educational theories, in which standardization of competency was emphasized. National quality standards were called standardized graduate competencies. Particularly for senior high schools for both academic and vocational pathways, the standards defined what students had to know and be able to do at each level (Grades 10, 11, and 12). The standardized graduate competencies were stipulated in the following Ministerial Regulation.

Documentary Excerpt # 4: *The Ministerial Regulation 19 of 2005*

> Kurikulum dikembangkan atas dasar teori pendidikan berdasarkan standar dan teori pendidikan berbasis kompetensi. Pendidikan berdasarkan standar adalah pendidikan yang menetapkan standar nasional sebagai kualitas minimal hasil belajar yang berlaku untuk setiap kurikulum. Standar kualitas nasional dinyatakan sebagai Standar Kompetensi Lulusan. Standar Kompetensi Lulusan tersebut adalah kualitas minimal lulusan suatu jenjang atau satuan pendidikan. Standar Kompetensi Lulusan mencakup sikap, pengetahuan, dan keterampilan (PP Nomor 19, 2005)
>
> [Curricula are developed based on educational theories, which emphasize standardization and competency. Standards-based education is the one that determines the national standards as minimal learning outcomes for each subject curriculum. The national quality standards are called as competency standards for school leavers. The competency standards reflect minimal school leaver quality. The standards include attitudes/behaviors, knowledge, and skills]

In this regulative statement, a scope of competency embraced knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Competency is an integration of knowledge, skills, and attitudes to sufficiently function in real-life encounters (Tigelaar, Dolmans, Wolfhagen, & Van Der Vleuten, 2004). The competency standards had to be clearly articulated in each of the school curricula, including *what* should be taught, *how much time* to devote to each lesson unit, and *how to organize* content knowledge to be conveyed. These national standards challenged teachers to enact a sound pedagogical curriculum as mandated in the Act of 2003. Particularly in language instruction, competency standards were chronicled into four language skills, such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing in order to help students achieve desirable language competency. These skills were central to foreign language education (Mikulec & Miller, 2011).

In the 2004 and 2006 national English curricula, these four skills were organized around communicative competency and genre frameworks. Communicative competencies included discourse competence, linguistic competence, sociocultural competence, and strategic competence (see Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, & Thurrell, 1995). Genres or text types included narratives, recounts, news items, anecdotes, reports, procedures, descriptions, expositions, discussions, and reviews. The 2004 and 2006 English curricula emphasized communicative competence and functional competence. The emphasis was placed on language in use. Though both English language curricula for academic track senior high schools adopted

genre and competency frameworks, vocational high schools used a notional and functional framework with the following general English competency standards.

Table 4.2 *General English Competencies*

Skills	Grades/Levels		
	X (Novice)	XI (Elementary)	XII (Intermediate)
Listening	understand and interpret spoken texts interpersonally and transactionally in both formal and informal contexts	understand and interpret spoken texts interpersonally and transactionally in the workplace context (demanding and giving information)	understand and interpret spoken texts interpersonally and transactionally in the vocational context (demanding and giving information)
Speaking	Express spoken texts interpersonally and transactionally in both formal and informal contexts (demanding and giving information)	Express spoken texts interpersonally and transactionally in the workplace context (demanding and giving information)	Express spoken texts interpersonally and transactionally in the vocational context (demanding and giving information)
Reading	understand and interpret written texts interpersonally and transactionally in both formal and informal contexts	understand and interpret written texts interpersonally and transactionally in the workplace context (demanding and giving information)	understand and interpret written texts interpersonally and transactionally in the vocational context (demanding and giving information)
Writing	Express written texts interpersonally and transactionally in both formal and informal contexts (demanding and giving information)	Express written texts interpersonally and transactionally in the workplace context (demanding and giving information)	Express written texts interpersonally and transactionally in the vocational context (demanding and giving information)

(The Ministerial Regulation of 2006, MONE, 2006)

Table 4.2 shows that English competencies were built around four language skills: Listening, speaking, reading, and writing and around functions of language: interpersonal and transactional, situated in both formal and informal contexts. Brown and Yule (1983, p. 2) argue that transactional language expresses "factual or propositional information" (content), but interactional language has the function of "expressing social relations and personal attitudes." In Grades XI and XII, the four language skills were situated within the

workplace and professional contexts to relate English lessons to students' vocational competency and future career lives. Thus, the themes and contexts were to fit with vocational domains, such as technology and engineering; information and communication technology; health, arts, crafts, and tourism; agribusiness and agrotechnology; and business and management. In addition, the wordings, *understand* and *express*, used to formulate competency standards reflect mental and verbal processes. This evidence implies that competency standards were grounded in cognitive psychological theory. The school administrators (personal communication, 5 April, 2012) admitted that when formulating learning goals and objectives (competencies), they followed Bloom's taxonomies, influenced by cognitive psychology theories (Krathwohl, 2002).

As summarized earlier, The 2006 English curriculum guidelines adopted a school-based curriculum, which "combines the best features of top-down and bottom-up approaches to curriculum planning and development, providing both central guidance for schools, thus ensuring the maintenance of national standards) and sufficient flexibility for practitioners to take account of local needs" (Priestley, Minty, & Eager, 2014, pp. 189-190). The competency standards could be developed based on different curriculum concepts such as a thematic approach, a humanistic or student-centered framework, social constructivism, and other conceptual frameworks relevant to the nature of a particular school subject. Both school administrators and teachers had autonomy to remake the curricula relevant to the characteristics of schools, students, resources, and sociocultural environments. Thus, teachers had to move beyond what they were supposed to teach, and their students were expected to learn. Pedagogically, they had autonomy to use their professional principles or judgment/beliefs in responding to differences in student abilities, interests, and needs. These principles, beliefs, and theories touch upon what language means and what constitutes language learning and teaching to guide actual pedagogical practices. Therefore, looking closely at textbooks as curriculum materials helps understand how language, language learning, and language teaching are conceptualized as well as to what extent the textbooks impact on ELT.

4.2 Conceptualization of ELT: Textbook Writers' Perspectives

In foreign language instruction, textbooks commonly become vital curriculum materials, which guide actual classroom practices. Tsagari and Sifakis (2014) reported that textbooks shaped class time, classroom interaction, and language learning. The textbooks guided learning activities, procedures, and techniques that teachers implemented in classrooms. Such activities, procedures, and techniques are informed by particular theories of language; language learning and teaching; and the roles of teachers, learners and instructional materials (Richards, 2014). To unpack how ELT was conceptualized from a textbook writer perspective, I focus on the textbooks used in the school under study as unit of analysis.

The national curriculum guidelines were embodied in a series of textbooks entitled "Win the Day: Applicable for Communicative and Contextual Learning." These three series of the textbooks for Grades X, XI, and XII were jointly authored by 31 English teachers from vocational high schools in East Java. The teachers were involved in a teacher professional development group at a regional level. One of the English teachers participating in the study was involved in this co-authorship of the textbooks. The textbooks were co-edited by two faculty members of the leading state university in East Java. The textbooks were published by The Association of English Teachers of Vocational High Schools in collaboration with one of the leading state universities based in East Java. The textbooks (the third edition for Grades X and XII and the second edition for Grade XI) were published in 2011. The textbooks were required materials for students specializing in information communication and technology; business and management; as well as arts, crafts, and tourism. The texts had been used for 3 years since the present study commenced (April 2012).

In the introduction to the textbook series, the authors claimed that activities in the textbooks aimed to help students use English as a means of communication by providing students with intensive exercises to enable them to communicate. The writers attempted to meet state level curriculum expectations. They also claimed that the textbooks adopted contextual teaching and learning (CTL) grounded in the works of John Dewey in the early 1900s and of social constructivists (Lynch, 2006). CLT has been associated with other educational theories, such as experiential learning, transformative learning, situated learning, situated cognition, and communities of practice (Hernández-Gantes & Blank, 2009). Examples of CLT-informed pedagogical practices include problem based learning, project based learning, inquiry based learning, cooperative learning, and authentic

assessment. In Indonesia, CLT had been widely used in vocational education and ELT during the implementation of SBC (see Satriani, Emilia, & Gunawan, 2012). The thrust of CLT is the integration of subject matter content and real-world situations so that students find school experience relevant to their lives. In ELT, meaningful and purposeful activities relevant to students' lived experiences facilitate language learning. For learning to occur, students engage in authentic tasks typically found in real-world situations (see Hernández-Gantes & Blank, 2009) and participate in such socially oriented activities as relating, experiencing, applying, cooperating, and transferring (REACT) (see Crawford, 2001). In short, CLT emphasizes social dimension of knowledge construction and learning.

The presentation of the books was organized around the following themes.

Table 4.3 *Themes in the Students' Textbooks*

Themes/Topics in the Textbooks		
Grade X (18 Units)	Grade XI (12 Units)	Grade XII (8 Units)
1. Greeting and leave taking	Expressing daily routines	Making reservation
2. Introducing oneself and others	Taking simple messages	Expressing and handling complaints
3. Thanking	Telling job description and education	Making arrangements
4. Expressing regret and apologies	Telling past events and future plans	Expressing confirmation
5. Describing things	Expressing interest	Expressing wishes and
6. Describing people	Expressing opinion	understanding manuals
7. Dealing with numbers	Agreeing and disagreeing	Writing reports
8. Expressing sympathy	Convincing others	Presenting reports
9. Expressing feeling	Making conclusion	
10. Asking for and giving permission	Giving instructions	
11. Expressing command and request	Giving suggestions	
12. Expressing offer	Making short messages	
13. Describing events		
14. Explaining signs and symbols		
15. Comparing things		
16. Expressing preferences		
17. Asking for and giving directions and locations		
18. Writing invitations		

Working around these themes, the students learned how to memorize and express different types of speech acts. This rote learning did not match with the goals of CTL as claimed by the authors. The students were also supposed to know and use different speech acts, assumed to represent social reality. The textbooks emphasized the use of language functions as implicated in speech act theory proposed originally by Austin and developed further by Searle. The speech function adopted by the textbook writers differs from that of Martin developed from “Hallidayan framework, which is handled under the semantics of the 'mood' system” (Flowerdew, 1998, p. 72). The speech function from an SFL perspective is one of the interpersonal functions at a clause level. The speech acts presented in the textbooks showed “a simplistic transactional view of communicative interaction in which participant roles are clearly defined and easily identified as sender and receiver. The reality of interaction is much more complex” (van Compernolle & Lawrence Williams, 2013, p. 43). Austin and Searle speech functions do not recognize the complexity of social interaction from a more in-depth discursive perspective.

Each of the units at different levels was structured in a similar way and included language skills-based learning activities such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Grammar was also presented. All the units began by presenting competency standards and learning objectives. The last section of each unit explicitly presented key grammatical structures, which did not necessarily reflect the previous activities. As mandated in the national curriculum guidelines, student learning outcomes were measured based on four language skills and linguistic knowledge (grammar). These activities were incongruent with institutionalized multiple-choice high-stakes tests, which included listening comprehension, reading comprehension, grammar, and vocabulary; speaking and writing were not tested.

The textbooks presented core competencies that students were supposed to achieve listed in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 *Core Competencies in the Students' Textbooks*

Core Competencies		
Grade X (18 Units)	Grade XI (12 Units)	Grade XII (8 Units)
1. Understand simple daily conversational expressions	Understand simple daily conversations	Understand monologs
2. Describe things, peoples, time, and dates	Write simple messages	Understand native speakers' expressions
3. Communicate in English using simple expressions	Describe job descriptions and educational backgrounds	Write a report
4. Tell future activities/events	Tell past activities/events	Understand manuals
5. Understand memos, menus, schedules, and traffic signs	Express a range of emotions	Understand business letters
6. Understand words and sentences based on grammatical rules	Understand instructions	Understand technical documents
7. Write invitations	Write short messages and notices	Write a business letter and a short technical report

The core competencies indicated cognition-based language learning. They reflected transmission (structuralist) beliefs about language and language learning and teaching. Students were expected to demonstrate correct ways of using English without any socialization process through meaningful social engagement (e.g., peer or teacher scaffolding or support). Instructional prompts were built around problems with clear and correct answers and around ideas that most students could grasp quickly. The students were placed at the center of system, which became nothing more than an intellectual entity involved in an assessable cognitive process. This observation is evident in operational processes of learning goals and objectives. Framed in SFL analysis, in three series of the textbooks, instructional prompts mostly contained mental processes (e.g., *analyze*, *identify*, *imagine*, *memorize*, *recognize*, and *understand*). This indicates that the students were supposed to do cognitively demanding learning activities. The prompts also contained verbal processes (e.g., *express*, *mention*, *pronounce, and repeat*) and behavioral processes (e.g., *answer*, *describe*, *explain*, and *read*). The instructional prompts also included material

processes (e.g., *change__into__*, *choose*, *complete*, correct, find out, *match*, *perform*, *practice*, (*re*)*arrange*, and *use*). Even though these instructional prompts required the students to use language in action, they constrained the students to work on learning activities within structural and cognitive enterprises. The textbook writers believed that language learning was seen as strategic processes (comprehensive, comprehensible, and functional), "which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language, through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information about that language" (Cohen, 1998, p. 4).

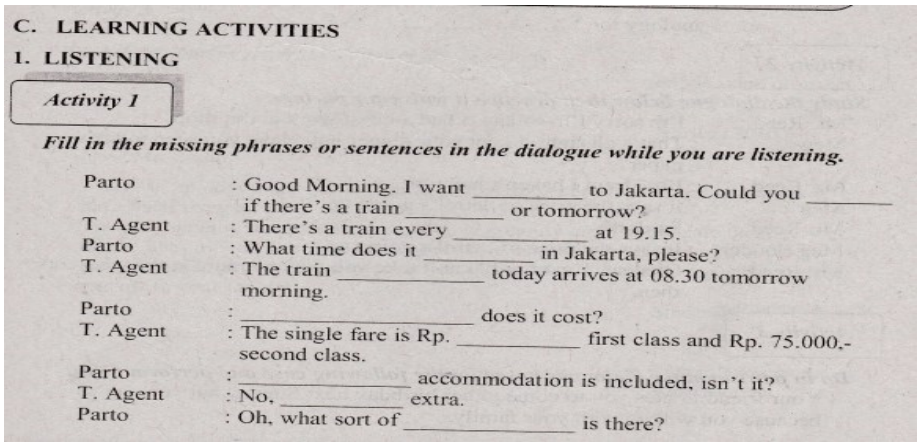
All the textbooks had the same patterns of learning activities presented below.

Table 4.5 *Learning Activities in the Students' Textbooks*

Sections	Learning Activities
Listening	Dialog text completion, multiple-choice questions, sentence rearrangement, dictation
Speaking	Noticing and memorizing useful conversational expressions (e.g., adjacency pairs), dialog text rearrangement, memorizing and acting out the dialog texts, writing and acting out dialog texts jointly, text matching, role playing, visual text description, dialog text completion, retelling dialog texts, pronunciation drilling
Reading	Question and answer exercises, text completion
Writing	Composing short texts, sentence rearrangement, text completion, grammar error recognition and correction, text translation, sentence transformation, summary writing
Grammar	Rule presentation and memorization, rule drilling, sentence writing
Evaluation	Text completion, question and answer exercises, filling in the blanks, error recognition and correction, sentence rearrangement, description paragraph writing, narrative paragraph writing

Table 4.5 demonstrates that the learning activities focused on teacher centered instruction, rote learning, and grammar translation. The following sample listening and speaking activities in the textbook (Grade X, pp. 31-33). The writers perceived language as "a stable, rule-governed linguistic system that must be acquired before people can engage in communication" (Lantolf & Johnson, 2007, p. 878).

Figure 4.1 *Listening Activity in the Textbook (Grade X)*



C. LEARNING ACTIVITIES

I. LISTENING

Activity 1

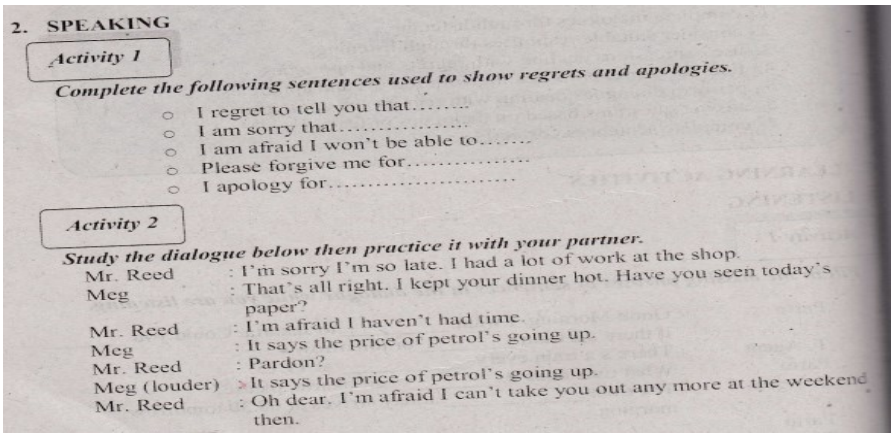
Fill in the missing phrases or sentences in the dialogue while you are listening.

Parto : Good Morning. I want _____ to Jakarta. Could you _____ if there's a train _____ or tomorrow?
T. Agent : There's a train every _____ at 19.15.
Parto : What time does it _____ in Jakarta, please?
T. Agent : The train _____ today arrives at 08.30 tomorrow morning.
Parto : _____ does it cost?
T. Agent : The single fare is Rp. _____ first class and Rp. 75.000,- second class.
Parto : _____ accommodation is included, isn't it?
T. Agent : No, _____ extra.
Parto : Oh, what sort of _____ is there?

Listening was merely bottom-up processing, involving the decoding of sounds, words, sentences, and clauses of spoken texts in a fairly linear fashion in order to elicit meaning (Rost, as cited in Graham, 2006). In fact, listening also involves top-down processing (meaning making), which involves "the listeners' knowledge of the topic, their general knowledge of the world and of how texts generally 'work', will interact with this linguistic knowledge to create an interpretation of the text" (Buck, as cited in Graham, 2006, p. 166). In the listening activity, no sufficient instructional prompts described the context of the conversation. This suggests that the activity is not authentic in that it does not provide contextual information. The listening activity also indicates that learning to listen has a lot to do with internalizing words into their memory. In fact, listening is a complex process, positioning students at the center of an interaction between the listener, the speaker, the text and the listening environment or context (Widodo & Cirocki, 2015). This multidimensionality of listening implies that students should be socialized into a wide range of authentic listening texts to learn multilayered features of spoken discourses.

From the perspective of the textbook writers, these speaking activities were merely a repetition of drills or memorization of dialogues. The teaching of speaking was simply viewed as the teaching of speech acts, which constituted adjacency pairs to help students understand and produce chucks of spoken language (see Speaking: Activity 1). In Activity 2, spoken language was perceived as fixed and linear information that students had to memorize to internalize the language and in turn to anticipate expressions used in real-life interactions.

Figure 4.2 *Speaking Activity in the Textbook (Grade X)*



2. SPEAKING

Activity 1

Complete the following sentences used to show regrets and apologies.

- I regret to tell you that.....
- I am sorry that.....
- I am afraid I won't be able to.....
- Please forgive me for.....
- I apology for.....

Activity 2

Study the dialogue below then practice it with your partner.

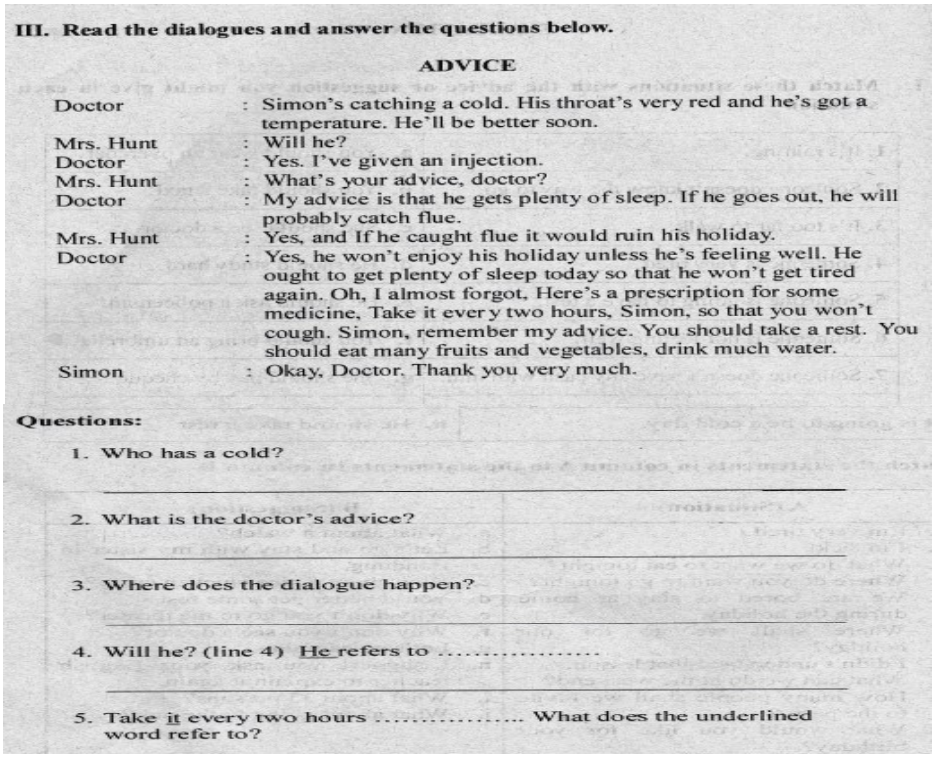
Mr. Reed : I'm sorry I'm so late. I had a lot of work at the shop.
Meg : That's all right. I kept your dinner hot. Have you seen today's paper?
Mr. Reed : I'm afraid I haven't had time.
Meg : It says the price of petrol's going up.
Mr. Reed : Pardon?
Meg (louder) : It says the price of petrol's going up.
Mr. Reed : Oh dear. I'm afraid I can't take you out any more at the weekend then.

The teaching of speaking was also aligned with that of dictation and repeated pronunciation, adopting an audio-lingual method. There were no learning activities to help the students become aware of differences between spoken English and written English in relation to vocabulary, grammar, and discourse. The presentation of spoken English was limited to decontextualized dialogs or conversations. In the two speaking activities, for instance, the model dialog text was an object of learning, rather a sort of scaffold, enabling the students to construct their own dialog text relevant to their lives. The students did not have the opportunity to learn the use of spoken meta-discourse, a tool for analyzing the nature of spoken text (Kibler, Salerno, & Palacios, 2014). They were not encouraged to explore more spoken texts in real-life situations. The teaching of spoken English focused mundanely on role playing. There were no speaking activities, promoting meaning making and participation as social practice, including discussions, contextual role-playing, information gaps, storytelling, oral presentation, and picture narration and description among others. From a social semiotic perspective, these speaking activities allow students to engage in meaning making and information exchange as well as getting things done (social participation).

Figure 4.3 shows an example of reading activity aiming to teach how to give advice in order to reinforce grammatical points that the students had to learn. There was no contextual information in the dialog text; the dialog seemed to happen abruptly. The reading questions simply asked what was happening and straightforward cohesion (e.g., asking pronoun reference). This evidence shows that the textbook writers viewed reading as a mechanic process of drawing meaning from the text, rather seeing this decoding process (e.g., graphic/word recognition) as point of the departure for meaning making. The answer and question exercise required the students to provide a right response, which "obscures the

active and dynamic process of 'comprehending' which requires real response and dynamic interaction with texts" (Granville, 2001, p. 13).

Figure 4.3 *Reading Activity in the Textbook (Grade X1, p. 146)*



III. Read the dialogues and answer the questions below.

ADVICE

Doctor	:	Simon's catching a cold. His throat's very red and he's got a temperature. He'll be better soon.
Mrs. Hunt	:	Will he?
Doctor	:	Yes. I've given an injection.
Mrs. Hunt	:	What's your advice, doctor?
Doctor	:	My advice is that he gets plenty of sleep. If he goes out, he will probably catch flue.
Mrs. Hunt	:	Yes, and If he caught flue it would ruin his holiday.
Doctor	:	Yes, he won't enjoy his holiday unless he's feeling well. He ought to get plenty of sleep today so that he won't get tired again. Oh, I almost forgot, Here's a prescription for some medicine, Take it every two hours, Simon, so that you won't cough. Simon, remember my advice. You should take a rest. You should eat many fruits and vegetables, drink much water.
Simon	:	Okay, Doctor. Thank you very much.

Questions:

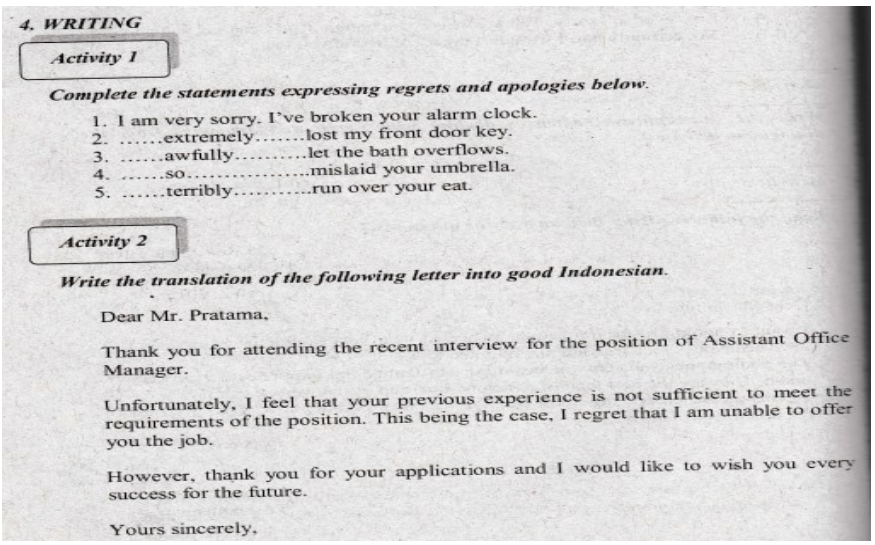
1. Who has a cold?
   _____
2. What is the doctor's advice?
   _____
3. Where does the dialogue happen?
   _____
4. Will he? (line 4) He refers to .....
   _____
5. Take it every two hours ..... What does the underlined word refer to?

Throughout the textbooks, the teaching of reading simply exposed students to texts and answer questions, aiming to test student understanding of the text. The students were spoon-fed with texts so that they understood the meaning of the text. Through a social semiotic lens, the textbooks did not recognize reading as the process of active meaning making or meaning construction in social contexts, in which this process involves the text, the reader's prior knowledge, the context, and the teacher's instruction or instructional prompts (Kim, 2011). Walsh (2011) argues that reading as meaning making, which takes place through reading, viewing, understanding, responding to and interacting with texts either in print or digitally. Widodo (2015) concludes that reading involves a multi-faceted process of understanding and making meaning of texts, and this is subject to multiple interpretations situated within the social, cultural, historical, and institutional contexts.

For another language skill, the teaching of writing equated with that of grammar, emphasizing the construction of sentences, sentence rearrangement, sentence-level text completion, and error recognition and correction. This product-based or skills-based approach to writing guided isolated language exercises, directing the students to focus on

correct language forms. By doing the exercises, the students could develop their writing skills and produce accurate, meaningful, and appropriate written texts. In Writing Activity 1 (see Figure 4.4), the students were asked to fill the gaps. This copying exercise was decontextualized because the students were asked to correct grammatical forms. This case is similar to Activity 2 that the students were asked to translate the text into Bahasa Indonesia. This activity might aim to show some differences between English and Bahasa Indonesia. This implies that translation was viewed as part of writing process and product, but both writing and translation skills differ to some extent in this regard. The instructional prompt of Activity 2 did not provide more information about the previous text, purpose, and discourse of the text. This exercise tends to emphasize writing as a mental process. The statements in Activity 1 were supposed to serve as a linguistic resource for the students to work on Activity 2, but the fact that the two exercises served different purposes (completion task and translation task). These exercises portray a simplistic view of language learning.

Figure 4.4 *Writing Activities (Grade XI, p. 146)*



4. WRITING

Activity 1

Complete the statements expressing regrets and apologies below.

1. I am very sorry. I've broken your alarm clock.
2. .....extremely.....lost my front door key.
3. .....awfully.....let the bath overflows.
4. .....so.....mislaid your umbrella.
5. .....terribly.....run over your eat.

Activity 2

Write the translation of the following letter into good Indonesian.

Dear Mr. Pratama,

Thank you for attending the recent interview for the position of Assistant Office Manager.

Unfortunately, I feel that your previous experience is not sufficient to meet the requirements of the position. This being the case, I regret that I am unable to offer you the job.

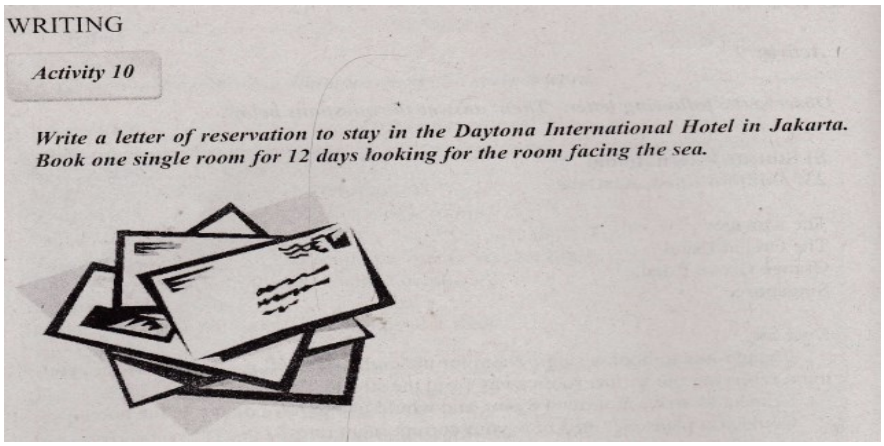
However, thank you for your applications and I would like to wish you every success for the future.

Yours sincerely,

In addition, a few actual writing activities, writing narrative and description paragraphs, short messages, and personal letters were presented in the textbooks. These activities did not provide students with how such paragraphs were constructed. Writing prompts, such as the social purposes and genre of writing, writing context, and audience were not sufficiently elucidated in the textbooks. The lack of an authentic context is evident in Activity 10 (see Figure 4.5). The students were asked to write a reservation letter to the hotel, which does not exist in a real-life situation. The name of the hotel was fake. This exercise was not authentic because prospective guests could make online reservation, or they were asked to

fill out a reservation form and send the completed form to the hotel. In the textbooks, similar writing exercises had the same writing prompts, lack of context, audience, social purposes, and discourses.

Figure 4.5 *Writing Activity (Grade XII, p. 12)*

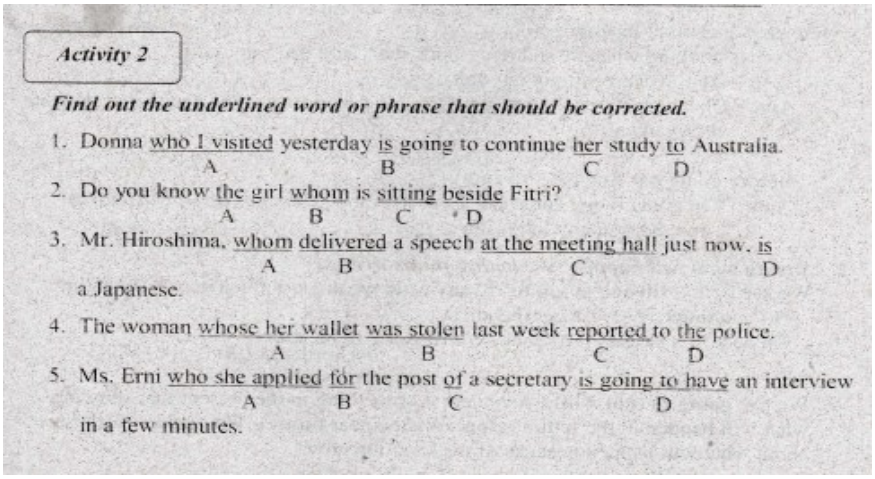


The students were not afforded the opportunity to select topics, and the audience was constrained to the teacher as a reader. They did not receive any teacher modeling or demonstration to scaffold writing processes. The goal of writing activities was not to assist students to develop their writing ability. In the textbooks, the teachers were envisioned as mere language teachers rather as writing teachers (Yang & Gao, 2013). Writing exercises did not recognize writing as social practice, enabling the students to engage in meaning making with the help of teachers or their more competent peers. From a social semiotic perspective, writing is about a re-semiotization process—"how meaning making shifts from context to context, from practice to practice, or from one stage of a practice to the next" (Iedema, 2003, p. 41). Therefore, the goal of teaching writing is to help students develop their ability to "become competent multilingual creators of written texts" (Byrnes, 2013, p. 95).

In the textbooks, grammar was seen as a set of rules for correct language use. The students were exposed to intensive error recognition and correction exercises (see Figure 4.6). This evidence shows a psycholinguistic or cognitive view of learning grammar. The students focused on usage-based grammar (e.g., pronouns, adjective clauses). They were expected to internalize "grammatical rules that account for grammatically correct language (Richards & Reppen, 2014, p. 6), in which sentences were unit of analysis. The writers of the textbooks might assume that this usage internalization could help students "prevent or

minimize opportunities for errors" (Richards & Reppen, 2014, p. 6). This conception does not recognize the fact that the use of grammar is varied from one context to another.

Figure 4.6 *Grammar Exercise (Grade X, p. 53)*



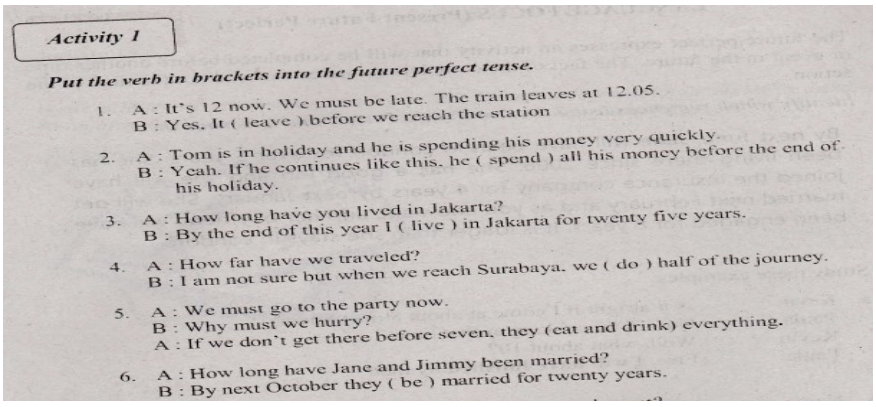
Activity 2

Find out the underlined word or phrase that should be corrected.

1. Donna who I visited yesterday is going to continue her study to Australia.
   A B C D
2. Do you know the girl whom is sitting beside Fitri?
   A B C D
3. Mr. Hiroshima, whom delivered a speech at the meeting hall just now, is a Japanese.
   A B C D
4. The woman whose her wallet was stolen last week reported to the police.
   A B C D
5. Ms. Erni who she applied for the post of a secretary is going to have an interview in a few minutes.
   A B C D

In another grammar activity (Grade XII), the students were asked to transform verbs into future perfect tense form. This exercise trained them to recognize correct usage of grammar. Framed in a prescriptive view, the teaching of grammar in the textbooks emphasized discrete grammatical points from the themes of the lesson units even though the students encountered a variety of grammatical items in one lesson unit. The textbook writers believed that the use of grammar in texts was predictable, but in reality, the use of grammar in real-world communication/interaction is unpredictable.

Figure 4.7 *Grammar Exercise (Grade XII, p. 14)*



Activity 1

Put the verb in brackets into the future perfect tense.

1. A : It's 12 now. We must be late. The train leaves at 12.05.
   B : Yes. It (leave) before we reach the station
2. A : Tom is in holiday and he is spending his money very quickly.
   B : Yeah. If he continues like this, he (spend) all his money before the end of his holiday.
3. A : How long have you lived in Jakarta?
   B : By the end of this year I (live) in Jakarta for twenty five years.
4. A : How far have we traveled?
   B : I am not sure but when we reach Surabaya, we (do) half of the journey.
5. A : We must go to the party now.
   B : Why must we hurry?
   A : If we don't get there before seven, they (eat and drink) everything.
6. A : How long have Jane and Jimmy been married?
   B : By next October they (be) married for twenty years.

These discrete grammar presentations lose sight of how grammar in any texts is attached to social contexts. The context of the grammar presentation was limited to mechanical language skills exercises. In these decontextualized exercises, the students were supposed to learn and internalize grammatical rules in order to help students make no errors and

obtain a native-like ability to use English. These exercises did not allow the students to recall and use grammatical resources in order to express meanings (Cullen, 2008).

Taken together, the textbooks (Appendix E) did not follow the pedagogical principles of CLT as claimed by the authors in the Introduction. The students studied minimal speech acts and grammar drawing from decontextualized sentences. The textbooks were framed in psycholinguistic or cognitive view of language and language learning. They also did not reflect the core competency standards in the national curriculum guidelines. There was a glaring gap between the intended curriculum and the implemented practices through the textbooks, which were supposed to canalize policy makers' perspectives on what had to be taught and learned. Writers' traditional perspectives existed in the textbooks passed or filtered down to teachers who taught the textbooks. The textbooks placed more emphasis on grammar and language usage though they claimed to include four language skills. Particularly in the textbook for Grade XII, more test practices were included in each of the units. These practices included listening, reading, and grammar tested out in the national examination, which mainly assessed students' knowledge of the language system such as grammar and vocabulary rather than the ability to communicate. This indicates that this high-stakes examination impacted on actual classrooms. Thus, the orientation of the textbooks seemed to prepare students for the national examination.

4.3 English Language Teaching: Lessons Observed

The analyses of data collected from ethnographic classroom observations and fieldnotes offered key findings organized in the following themes: (1) seating arrangement, (2) text and activity delivery, (3) teacher talk, (4) student talk, (5) use of different languages in classrooms, (6) the nature of scaffolding, (7) teacher and student roles, and (8) classroom interactions. These findings portrayed the conditions of English lessons, and thus different classroom discourses shaped their positioning.

Table 4.6 *Conditions of English Language Lessons*

Classroom Events	Classroom Conditions
Seating arrangement	• The classroom space was teacher centered where chairs and tables were arranged into four rows and eight columns facing a whiteboard with a small teacher's desk in front of the classroom. • This row-and-column seating arrangement promoted teacher-student interaction and maintained direct eye

Classroom Events	Classroom Conditions
	contact with the teacher. • Both the teacher and the students interacted in close proximity. • The teachers observed always asked the students questions individually. • There was no small group discussion but pair work. • The students sitting front and center participated more actively in class interaction and in responding to teachers' questions. • This seating arrangement saved teacher lesson time because the teachers needed to finish all the lesson units in the textbooks.
Text and activity delivery	• All the four teachers observed followed a transmission or teacher centered approach to using the textbooks. • They treated the textbook content through unit-by-unit and activity-by-activity classroom practices. • The teachers followed linear-sequence, static-lesson plans, single-source of the student's textbook and instructional prompts without further elaboration. • The teachers relied heavily on textbook content and structure as sources of linguistic input, language explanations, and opportunities for students to practice new or previously learned language input. • They did not skip any sections of the textbooks in order to anticipate what would be tested in high-stakes examinations such as local testing and the national examination. • The teachers treated the textbooks as directives that guided their teaching activities. They were recipients of the textbooks.
Teacher talk	• Teacher discourses of asking questions included nominating or giving the floor, chorus answering, volunteering or student-initiated answering, and student self-answering. • The teachers typically reviewed what the students had learned. • Teachers' instructional talks emphasized providing informational input. • Teachers' motivational talk encouraged the students to participate in in-class activities and to respond to teacher questions. • The teachers asked more display or close questions than referential or open questions. • Both the teachers and the students preferred display or lower cognitive questions because memorization was highly valued in classroom discourses • Teachers' talks predominated in whole-class activities,

Classroom Events	Classroom Conditions
	such as elicitation and feedback, classroom management, and giving instructions. • Teachers' talks were viewed as minimal scaffolding or support because it just shaped how the students worked on the learning activities in the textbooks.
Student talk	• The students responded to teachers' questions in chorus, and a few did voluntarily (self-initiation). • The students participated in adjacency pairs oriented conversations, such as greeting—greeting, question—answer, or request—grant. • Most of the students' responses were situated in a predominantly one-way mode of discourse and controlled and initiated by the teachers. • Student talk was constrained to pair work sitting on the same table and shaped by what the textbooks told them to do. • Much student talk occurred when responding to teacher questions and doing role plays with peers in the classrooms.
Use of different languages in classrooms	• The teachers exclusively used L1 because they were fully aware that the students had been exposed to English only in grammar oriented classrooms. • They preferred to use exclusively Bahasa Indonesia on some occasions to enhance students' comprehension. • In some case, the teachers used a local language, Javanese, to introduce humor and phatic communion in order to create relaxed and anxiety reduced learning atmospheres • The teachers exclusively used English (TL) when opening and closing lessons and asking the students to perform assigned tasks. • They also asked the students questions in English, and they expected them to respond to the questions in TL. • The students used English when playing roles through short dialogs of 3-5 minutes. • The teachers allowed the students to use their L1 and L2. • The functions of L1 and L2 included task clarification, task management, instructional prompts, and lexico-grammar and meaning elicitation discussions. • The teachers frequently used Bahasa Indonesia in the classrooms because they reported that the language mediated students' English learning.
The nature of scaffolding	• The students received a little guidance and advice and no modeling. • They performed role plays through memorization; no text co-construction took place. • The students collaborated with their peers who sat on the

Classroom Events	Classroom Conditions
	same chair, so the students did not have different learning experience with working with other students. • The students mostly worked on assigned tasks individually. • In post-lesson sessions, the teachers did not reinforce what they taught or what the students did, nor did they assign the students more learning opportunities instead of asking the students to review or learn learning activities in the textbooks. • Thus, the textbooks were the sole sources of language learning that the students could access.
Teacher and student roles	• The roles of the teacher were transmitters and assessors of given information encapsulated in the textbooks. For instance, the teachers played roles as grammar knowledge transmitters and checkers. • The teacher was a language knowledge corrector or evaluator. • The students were positioned as recipients of information • The teachers took the role of class authorities. They directed all the activities and framed how the students had to contribute to class participation. • The students were implementers of what the teachers asked them to do. • The teachers spoon-fed the students with all the texts. • The teachers provided little support to the students. • The students had no access to model dialog scripts without sufficient instructional prompts
Classroom interactions	• Classroom interactions took place in pair work and whole-class sessions because the nature of this interaction was led by the teachers as the authorities who controlled all the in-class participation. • The lessons were teacher fronted; as reported earlier, the students worked mostly on pair work and individual work. • The teachers observed followed the mandated textbooks in a straightforward way. The way the teachers managed their classrooms was affected by the textbooks. • The students were not encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning.

Overall, the conditions of English lessons observed reflected teacher-centered English instruction. The teachers directed the students to do language exercises prescribed in the textbooks. The students worked on the exercises confined to rote learning. They did not engage with authentic texts and activities. This is evident in one of the lesson snapshots illustrating the teacher describing a procedure text.

Table 4.7 *Snapshot of an English Lesson Observation*

Turns	Participants	Contributions
21	Teacher	Do you know what is it? ((*The teacher is showing a picture through a PowerPoint slide*))
22	Students	Avocado ((*in chorus*))
23	Teacher	((*The teacher continues to show some pictures, which are ingredients of Avocado Cocktails*))
24	Students	((*naming the ingredients in chorus*))
25	Teacher	By knowing some materials, we are going how to make Es Teller (*fruit cocktails*)…if we write a process paragraph…we need materials and steps
26	Students	((paying attention to the teacher))
27	Teacher	How to make Es Teller?
28	Students	((The students responded to the process in chorus))
29	Teacher	((The teacher asked the students to name key words in English))
30	Students	((Naming words in English in chorus))
31	Teacher	((*She moved to the next section of the textbook without showing the students a complete text of how to make Avocado cocktails*))
32	Teacher	Let's move to the next section, *giving directions*\

In this observation, the teacher did not engage the students in joint text deconstruction. She taught the students how to write a procedure text. She emphasized a schematic structure of the text and guided the students to name and list lexical items; the students did not engage in the process of writing a procedure text. The teacher moved abruptly to the next section of the textbook, *Giving Directions*. The teacher emphasized traditional grammar-based instruction. Other lessons observed showed this kind of instruction. All the teachers observed rigidly followed the textbooks. This observation indicated mastery-based English instruction without involving the students in the actual use of English in authentic texts and activities.

4.4 English Teachers' Knowledge and Beliefs about the Design and Use of Pedagogical Curriculum Materials and English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

Teacher knowledge and beliefs, constructed and developed through learning, training, and experience, are the crux of change in language curriculum materials development, classroom-level language policy making, pedagogical decision making, and assessment practices because both knowledge and beliefs inform teacher's day-to-day behaviors, decision making, and practices in the design and implementation of language programs. Many studies examined teacher knowledge and beliefs about English language teaching in different contexts (e.g., Abdelhafez, 2014; Zhang & Liu, 2014; Zheng & Borg, 2014), but little attention has empirically been paid to the design and use of language curriculum materials. Investigating teacher knowledge and beliefs about pedagogical curriculum materials also provides further impetus for better understanding what teachers think, understand, believe, and do in pedagogical curriculum processes. Therefore, the present study drawing on classroom observation, reflective journal, and informal interview data, investigated domains of teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and practices of curriculum materials language materials, including: (1) underpinning theories, (2) language learning goals and outcomes, (3) roles of teachers and students, (4) roles and types of instructional materials in general and of the prescribed textbook in particular, and (5) Vocational English (VE). Understanding these domains was a starting point for the design and implementation of instructional materials.

Five English teachers shared the same perceptions of curriculum materials, which included curricular guidelines, syllabi, lesson plans, textbooks/coursebooks, and test papers. They regularly prepared these curriculum materials every semester. Firstly, when asked about knowledge and beliefs about underpinning theories, which informed the curriculum materials, **JEK** commented that:

> I believe in CLT. Language is a means of communication. ELT equates with asking my students to communicate in English. To do this, my students need to have sufficient vocabulary and grammar. I think both vocabulary and grammar are foundational skills that my students have to master. These skills are resources for students to do four language skills-based exercises: Listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Often times, I ask my students to perform conversations based on functional speech acts such as *greeting*, *thanking*, *offering* in order to practice the expressions and grammar learned. So, one of my instructional goals is to build

> students' vocabulary and grammar skills and use these skills when doing speaking activities, for example. (Vignette # 1, 20 June 2012)

POL wrote:

> CLT affects the way I teach English. I view language as a vehicle for doing things in a particular context. When I teach the language, I always ask my students to use English to perform any activities inside and outside the classroom. Learning and teaching English should go beyond language skills, but do things using the language. My goal of teaching English is to develop students' English ability to do things socially. (Vignette # 2, 20 June 2012)

Though the two teachers believed in CLT, they perceived ELT differently. JEK conceptualized language as a tool for communication, but POL viewed language as facilitation of social activities. JEK's beliefs were evident in his teaching practice that he oriented his teaching towards grammar based exercises followed by vocabulary drillings. These exercises did not reflect pure CLT. He (personal communication, 22 June 2012) reported that the students needed to build vocabulary and grammar because of their poor English ability. POL emphasized learning language in use through doing things. In the lessons observed, POL encouraged her students to play different roles through dialogs though these activities did not reflect her beliefs. She admitted that she had to follow the activities in the textbooks. For her, the students could practice using English.

Another teacher articulated different beliefs about the nature of language, language learning and teaching as well as learning goals and outcomes.

> For me, language learning and teaching should be functional and situational. Students should practice dialogs based on functional expressions learned, which are relevant to particular speech events or situations. It is also my belief that the students have to learn translate and memorize words and rules in two languages: English and Bahasa Indonesia. They need to compare meanings in the two languages to internalize such words and rules. Asking the students to practice words and rules in the form of dialogs helps them what they studied (**ANI**, a female English teacher). (Vignette # 3, 20 June 2012)

This teacher participant's belief about language learning and teaching is rooted in situational and functional instructional curricula. Simulated speech act exercises are typical of the curricula. In addition, ANI believes that the internalization of vocabulary and grammar should become a habit. This characterizes a grammar translation or behaviorist paradigm in

which mechanical memorization is of top priority. This belief is evident in her teaching practice in the classroom observations; she asked the students to perform dialog and grammar drillings. ANI (personal communication, 22 June 2012) remarked that she had to follow the textbooks in which memorization and drillings dominated, but she sometimes gave her students additional grammar exercises in addition to those in the textbooks. The orientation of her teaching practice remained mechanical drillings. Two English teachers added that:

Table 4.8 Reflective *Vignettes # 4 and # 5 (20 June 2012)*

Teacher Participants	Recounts
KES	I would rather implement a communicative approach to my English instruction. In my view, language is a means of communication and expression. Today, learning English is a passport to global communication. English allows us to interact with others who do not understand both Bahasa Indonesia and any local languages in Indonesia. For example, in our area, more foreign tourists are coming to this town, and many hotels have such tourists. Thus, learning English should enable our students to function in real-life social communication, such as workplaces. For me, students at least know basic English for communication and social interaction. I always ask my students to present in English.
WID	Personally, I prefer using a genre-based approach. To me, language is functional because it enables us to express our thoughts, get things done, convey our messages, and play different social roles. The use of language is attached to social contexts. Learning and teaching English should be directed towards social purposes, audience, and situational contexts. Exploring social genres is a crucial lesson activity, which can stimulate skills-based activities.

KES believed that English was a global language. She conceptualized English as a means of communication and social interaction. This participant contended that learning English had to be designed to help students to communicate in English. Further, WID perceived language as functional. She also argued (personal communication, 20 June 2012) that language was en enabling tool for expressing thoughts, getting things done, conveying messages, and enacting social roles. Her views reflect the core of SFL. She also addressed key features of learning to mean such as purposes, audience, and situational contexts. WID conceptualized lesson activities as exploring social genres. Widi's beliefs about language,

language teaching and teaching, as well as learning goals and outcomes were quite different from other four teachers. The beliefs were drawn from her experience in teaching English in junior high school, which adopted an SFL genre-based approach. Four other teachers had no experience with SFL genre-informed English teaching. This evidence confirms that pre-service and in-service language teacher training did not address SFL-based language pedagogy.

The teacher participants reported different roles of teachers and students listed below.

Table 4.9 *Roles of Teachers and Students*

Participants	Roles of Teachers	Roles of Students
ANI	• Teachers manage and direct all classroom activities, which always encourage students to participate in these activities. • They show the correct use of English.	• Students have to initiate their own learning. • They are able to motivate themeselves to study English independently to improve their English skills
KES	• Teachers should demonstrate good use of the language. • They should help students become users of English. • They should always motivate students to learn and use English outside the classroom.	• Students should be good English users and autonomous learners. • They should build an independent learning habit.
JEK	• Teachers must provide students with useful language input, which facilitates language skills performance. • They need to demonstrate how to perform language skills so that students can follow a lead in this.	• The students can use English well. • They are able to apply vocabulary and grammar to four language skills. • The students have to demonstrate a role model to others.
POL	• It is my responsibility to facilitate English learning. • I encourage the students to do the activities seriously.	• Students are co-collaborators with their peers in doing learning activities. • The students should independently learn English.
WID	• Students will learn best if they are exposed to motivating learning materials. • Teachers play a role in creating innovative materials. • They have to support student learning and make such materials useful to the students.	• Students are supposed to be autonomous learners. • They have to motivate themselves to learn English.

The English teachers addressed different teacher role discourses such as managers, directors, role models, language input providers, motivators, facilitators, and creative teachers. They also viewed students as autonomous learners, self-motivators, role models, and collaborators.

Regarding the roles and types of instructional materials, five English teachers also articulated different beliefs and values of these curriculum artifacts. **JEK** remarked that instructional materials were a blueprint for teachers to facilitate language learning. These materials were learning resources for students. **POL** added that instructional materials had to be motivating and interesting. Motivating materials could encourage students to learn independently, and interesting materials could maintain student motivation to learn. **ANI** argued that roles of instructional materials assisted both teachers and students to take roles as explorers: learning beyond what was written in the textbook. **KES** reported that instructional materials should present real-life language input and prepare the students for real-life communication. **WID** maintained that instructional materials had to be facilitative and motivating. In principle, Widi's view about the roles of instructional materials was similar to that of JEK, POL, and ANI. All the teacher participants were positive about the roles of language materials. When asked about the types of the materials they valued, five English teachers reported their preferred lesson activities. Here is a summary of preferred lesson activities along with reasons underlying choices of lesson activities.

Table 4.10 *Preferred Lesson Activities*

Teachers	Preferred Lesson Activities	Underlying Reasons
JEK	- Grammar (drill exercises) - Vocabulary (dictionary use) - Translation exercise - Pronunciation (repeated reading) - Reading (oral reading & reading comprehension) - Speaking (role playing)	- Prepare students for *Ujian Nasional* - Help students achieve a minimal competence standard of 7 out of 10 - Build students' strong vocabulary and grammar knowledge - Use of Spoken English - Build students' self confidence
POL	- Listening (listening comprehension) - Reading (reading comprehension) - Speaking (role playing) - Language focus exercises (grammar and vocabulary)	- Follow the prescribed or mandated textbook - Prepare students for *Ujian Nasional* - Help students achieve a minimal competence standard of 7 out of 10.

Teachers	Preferred Lesson Activities	Underlying Reasons
ANI	- Grammar (drill exercises) - English conversation exercises (dialogs)	- Prepare students for *Ujian Nasional* - Help students achieve a minimal competence standard of 7 out of 10 - Train students basic spoken English
KES	- Translation drills - Listening (listening comprehension) - Reading (reading comprehension) - Speaking (role playing) - Grammar - Written quizzes	- Prepare students for *Ujian Nasional* - Improve students' English language proficiency - Equip students with basic language skills
WID	- Grammar (drill exercises) - Reading (reading comprehension) - Teacher dictation - Speaking (role playing) - Language awareness activities (text type and genre)	- Prepare students for *Ujian Nasional* - Help students achieve a minimal competence standard of 7 out of 10 - Build students' strong vocabulary and grammar knowledge - Use of Spoken English - Build students' self confidence - Enhance students' language awareness of text types and genres

The teacher participants emphasized comprehension-based language exercises. The goals of the exercises were to prepare students for the *Ujian Nasional* as a high-stakes examination, to meet lesson hours based on the prescribed textbook, and to equip students' with basic general English. The first goal of English instruction suggested that the national examination shaped comprehension-based language instruction, which demanded a right response from the student who had to 'correctly' answer the questions. This instruction obscures the active and dynamic process of meaning making that requires real response and dynamic interaction with texts. The second goal indicated that the teachers adopted a mastery approach to English learning. The students studied English through memorization-oriented exercises. The third goal suggested that the students did not need to learn English relevant to their vocational specialization. One of the English teachers said vocational teachers had to teach the students vocational English.

Because the English teachers taught in the secondary vocational education context, it is important to examine their practical knowledge and beliefs about Vocational English (VE). The teachers expressed their perceptions of VE listed below.

Table 4.11 *Teachers' Knowledge about Vocational English*

JEK (Vignette # 10, 20 June 2012)
Honestly, I do not know much about Vocational English. When I studied for a Bachelor in English education, I learned ESP. I think Vocational English is the kind of ESP. So far, I have never taught ESP because I believe that my students need general English.

POL (Vignette # 10, 20 June 2012)
For me, Vocational English is an English lesson for students who need to learn English relevant to student area of study. I have taught general English because the textbook does not include ESP though the title of the textbook suggests English for Vocational Schools. I sometimes asked my students to find texts related to their field, but I am not sure if such texts were really the core of what they were studying.

ANI (Vignette # 10, 20 June 2012)
Vocational English is English that includes technical terms commonly used in a particular technical area. This is what I have found in ESP textbooks such as English for Banking, English for Business, and English for Hotel and Restaurant. They just list key technical vocabulary along with comprehension questions and even together with translation exercises.

KES (Vignette # 10, 20 June 2012)
Vocational English is a small portion of ESP courses. This is a common practice in higher education. I have no teaching experience in ESP. I think that it is vocational teacher responsibility for teaching Vocational English. I do not know how to select vocational texts. I received no training in this area.

WID (Vignette # 10, 20 June 2012)
Although I teach in a vocational school, I do not teach Vocational English. We were supposed to provide students with this kind of English along with general English. My dream was to receive training in Vocational English. I could also collaborate with vocational teachers in designing Vocational English materials.

Table 4.11 indicated that the teachers lacked pedagogical content knowledge about VE. The teachers received no training and collegial support regarding the design of Vocational English materials. In the Indonesian context, there was no specific requirement for teaching English in vocational schools as long as teachers had teaching certification issued by issuing universities, which offered a bachelor in education. These teachers were also successfully recruited by local governments through Offices of Education. The findings also

suggested that there was a need for providing training in VE for the participants because both content and pedagogical knowledge of VE were a catalyst for the design and use of VE materials. Without this knowledge, the teacher participants would be resistant to innovation in this pedagogical practice. Teacher prior experience and expertise is the key to successful language materials development. In the literature of teacher professional learning, Richardson (1996) concludes that sources of teachers' pedagogical beliefs include personal experience as learners, experience with school and instruction, and experience with formal knowledge: both subject (content) knowledge and pedagogical knowledge.

4.5 Students' Voices: Goals, Interests, and Expectations of English Learning

Student voice in the educational domain has been a critical part of embodied action, participation, and change. Students, seen as members of school and classroom communities, deserve the right to articulate their learning agendas such as goals, interests, and expectations. In this study, voice is defined as participation in democratic learning processes and right (to be heard and to have a say). Student voices provide perspectives (e.g., vision, goals, expectations, agendas), life experience, and knowledge, which convey historically, socially, and culturally multi-layered meanings. Faux, McFarlane, Roche, and Facer (2006) argue that student voice is perceived as a process leading to empowerment through active engagement so that they can express views, intent, beliefs, motivation, and motives regarding their language learning experiences. Students are viewed as teacher co-collaborators and agents of pedagogical curriculum development and change because they are actual actors and teacher partners in pedagogical curriculum processes. Previous studies suggest that student voice plays an essential role in evaluating educational opportunities and making meaningful educational change (Posti-Ahokas & Lehtomäki, 2014). To extend this scholarship, 20 student participants were invited to attend focus group discussions and interviews in order to explore students' learning experiences and agendas. In addition, they were invited to write a short reflective diary about their English learning formally and informally. Drawing from these data, the analysis focused on (1) looking at students' experiences in English learning; (2) seeing and understanding the students' perspectives; and (3) listening to previously ignored or marginalized voices (Seale, 2010).

First, the students were asked about their journey in English learning from elementary school to senior high school (Year 2, Term 1) because in the second year (Term 2), they

participated in the project until the third year (Term 1). Few participants reported that they started their English learning in kindergarten. Generally, the student participants started learning English in primary school. Some began learning English in Year 1, and others started to learn English in Years 3-5. It is important to note that the teaching of English in primary schools started in 1994. English is an elective or optional subject in primary schools, depending on whether they employ English teachers and have sufficient learning resources (Hawanti, 2014). In primary school, the participants reported that they learned basic English vocabulary concerning their daily life and activities. The teachers told them to memorize between 20 and 50 English words per week. In classes, the teachers checked whether they had recalled the words memorized. In addition, the students were asked to translate short sentences from English to Bahasa Indonesian and vice versa. They also studied foundational English grammar. As the participants recounted, they learned English through singing songs, in which total physical response-oriented activities were adopted (Widodo, 2005). Thus, the goals of English learning in primary school were to introduce the participants to basic English and to make them love learning English although some participants acknowledged that they did not find English learning useful because the teachers were not trained English teachers; they were class teachers. This human resource concern was also reported in a study by Hawanti (2014). As a whole, the participants experienced memorization and drilling based English learning.

In junior high school, the participants reported that they did typical activities such as decontextualized grammar exercises, vocabulary memorization, and translation drillings. Their teachers just tested their comprehension; they never taught how vocabulary and grammar were used in context through texts. In short, the English teachers did not teach English communicatively, and they oriented their teaching towards activities, which typified grammar translation and audio-lingual methods. Additionally, the students commented that the teachers dictated the way they learned English through drilling-based activities. The student participants remarked that the teachers focused on vocabulary and grammar exercises, which aimed for the national examination. The participants also experienced the same drilling activities when they were in senior high school over one and a half years (Year 1: Terms 1-2 and Year 2: Term 1). For instance, the student participants perceived writing activity as writing grammatically correct decontextualized sentences. Students' testimonies indicate that they engaged in mechanical drills. What the students reported are consistent with data from the textbook analysis and the classroom observations that mechanical and

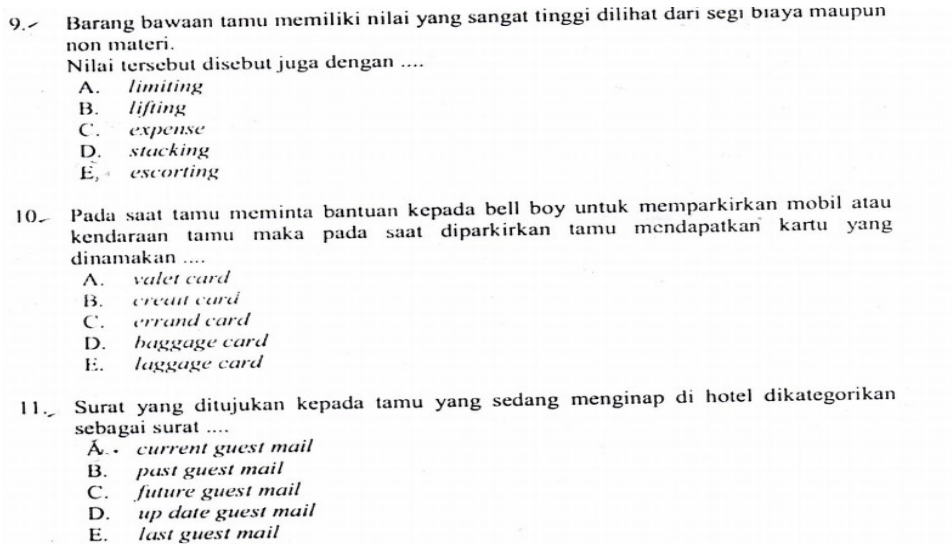
cognitive demanding exercises dominated in-class activities in the prescribed textbooks. The analysis of focus group data reveals that though the students had studied grammar since junior high school, they still had difficulties applying grammar to practice because they used to do decontextualized grammar exercises. This evidence shows that such exercises still exist in the textbooks used by the teachers. Vocabulary building and grammar learning were not perceived as a resource for meaning making and a tool for knowledge building and experience reconstruction. Vocabulary and grammar were still seen as the object of language study rather viewed as language resources for seeing language at a discourse level as a tool for building meaning in a text.

Over one and a half years in senior high school, the students experienced the examination oriented language drillings. They admitted that nothing was different from their previous learning experience in junior high school and primary school. They reported disappointment and boredom regarding the exercises they did. They expected that they would learn something new in the school because they were aware that English could be an asset for them. They also realized that being competent in English was a passport to their work or academic career. They lamented that the prescribed curriculum and textbook just spoon fed them. The students expressed their concerns about imposition of what to learn without affording them the opportunity to voice their learning goals, interests, and agendas. They said that teaching and testing did not make any difference. They felt that they were the object of the mandated curriculum and victims of the educational systems. The discourses of students' disappointment, boredom, and struggle provide insights into the realities of students within the examination-oriented system. This system keeps students captive to dominant interests, notions, and practices and prevents teachers from listening to students' voices. The students also remarked that their English learning was passive and compliant. They did not have the opportunity to voice what to learn. Participants' experience in English learning under study is similar to that of other Asian English students, in which the form-based or decontextualized examination system is deeply rooted in the educational domain (Hadzantonis, 2013; Kirkpatrick & Zang, 2011; Liyanage, Bartlett, & Tao, 2014). This learning does not recognize how cognitive capabilities develop through social interaction where language and meaning should be emphasized. Such instruction seeks to meet prescribed curriculum, instruction, and assessment requirements and expectations.

In Years 11 (Term 2) and 12 (Term 1), the students expected that they would learn

something different from what they learned. Three groups of students: hotel hospitality and management, accounting, and computer engineering expressed different expectations. To begin with, the students majoring in hotel management and hospitality expressed the importance of learning English, which prepared them for employment because many hotels require their receptionists or hotel staff with a good job position to be competent in English. Having sufficient English ability would give the students an advantage in the job market. Some reported that they at least could read English medium texts because all information about hotel services is written in English. The participants observed that many terminologies in hotel hospitality and management textbooks are adopted from English (e.g., hotel = *hotel*, receptionist = *resepsionis*, reservation = *reservasi*). Therefore, vocational teachers provided the students with a list of vocational vocabulary though the presentation of the vocabulary was decontextualized. The students also reported (personal communication, 2 July 2012) that when they did vocational test exercises, they found that more than 40% of technical terms in English made up of test items as shown in Figure 4.8.

Figure 4.8 *Hotel Hospitality and Management Test Items*



9. Barang bawaan tamu memiliki nilai yang sangat tinggi dilihat dari segi biaya maupun non materi.
Nilai tersebut disebut juga dengan ....
A. *limiting*
B. *lifting*
C. *expense*
D. *stacking*
E. *escorting*

10. Pada saat tamu meminta bantuan kepada bell boy untuk memparkirkan mobil atau kendaraan tamu maka pada saat diparkirkan tamu mendapatkan kartu yang dinamakan ....
A. *valet card*
B. *credit card*
C. *errand card*
D. *baggage card*
E. *laggage card*

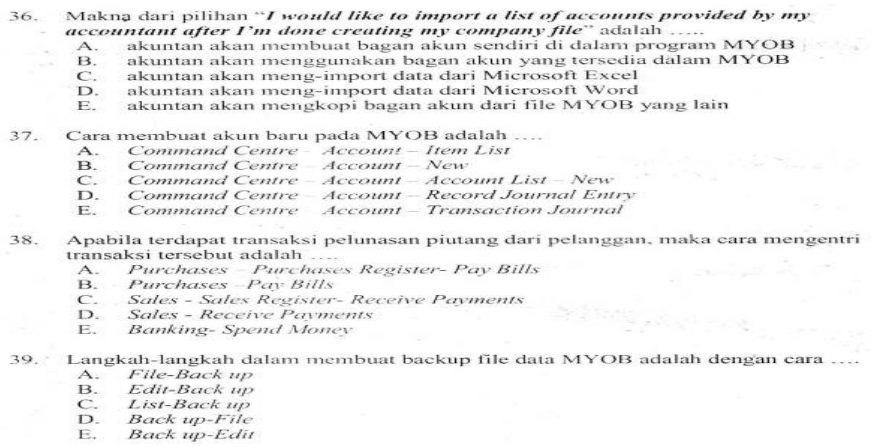
11. Surat yang ditujukan kepada tamu yang sedang menginap di hotel dikategorikan sebagai surat ....
A. *current guest mail*
B. *past guest mail*
C. *future guest mail*
D. *up date guest mail*
E. *last guest mail*

Others pointed out that some vocational subject teachers asked them to read English medium vocational texts. To support this, the vocational teachers expected the English teachers to socialize the students into such texts. Access to English medium texts would be the key to building a reading habit. The students also articulated that the school offers overseas on-the-job training in four or five starred hotels. Some of the students underwent this program. They argued that vocational English would better prepare their juniors for this internship program. They also expressed a need for learning English because their area is a

foreign tourist destination. Some of the students said that vocational English could prepare them for continuing further studies into higher education because most of the textbooks are written in English. All the hotel management and hospitality students expected that English lessons could provide them with English materials relevant to their specialization.

The accounting students reported that the accounting teachers taught some accounting subjects in English. The accounting teachers asked them to do tasks in English, such as summarizing vocational texts, presenting vocational texts orally, and reading accounting texts. These tasks aimed to encourage the students to learn in English through their vocational area. The students reported that they had to develop their English ability. They pointed out that the goals of English learning were two-fold: developing general English and building vocational English. Despite this, the vocational teachers did not explain how particular features of language worked because they were not language teachers. The students focused merely on content, not on language. They expected that English could support their accounting competency. The students also said that general English should be complemented by Accounting English for future careers. Like hotel hospitality and management students, accounting students aimed for further studies into higher education. For this reason, they prioritized Accounting English, which built their accounting knowledge and language. They also argued that most of the advanced accounting textbooks are written in English. One accounting student pointed out that she would like to become a global professional accountant; therefore, she wanted to learn English for such a job. The accounting students acknowledged that many accounting textbooks are translated or written into Bahasa Indonesia are less of quality than those written in English. Similar to the case of hotel hospitality and management, accounting terms were also included in the accounting test papers.

Figure 4.9 *Accounting Test Items*



36. Makna dari pilihan "***I would like to import a list of accounts provided by my accountant after I'm done creating my company file***" adalah .....
   A. akuntan akan membuat bagan akun sendiri di dalam program MYOB
   B. akuntan akan menggunakan bagan akun yang tersedia dalam MYOB
   C. akuntan akan meng-import data dari Microsoft Excel
   D. akuntan akan meng-import data dari Microsoft Word
   E. akuntan akan mengkopi bagan akun dari file MYOB yang lain

37. Cara membuat akun baru pada MYOB adalah ....
   A. *Command Centre – Account – Item List*
   B. *Command Centre – Account – New*
   C. *Command Centre – Account – Account List – New*
   D. *Command Centre – Account – Record Journal Entry*
   E. *Command Centre – Account – Transaction Journal*

38. Apabila terdapat transaksi pelunasan piutang dari pelanggan, maka cara mengentri transaksi tersebut adalah ....
   A. *Purchases – Purchases Register- Pay Bills*
   B. *Purchases –Pay Bills*
   C. *Sales - Sales Register- Receive Payments*
   D. *Sales - Receive Payments*
   E. *Banking- Spend Money*

39. Langkah-langkah dalam membuat backup file data MYOB adalah dengan cara ....
   A. *File-Back up*
   B. *Edit-Back up*
   C. *List-Back up*
   D. *Back up-File*
   E. *Back up-Edit*

This evidence indicates the important role of English in knowledge building. Understanding particular accounting terms touch not only on naming but on understanding how these terms construct or relate particular accounting concepts, such as journal entries and *MYOB* (Mind Your Own Business) as shown in the accounting test items above. To understand these terms, the students needed to engage in actual social practices in the accounting domain.

Computer engineering majors under study reported the need for learning vocational English (VE) because in their work career, many firms or industries prefer applicants with English ability both spoken and written. In the area of IT, the participants admitted that program language and manuals were written in English. Many the participants acknowledged that they understood how to operate particular programs and install software, for example because they relied upon their vocational teachers. In addition, they depended on Bahasa Indonesia medium software and computer program manuals. For instance, one of the participants reported that a coding program was completely in English. She said that they had to learn English more seriously for this purpose. The participants reported that they made the intensive use of English when they read English written manuals. By learning VE, the students argued that they could deepen their vocational knowledge and encouraged them to learn more English. Some of the participants voiced the need for learning English to prepare them for tertiary studies because they wanted to become professionals in IT competent in English. This voice was similar to voices of the student participants majoring in hotel hospitality and management and accounting. The students had to face a challenge of understanding vocational concepts in English in both their routine vocational lessons and vocational test in the national examination (*Ujian Nasional*).

The students experienced the same realities of learning the English language as I did as an English learner in vocational secondary school in 1994. It has been 18 years (1994-2012) that nothing changed in English language instruction, particularly in the vocational secondary education sector though English language curricula proposed change in theoretical orientations. Given the importance of ESP lessons in the school curriculum in terms of educational and human resource investment, it seems slightly contradictory that Indonesian curriculum developers have yet to emphasize English programs, which are oriented to vocational education and English teachers who teach in this educational domain are not afforded professional opportunities to receive training in ESP programs. There is an urgent need for connecting English language programs to vocational areas, in which

students are involved to design English programs, which cater to their actual needs for the actual use of English. The National Education System Act of 2003 opens up this possibility of localizing school curriculum and pedagogical curriculum. Both teachers and students as co-collaborators should be entrusted to jointly set learning goals and agendas. This collective responsibility creates emancipation, engagement, empowerment, and sense of learning ownership (Widodo, in press).

CHAPTER 5

Negotiating Participatory Vocational English (VE) Materials Design

Chapter 4 has presented findings relating to the conditions of English language teaching in the Indonesian vocational high school context, which was examined through both a macro and micro lens. The foci were English language teaching from policy makers' and textbook writers' perspectives, English language classrooms, English teachers' knowledge and beliefs about English language materials development, and students' perceptions of English language learning. Informed by these findings, Chapter 5 revisits my research question: *What factors influenced participatory language development?* This design was participatory in nature because it was a staged process of negotiated collaboration between the teachers, the students, the school administrators, and the researcher. This negotiated collaboration required sustained dialogue and engagement, in which all stakeholders were involved in the entire curriculum design process. This chapter presents analyses and interpretation of informal interviews, field notes, and reflective journals. The themes identified are: (1) negotiating the design of VE materials, (2) collegial training and mentorship as an avenue of teacher learning, and (3) decision making processes in VE materials design. These themes offered some evidence of the extent to which VE curriculum materials were created through collaboration, dialogue, and negotiation.

5.1 Negotiating the Design of Vocational English Materials: Meeting Different Expectations of School Administrators, Vocational Teachers, English Teachers, and Students

This study placed the locus of negotiating the design of Vocational English (VE) materials because these materials would be included in the school curriculum. For this reason, the English teachers, the vocational teachers, the students, and the researcher worked as a team on the design of VE materials, in which the school administrators facilitated this design process. A shift from teaching General English (GE) to Vocational English (VE) in curriculum materials required a process of negotiation in a local context. To do this, the English teachers and I as a co-collaborator designed VE materials in order to cater to the goals, interests, and expectations of students while meeting the requirements of the

mandated curriculum. The design of VE materials was viewed as negotiated intervention or innovation, overtly researcher initiated and guided. As a researcher, I had a definite agenda to intervene to change pedagogical practice, and I made this intent explicit when negotiating access to the site with the school policy makers and when recruiting student and teacher participants (Khoo & Cowie, 2011). Before I report how I discussed and negotiated the project with the school administrators, it is important to sketch the nature of a negotiated collaborative teacher design. The term, teacher design, is referred to as teacher capacity to design curriculum materials, which include lesson plans, syllabi, and language materials (Huizinga, Handelzalts, Nieveen, & Voogt, 2014).

5.1.1 The Nature of Negotiated Collaborative Teacher Design

There were two levels of negotiation: school-level negotiation and classroom-level negotiation. At the school level, the English teachers convened a meeting with the school administrators where we discussed school expectations. At the classroom level, we discussed and negotiated with both the teachers and the students what the students wanted to learn.

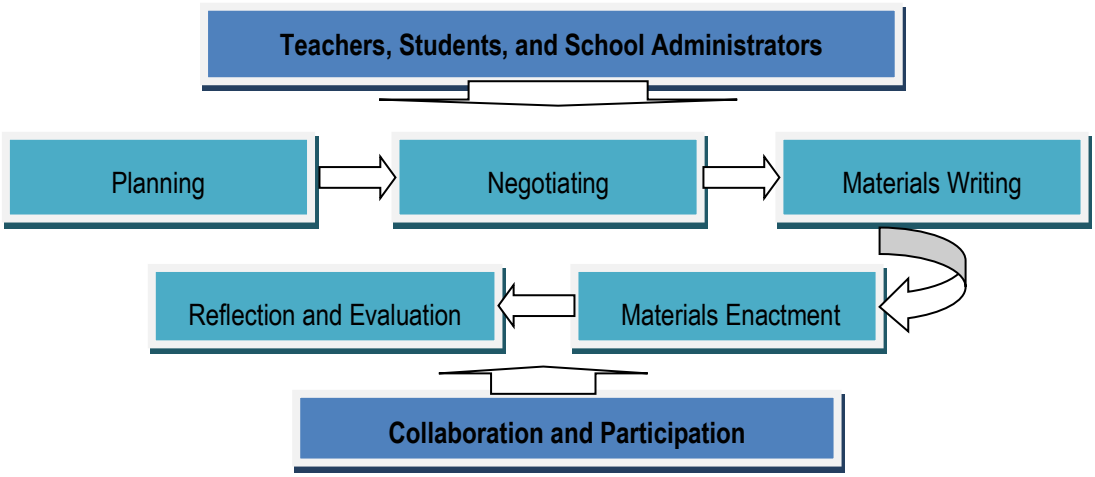
I teamed up with the appointed teachers and the school administrators. The team participating in the project consisted of three English teachers who were commissioned to teach students in the third year; three vocational subject teachers who taught bilingually (English and Bahasa Indonesia); and two school administrators (the school principal and the vice principal who was in charge of curriculum development). The team members were involved in staged negotiation processes. In this context, negotiation means seeking, discussing or talking, sharing, and acting upon the ideas, perspectives, and opinions of all the participants involved in decision making processes (Sproston, 2008). This negotiation afforded all the participants the opportunity to have input into decisions about the roles they played, curriculum materials content, project timelines and resources, as well as logistic support available. The participants were also invited to make and act upon the decisions were acted upon, and they engaged in exercising choice. In this negotiation process, all the team members were invited to contribute to the curriculum materials development process.

It is important to note that in the educational landscape, inviting student participants as one of the major stakeholder groups to contribute to VE materials design is seen as a grassroots led or bottom-up negotiation process (Critchley, 2003). This negotiation process was

essential for re-visioning or assessing educational opportunities, in which the students voiced their concerns, perspectives, interests, vision, and agendas. Engaging the students in meaningful tasks and activities potentially ignites and sustains their interests in learning English as a long-term investment both in the learning journey and in the outcomes. The students were afforded the opportunity to speak, particularly in a curriculum materials design process in order to recognize their agency (e.g., meaning makers), voice (e.g., what to learn), and role identities (e.g., text navigators). Within the study, the student participants were invited to provide input for curriculum materials development through interviews, focus groups, and informal conversations throughout the project.

Dialogue with the teacher participants aimed to understand their perspectives, knowledge, and beliefs. In this regard, the teachers were given the opportunity to exercise their agency and enact their different roles identities in the school-based curriculum materials design process. Because negotiation was an on-going and dynamic process of communication and decision making, the entire process of negotiation took place at different stages of curriculum activities, as represented in the following figure.

Figure 5.1 *Different Stages of Curriculum Activities*



The collaborative and participatory curriculum materials design process moved back and forth to inform and impact on one another. Wenger (1998) proposes that such a design is a catalyst for the sharing and distribution of knowledge and expertise among participants in such a way that each participant has something to contribute and something to learn. Thus, teacher development and involvement are central features of the project. Throughout the negotiation process, students' and teachers' perspectives, ideas, and opinions were taken into account in curriculum materials-related decisions. The students were co-collaborators

with the teachers. This was the essence of a participatory pedagogical curriculum materials development process, which was experiential, dialogic, contextual, and learning centered. School-level policy makers' expectations, teachers' voices, and students' input were equally important or balanced. As the researcher, I acted as resource person, mentor, and facilitator. I enacted these different role identities in order to build and maintain a participatory and negotiated curriculum materials design. Thus, participatory and negotiated approaches were adopted to build professional learning communities (PLCs) as an avenue to enhance collaboration and support among the teachers, the students, the school administrators, and me as a partner in the entire curriculum materials design process (Harlacher, Sakelaris, & Kattelman, 2014).

The team also discussed what roles team members would play, as a description of these roles could facilitate collaboration and build commitment. We identified and agreed to take on different roles as listed below.

Table 5.1 *Roles of Team Members in Participatory VE Materials Design*

Team Members	Roles
Researcher	Leader, mentor, resource person, co-writer
English teachers	Professional learner/mentee, co-writer, curriculum materials makers/designer/organizer
Vocational subject teachers	Co-collaborator, resource person
School administrators	Advisor
Students	Co-Collaborator, input provider, partner

It is important to bear in mind that in addition to playing the roles above, I maintained my role as an ethnographer whose task was to observe and examine social phenomena in the educational domain. With these roles in mind, the design of VE lesson units was viewed as a curriculum materials development process and as an investigative endeavor in tandem. I immersed myself in the school setting for 13 months by observing classes and conversing with the school community members on a daily basis. I was considered as an insider and commissioned by the school principal to lead the team designing VE materials, which took the form of lesson units. The school put personal and professional trust, and teaming up with school community members built professional collaboration or partnership. The school administrators as school-level policy makers facilitated the collaboration. As a team, the school community members and I committed to promoting and sustaining the collaboration.

I led a discussion about how the project could benefit the English teacher participants. For this reason, we talked about their expectations of the project. These expectations were as follows:

1) teacher involvement in a collaborative curriculum materials design as part of teacher learning and professional development;
2) full support of training and mentorship throughout the project;
3) the sharing of project outcomes with other English teachers outside the school;
4) team teaching in the use of materials;
5) additional assistance of training students for the national examination (*Ujian Nasional*).

I supported these expectations, and then we talked about who would be involved in the project. This initial negotiation sought to ask teacher support and encourage teacher participation in the design of VE materials. In addition to teacher support, seeking institutional support would be the point of departure for the project to develop. In addition, this authority-level negotiation aimed to better understand institutional culture and expectations in the knowledge that a school has social systems, norms, and values, which could foster or hinder collaboration or partnership in the curriculum materials design project. Additionally, these initial meetings aimed to discuss and negotiate specific roles of materials, content, project timelines, logistic support, and roles of the team members involved.

5.1.2 Negotiated VE Materials Development

Placing newly created materials on the official or mandated curriculum agenda requires the endorsement of the managers of the curriculum. For this reason, negotiating this project with the school administrators facilitated a series of materials design processes. The involvement of school leaders in the curriculum materials development program provided the opportunity to negotiate any differences between differing beliefs, goals, expectations, and agendas as well as building consensus in working towards a shared vision of learning and teaching. For this reason, I began to negotiate the design of VE materials with school community members in the effort to create new materials as a resource for students who were prepared for learning English in use and building content knowledge through English based on their vocational areas. This effort was compatible with the vision and mission of the school: preparing competent students with sufficient English ability for vocational

employment and further study in which English is required (The School Annual Report, 2012).

Before I reported the findings of the context analysis to the school administrators, I discussed these with the English teachers. I discussed critical issues in the prescribed textbooks as well as the voice of the students. Following this meeting, the English teachers and I reported what we discussed to the school administrators. In response to this report, the school principal (personal communication, field note, 15 July 2012) agreed to support the team to create materials, which benefited the students and also the teachers as part of professional learning. The school principal expected that the materials designed could be a prototype for further materials development. He envisioned that this one-year materials design project could also be a catalyst for pedagogical and curriculum innovation and for teacher professional development. He added that by developing English materials regularly at least every two years, the school could provide students with teaching materials, which met their needs, interests, goals, and expectations. The school principal confirmed that he gave full autonomy to the team to design VE materials as long as these materials assisted the students to develop their English ability and motivated the students to use English as a tradition or social practice as opposed to using it for the for the school and national school leaving examinations. He commented that:

> Kami sudah menyediakan buku-buku kejuruan yang berbahasa Inggris dengan harapan para siswa bisa memanfaatkan untuk **memperluas pengetahuan kejuruan** mereka. Kami berharap bahwa **materi Bahasa Inggris kejuruan** ini **mencakup teks** yang ada di **buku-buku tersebut** sehingga bisa membantu para siswa untuk **memahami teks berbahasa Inggris** dengan baik. Jadi, ada **keterkaitan** antara **muatan kejuruan** dengan **pelajaran Bahasa Inggris**. Hal ini akan **memotivasi** para siswa kami untuk **membaca mandiri** untuk **mendalam pengetahuan kejuruan** yang mereka minati (**KAR**, personal communication, field note, 15 July 2012).
>
> [We already have collections of vocational books written in English in the hope that students can utilize these resources to broaden their vocational knowledge. We hope that vocational English materials can include texts in the books in order to assist the students to understand such texts well. Thus, both vocational content and English lessons should be integrated. This will encourage our students to read independently in order to deepen their vocational knowledge.]

The bold (in Bahasa Indonesia) or underlined (in English) wordings indicate the school principal's expectations. First, he emphasized the use of textbooks as a resource for knowledge building. To optimize this use, the principal expected that the English materials could include vocational texts. This wording, *understand such texts well*, shows that the

school concern was about vocational knowledge building as one of the learning goals. Second, the use of modality, *should*, implies that it was teacher responsibility to make the integration of content and language possible. Content based English materials were expected to help students build vocational knowledge in addition to developing English. In other words, the school principal indicates that content based English materials were relevant to students' vocational experience. The integration of content and language could build student motivation for independent reading and knowledge building. Three distinct discourses, *integration of English and content*, *independent reading*, and *vocational knowledge building*, contextualize learning and teaching goals, which moved beyond what the official curriculum expected the students to do.

Two vice principals for student development and curriculum development respectively responded positively to the proposed project. To begin with, **SOL**, a vice school principal for student development, (personal communication, field note, 15 July 2012) added that this project could prepare the recruited students for immediate employment. One of the vocational secondary school goals, SOL pointed out**,** was to prepare students to gain employment, though he admitted that nowadays many of school leavers continue their studies into tertiary education. He said:

> **Menurut saya**, kebanyakan dunia industri mencari **lulusan kita** yang memiliki **kompetensi Bahasa Inggris yang memadai**. Dengan melatih siswa kita **Bahasa Inggris kejuruan**, hal ini akan membantu **membekali lulusan kita** untuk **bersaing di dunia kerja**. Khususnya, bagi **para lulusan yang kemampuan ekonominya lemah**, program ini dapat membekali mereka bisa bahasa Inggris **yang mungkin diperlukan** di dunia kerja nantinya.
>
> [In my view, many industries or employers are looking for our graduates or school leavers with sufficient English competence. Training our students vocational English helps our students prepare for competitive job markets. Particularly, for students from economically disadvantaged families, this program will provide them with English, which may be needed in a workplace].

SOL's personalized statement highlights the importance of English in the workplace. The use of these words, *many industries* and *employers*, recognizes the fact that English ability puts school leavers at an advantage in an increasingly competitive job market because English is a professional competency. This vice principal suggested that the VE program would benefit economically disadvantaged students who would go for immediate employment.

Another vice principal, **UDI**, added that:

> Saya kira tidak hanya untuk bekal kerja tapi untuk **studi lanjut**. Saat ini, lulusan kita juga ingin **melanjutkan studi lanjut ke perguruan tinggi**. Dengan adanya teknologi dan keilmuan yang pesat, **Bahasa Inggris** sangat diperlukan untuk **sukses kuliah** dan yang jelas dengan **Bahasa Inggris**, mereka bisa **memperluas cakrawal keilmuan** mereka karena bisa **mengakses beragam bacaan berbahasa Inggris**. Nantinya mereka akan siap **bersaing** di **pasar kerja global** ketika lulus kuliah.
>
> [I think that English is important for both work and further study. At present, our graduates or school leavers wish to further their studies into higher or tertiary education. With the development of technology and science, English plays a crucial role in the success of completing higher education degrees. With English, our students are able to deepen their knowledge because they can access a range of English medium resources. They will have a competitive advantage in a global job market after graduating from university].

UDI contended that vocational secondary school leavers would be at advantage if they had a sufficient command of English for both immediate employment and further study. This argument stresses the crucial roles of English in workplace and academic life. The expectation of the school is that it provided its school leavers with English competence. English competence is an important tool for participating and succeeding in both academic and professional settings (Graves, 2008). The school principal (personal communication, 15 July 2012) added that the students who were sufficiently competent in English would be sent overseas for on-the-job training. This on-the-job training was one of the curriculum requirements that all the students had to undergo in in the second year (Term 1). In vocational education, this type of training is a strategic approach to making a successful transition from school to work (Akkerman & Bakker, 2012).

The school administrators recognized the need for developing students' communicative competence, fostering student autonomy, making the connection between English learning and vocational learning, providing more access to learning resources, and supplementing curriculum materials, which were unstated (hidden curriculum) or left out (null curriculum) of the official curriculum and prescribed textbooks. The school administrators' expectations also addressed the roles of teachers as classroom-level policy makers who could make both the hidden curriculum and the null curriculum explicit in their pedagogical practices. The school administrators also expected that the proposed project could supplement current curriculum materials. Thus, the school administrators positively endorsed the project.

The school administrators also welcomed the vocational subject or content teachers to engage in the project. They commented that both English teachers and vocational subject teachers could support each other. In this partnership, the vocational subject teachers could suggest vocational texts, specialist knowledge, themes, concepts, and topics relevant to students' vocational areas. Moreover, this collaboration could draw the English teachers towards the vocational knowledge, texts, topics, and vocabulary the students learned in their vocational classes (Kuzborska, 2011). In this way, the vocational subject teachers supported the English teachers and me as a co-collaborator to better understand the specialist language of students' vocations, which could be technical and abstract. This specialist language is the key to making meaning and engaging with disciplinary or specialist knowledge (Woodward-Kron, 2008). All the English teachers were enthusiastic about this collaboration. JEK, the English coordinator, proposed that "bekerjasama dengan guru kejuruan akan sangat membantu kita banyak dalam pemilihan teks kejuruan [collaborating with vocational subject teachers would benefit us in terms of vocational text selection]" (JEK, personal communication, field note, 15 July 2012).

The findings of the study showed that a locally-driven curriculum materials design required negotiation and collaboration with the policy makers and the actual actors who experienced curriculum materials. School leadership opened up collaboration, extensive collegial conversation, and mutual lesson observations, which were an integral part of teachers' practices (Tong, 2010). The collaboration provided the opportunity to discuss, share, and negotiate language materials design as a way to remake the prescribed curriculum. The negotiated language materials design recognizes the active roles of teachers as curriculum materials makers. It could have an impact on pedagogical innovation or change, which benefited students. It also contributed to the professionalism of teachers actively involved, and to school capacity building.

5.3 Collegial Training and Mentorship: Teacher Learning in VE Materials Design

To engage the teacher participants in a participatory language materials development process, collegial training, and mentorship were provided. The participating teachers needed to understand concepts and theories guiding this design. Based on the data of teacher knowledge and beliefs about English language materials development reported in Chapter 4, the teachers were a lack of pedagogical content knowledge about language

materials development. The textbook analysis also showed that there was a discrepancy between the theory (contextual teaching and learning or CTL) claimed and the learning activities in the textbooks. Both the textbook writers and the teachers did not appear to be conversant with the notions of CLT, which informed the textbooks. The teachers failed to translate this theory into lessons. Nunan (2003) and Zhang and Liu (2014) reported that teachers' beliefs have a bearing on educational change (e.g., curriculum change). With this finding in mind, and in order to ensure the successful translation of theoretically informed curriculum materials design into sound pedagogical practice, it was clear that the teacher participants in the study needed to understand SFL relevant theories, which underpinned the design and the pedagogical practices.

Collegial training and mentorship were part of teacher development and involvement critical to the success of curriculum materials enactment. Therefore, before discussing and negotiating the design of VE materials, the English teachers and I talked about the possibility of providing collegial training and mentorship spanning 13 months. The nature of the training and mentorship was negotiated, which moved beyond one-off and technical training and mentorship sessions, of questionable value in promoting in-depth conceptual and practice change. In this study, both the teachers and the researcher engaged in collegial training and mentorship as professional learning processes. In this enterprise, I served as a facilitator who trained and mentored the English teachers. The nature of training and mentorship was collegial in ways that allowed for the exchange of practical experience and expertise. Both training and mentorship provided teachers with school-based and classroom-level development opportunities in order to optimize teacher learning and satisfaction (Shawer, 2010a). This exchange created a professional atmosphere, which recognized teacher agency or the capacity to make curricular decisions and to put such decisions into practice as well as the capability of engaging in building their knowledge base and skills (Newman, Samimy, & Romstedt, 2010).

It is also important to note that in the study, training followed up by mentorship was sustained and contextualized to promote learning communities and collaboration throughout the project. Collaboration in this context included (a) collaboration between the school administrators and the teacher design team; (b) collaboration between the English teachers, the vocational subject teachers, and me, the researcher; (c) collaboration between the English teachers and me as a co-writer; (d) collaboration between the English teachers, the

students, and me as a co-teacher; and (e) collaboration among the team (including me) and other school community members. The nature of this collaboration was typical of a participatory curriculum materials design, in which interdisciplinary expertise was needed.

After the negotiation of training and mentorship with the English teachers, we communicated this agenda to the school principal because we did not talk about this program in our initial meetings. The teachers initiated the training and mentorship program because they needed to learn foundational knowledge about VE materials design so that they could maximize their learning both theoretically and practically. The English teacher participants stated that learning by doing would assist them to put theoretical ideas into practice. In response to this teacher initiative, the school included this training and mentorship in a school-based teacher professional development program. The school principal commented that

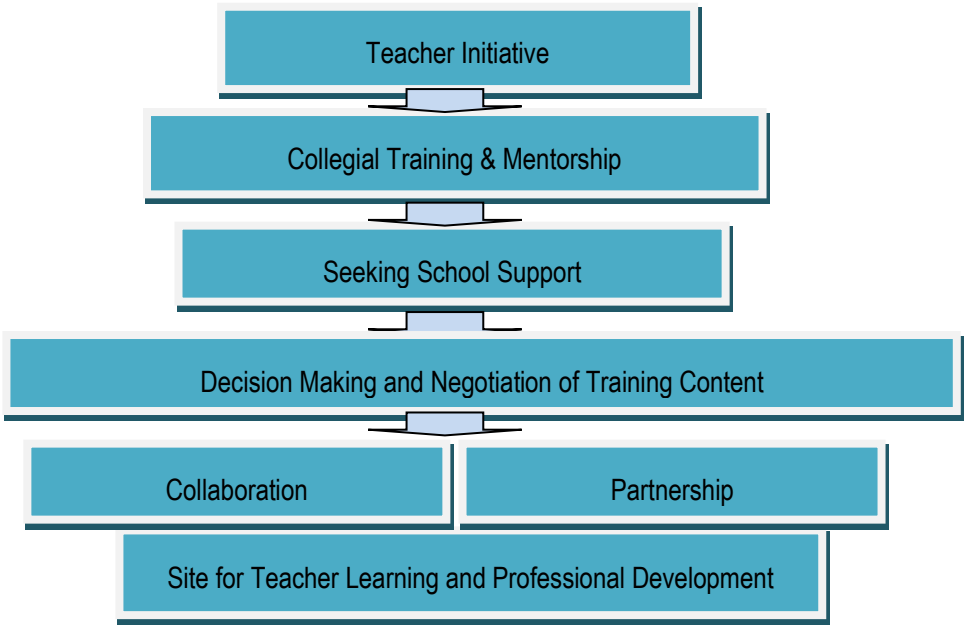
> Saya **sangat senang** dengan adanya pelatihan dan pembimbingan untuk para guru Bahasa Inggris **kita**. Hal ini **kesempatan yang jarang** ketika ada mahasiswa yang melakukan penelitian di sekolah **Kami**. Ini **wahana yang baik** bagi para guru **Kami** untuk **belajar banyak** dengan **dosen yang berpengalaman**
>
> [I am very happy that our English teachers receive training and mentorship. This is a rare opportunity for us when postgraduate students conduct research in our school. I think this is a good avenue for our teachers to learn a lot from an experienced faculty member] (personal communication, field note, 17 July 2012).

The school principal was very positive about the training and mentorship, and he signaled enthusiasm about the project. His enthusiasm about the project was aligned with collective endorsement. This endorsement encouraged the teachers to get involved in the project. One of the English teachers remarked that "Kami senang sekolah Kami mendukung penuh kegiatan pengembangan bahan ajar Bahasa Inggris Kejuruan ini. Bahan ajar ini jelas merupakan pelengkap buku teks yang kita gunakan selama ini" [We are glad that our school gives full support of the VE materials design project. These materials will be an addition to the textbooks that we have used so far]. Both the school administrators and the teachers welcomed collegial training and mentorship in order to facilitate teacher learning, situated in teachers' actual practice. This process not only engaged the teachers in the curriculum materials design but also provided them with much needed knowledge and skills to engage in the design because the success of the materials design as curriculum innovation largely

rests on the shoulders of the teachers who put the materials into practice (Huizinga, Handelzalts, Nieveen, & Voogt, 2014).

At the initial meetings, the school administrators, the English teachers, and the vocational subject teachers committed to sharing vision and responsibility. Because of this, the English teachers wanted to include a training and mentorship program to provide them with a solid knowledge base, which underpinned the project. Figure 5.2 illustrates how collegial training and mentorship was conducted within a process of engaging the teacher participants in teacher learning and development in the school setting.

Figure 5.2 *Different Stages of Negotiated Collegial Training and Mentorship*



The goals of training and mentorship were to:

1) introduce the English teachers to four main concepts: Vocational English (VE), the design of VE materials, SFL, and the applications of SFL to VE materials design and pedagogical practices, such as text based instruction and content based instruction;
2) help the teacher participants gain a better understanding of pedagogical content knowledge of VE;
3) prepare the English teachers for the design and implementation of VE in three classes identified: Accounting, Hotel Hospitality and Management, and Computer Engineering;

4) socialize the teachers into actual practice rather than providing them with descriptions of practice;
5) involve the teachers in a collaborative design of curriculum materials;
6) assist the teachers to make changes in knowledge, beliefs, attitudes, and skills particularly in relation to vocational English (VE) and theoretically informed materials design;
7) engage the teachers in collaborative decision making for curriculum materials design;
8) offer the teachers more opportunities to learn in and from their work;
9) build a community of teachers as learners;
10) provide the teacher with access to on-site teacher learning and professional development.

Within the context of the present study, the team members were fully aware of teacher design expertise, which embraced analysis, design, development, implementation, and evaluation skills. We discussed and negotiated the training content and a schedule. The teacher coordinator, **KES**, suggested that the training should not conflict with teachers' routine teaching activities and other administrative work. This training aimed to equip the teachers with how to design VE materials and text based and content based pedagogies, informed by Hallidayan Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). The English teachers were unfamiliar with this theoretical framework. Over a school break of five weeks, the English teacher coordinator arranged the training. All the English teachers participated in the training. In addition to this training, I provided the English teachers with mentorship from the beginning of the training. Over a period of 7 months, I mentored the English teachers in how to design, implement, and evaluate VE materials. Both training and mentorship, which took place in the classroom, and out of the school, are seen as teacher professional learning, which is relevant to their learning needs and pedagogical practice. In other words, while enacting my role as a researcher, I also acted as a resource person who provided opportunities for the participating English teachers to learn.

In terms of training content, the teachers and I discussed the topics to be covered. The training content included:

- Vocational English as Part of English for Specific Purposes (ESP)
- Pedagogical Curriculum Materials: Approaches, Designs, and Procedures

- Lesson Units and Pedagogical Design as Part of Pedagogical Materials
- Applications of SFL to Materials Design (Content and Text Based Language Pedagogies)
- Text and Task Selection, Adaptation, and Modification
- ICT and Materials Design
- Required Readings

The English teacher participants reported that none of this content had previously been taught in either pre-service language teacher education programs or in-service training. Harwood (2010, p. 4) argues that "materials design should be studied and theorized" to produce effective and appropriate materials. Accordingly, the teachers' decisions on the design and use of teaching materials were guided by theoretical principles, and not by their personal intuition. To support the training, I provided the English teachers with language teacher textbooks. These textbooks were resources for building their knowledge base. These resources sustained the teacher learning while being involved in the curriculum materials design project.

5.4 Decision Making Processes: Course Design

The course design included formulating or mapping out core competency descriptors; writing syllabi, lesson plans, and lesson units; and landscaping instructional design. This design is a critical part of pedagogical materials development. The English teachers, the vocational subject teachers, and I engaged in co-decision making processes. I used an iterative design process in which I partnered with the teacher participants to develop curriculum materials (texts and lessons), which complemented the mandated curricula. The English teachers and I piloted those materials in chosen classrooms, revised the materials, conducted professional development with all of the participating teachers (see the previous section), carefully observed teacher enactment of the materials using an ethnographic approach and collected all artifacts of student learning. We then revised the materials, informed by these data, which implicate knowledge, beliefs, experience: action and discourse, and context.

At the outset, we looked at the outcomes of the context analysis, the student and teacher input, and the SFL relevant theories informing how curriculum materials, such as (1) core competency descriptors, (2) syllabi, (3) lesson plans, (4) lesson units, and (5) instructional

design were designed and appropriated to meet the needs of the students, as well as the institutional expectations, and teacher expectations. These processes involved multi-layered and a participative decision making process. This participative decision-making evolved throughout the project in which both the teachers and the students expressed what they considered to be important and valuable about student learning (Somech, 2010). To prepare and design the curriculum materials, all interested party participation in decision making was encouraged.

To begin with, we talked about the following aspects of teaching and learning English:

- Rationale: Why are our students learning English?
- Goals and objectives: Toward which goals are they learning English?
- Content: What English are they learning?
- Lesson activities and organization: How are they learning English? How is the learning of our students organized?
- Teachers' role: How are we as teachers facilitating the learning of English?
- Learners' role: How are our students learning English as a tool for meaning making, knowledge building, and participation in social practices?
- Materials and resources: With what are the students learning English?
- Grouping: With whom are they learning English?
- Location: Where are they learning English?
- Time: When are they learning English?
- Assessment: How far has the learning of English progressed?

We also discussed the following questions:

(1) What do we want each individual student to learn?

(2) How will we know when our students have learned it?

(3) What will we do when students experience difficulty in learning?

(4) What opportunities are afforded for learners to participate in meaning making?

(5) What kind of shared understanding needs to be established among the students?

(6) What kind of participation framework is being set up?

(7) What opportunities have been created by learners in the process of participation?

All these questions informed the processes of creating

(1) core competency descriptors,

(2) syllabi,

(3) lesson plans,

(4) lesson units, and

(5) instructional design.

The English teachers and I discussed what areas of language learning were included in the lesson units and support lesson tasks or activities, which contributed to the language development of students. We categorized five key areas of language learning: reading and viewing, speaking and representing, writing and representing, lexico-grammar, and digital literacies. Each of these areas had core competencies that were not static or fixed. Each of these competencies included language, content, task, and literacy components, which complemented one another.

Table 5.2 *Core Competency Descriptors*

Reading and Viewing:

- Build and sustain independent or extensive reading
- Read texts for content (vocational) knowledge building
- Do shared reading for content knowledge distribution
- Read to learn content or vocational knowledge
- Read to unpack social practice
- Read visual-verbal texts for meaning making in context
- Navigate relevant texts based on their reading needs
- Relate/make a connection of one text to another
- Identify genres and appraisals of authors through lexico-grammatical items
- Identify the gist of texts
- Interpret different meanings of multimodal texts (ideational, interpersonal, and textual)

Speaking and Representing

- Present vocational texts orally
- Use lexico-grammatical resources in spoken discourse

Writing ad Representing

- Summarize vocational texts
- Identify features of paragraph-level texts
- Respond to information-demand texts
- Compose short paragraphs for particular audience, social purpose, and context
- Write a job application letter for particular employment

Vocabulary and Grammar (Lexico-Grammar)

- Do an SFL meta-language analysis to identify how language choices materialize in texts
- Build and develop vocabulary repertoire
- Identify a range of lexico-grammatical items to communicate meaning

Digital Literacies

- Read and deduce information from visuals
- Use knowledge and information interactively (e.g., navigate and evaluate information)
- Select and use technological tools or digital technology for creating more language learning opportunities (e.g., use online English dictionaries, use a laptop to write)
- Navigate information online
- Search, locate, assess, and critically evaluate information online
- Collaborate and network

These competencies were reflected in the lesson units and activities on which the students worked inside and outside the classroom. The English teachers and I closely described these competencies. It is important to note that listing such competences was the point of departure for what the students were expected to learn and what they wanted to learn. In addition, we also consulted with the students in order to know whether these competencies reflected their goals and expectations of learning English and to explore the extent to which these competencies helped the students learn English more meaningfully. The English teachers took the view that the students were expected to engage in a range of activities in order to build sustained English learning. The teacher coordinator added that "students would gain different learning experience from form based instruction to process based learning" (personal communication, field note, 3 August 2012). Another teacher participant commented that "such competencies could benefit our students. I am pretty sure that the students would learn a lot from new materials, which are relevant to the vocational area" (personal communication, field note, 3 August 2012).

The English teachers also designed Vocational English (VE) syllabi. These syllabi served as a map of the entire VE course. The syllabi were designed for hotel hospitality management, accounting, and computer engineering. The goals of the syllabi were reflected in the core competencies. We also discussed the central domains of the syllabi. These domains included (1) the language content domain, (2) the content knowledge domain, (3) the

meaning making domain, and (4) the experiential domain. The language content domain refers to lexico-grammatical and semantic resources or items operating in content or vocational texts. In this respect, no focused language analysis was pre-determined because learning semantic or lexico-grammatical items is "not a linear process—learners do not master one item and then move on to another. In fact the learning curve for a single item is not linear either" (Larsen-Freeman, 1997, p. 151). In this study, vocational vocabulary is categorized for pedagogical purposes into high frequency words, academic vocabulary, technical vocabulary, and low frequency words. The Ministry of Education promulgated that students in the professional and vocational education system had to learn English specific to their fields of study. The central importance of vocational vocabulary lies in the role that these words perform in the construction of the vocational experience. Thus, the students worked on whole instances of language use and not a series of disjointed bits of language (Bourke, 2006).

The content knowledge domain deals with knowledge building and understanding of knowledge production within the remit of vocational areas, such as hotel management and hospitality, accounting, and computer engineering. The meaning making domain pertains to any activities or tasks, which reflect actual or authentic texts commonly used in the vocational areas identified, such as *making an online reservation* for hotel management and hospitality, *interpreting a cash flow* for accounting, and *designing the Website* for computer engineering. Thus, the use of language focused on getting tasks done within the vocational area. The experiential domain is linked to a representation of vocational worlds and with learning language as a socialization process. Learning language is concerned about learning to participate in particular social activities or practices. For this reason, understanding topics or themes are pivotal. Central to the syllabi are topics or themes because topics inform not only key terms or vocabularies but also key concepts in vocational texts. Additionally, these key concepts articulate key content ideas (the Field in functional terms). In this topic negotiation, the English teachers and I asked vocational subject teachers to provide input on key topics or themes relevant to students' vocational areas (Appendix F). These topics were covered in the lesson units. Thus, the materials were organized based on the topics, which reflected the core vocational competencies.

Table 5.3 *Topics or Themes in the Lesson Units*

Hotel Management and Hospitality	Accounting	Computer Engineering
International Hotel Websites	Financial Statements	Servers
Hotel Room Reservation	The Recording Process	Web Design
Hotel Guest Registration	The Balance Sheet	Computer Software
Hospitality	The Income Statement	Computer Hardware
Housekeeping	Accounting Cycles	Programming Language
Company Profile	Company Profile	Company Profile
Job Advertisement & Application Letter Writing	Job Advertisement & Application Letter Writing	Job Advertisement & Application Letter Writing

The vocational subject teachers commented that these themes not only provided students with key vocabulary that they needed to learn, but also gave them key concepts or knowledge in the vocational areas. They also argued that knowledge building in vocations was the key to deepening students' vocational competence; at the same time, they learned English. One of the hotel management and hospitality teachers said "Saya yakin bahwa dengan diarahkan pelajaran Bahasa Inggris dengan bidang kejuruan, para siswa tidak hanya belajar Bahasa Inggris, namun juga menambah wawasan atau pengetahuan kejuruan mereka" [I believe that by orienting English lessons to vocational areas, students will not only learn English, but also deepen their vocational competence] (IMA, personal communication, field note, 17 July 2014). One accounting teacher (personal communication, field note, 17 July 2014) added that "Motivasi para siswa akan semakin bertambah karena pelajaran Bahasa Inggris berkaitan dengan bidang akuntansi. Selain itu, banyak buku-buku akuntasi yang berbahasa Inggris memiliki bobot yang bagus" [Students will be more motivated to learn English because an English lesson is related to accounting. In addition, many good accounting textbooks exist in English]. This suggests that vocational content serves as a practical vehicle to teach English to students in the vocational education context. Theme based learning is beneficial and meaningful because all new learning experiences are deeply rooted in experiential domain. Further, the computer engineering teacher (IRE, personal communication, field note, 17 July 2014) confirmed that "Bahasa Inggris Kejuruan ini akan memacu para siswa untuk aktif belajar Bahasa Inggris karena isi pelajarannya sesuai dengan bidang kompetensi mereka" [This Vocational English

encourages the students to engage in active English learning because the content of the English lesson relates to their vocational competency]. This anecdotal evidence indicates that students' active participation in English learning depended greatly upon the content of what was being learned, and this confirms the importance of integrating content and language in foreign and/or additional language classrooms (Lyster & Ballinger, 2011). The three vocational subject teachers were confident that vocational English (VE) materials would benefit their students.

The English teachers and I organized lesson units (Appendix G) into these major themes, which became the point of departure for meaning making, knowledge building, and language resource enrichment. For meaning making in context, our goal was to help students to learn a range of meanings in texts, such as ideational, interpersonal, and textual enmeshed in vocational texts. For knowledge building, we aimed to assist students to learn the language as part of this process. For language resource enrichment, the students could learn lexico-grammatical resources by experiencing texts. These resources helped the students recognize how language constructs knowledge. More importantly, they assisted the students to develop their language to access content or vocational knowledge. With these mutually reinforcing goals in mind, we designed lesson units, which encouraged the students to learn English outside the classroom. To complement these lesson units, we also created an instructional design; that is, the implementation of reading circles and extensive reading. These pedagogical practices were examples of content based and text based language learning.

The English teachers and I selected literature circles because these activities allowed for text based language instruction. The literature circles offered the students a range of opportunities for knowledge building, information sharing, meaning making in context, SFL meta-analysis of authentic texts, and other activities or tasks, which reflected core competency descriptors. Together with these activities, we designed extensive reading along with learning logs and oral presentations. The extensive reading activity also allowed for text based and content based language learning. The learning logs included a reading log, a grammar log, and a new vocabulary log (see Appendix H). These logs were records of what the students learned and how they engaged with the texts. Three groups of students (accounting, hotel management and hospitality, and computer engineering) were assigned to read selected vocational texts. To facilitate this, we provided them with the textbooks

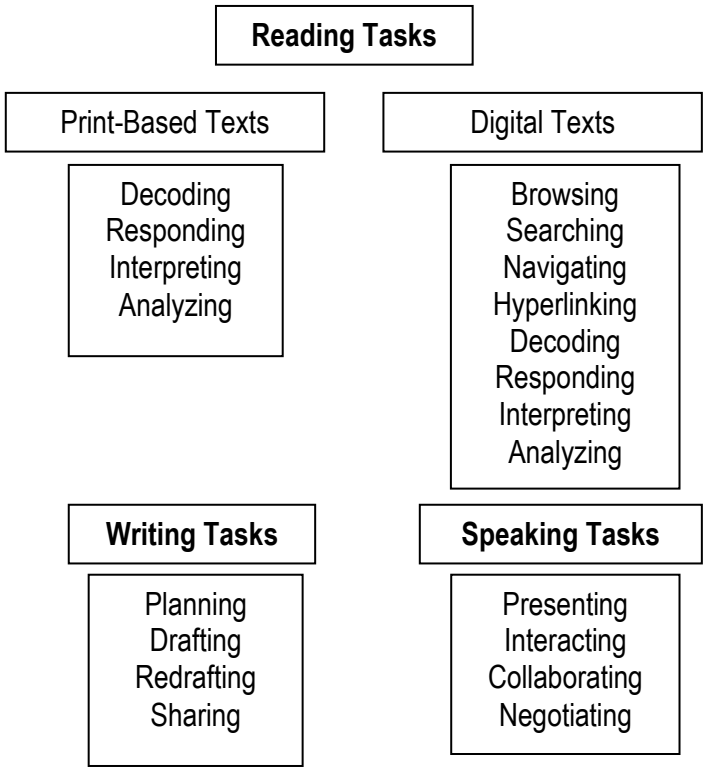
from the school library. These textbooks were also vocational teachers' resources. Each of the students was provided with a copy of the textbook assigned and they jointly read it. As an example, 4-6 students read different portions of the same textbook with each of the students completing the learning logs based on the texts they read.

Table 5.4 *A List of Vocational Textbooks for Sustained Extensive Reading*

Accounting	Hotel Management and Hospitality	Computer Engineering
• Anne Britton and Chris Waterston. (2006). Financial accounting (4th edn.). Harlow, England: Pearson Education. • Jerry J. Weygandt, Donald E. Kieso, Paul D. Kimmel, & Agnes L. DeFranco. (2009). Hospitality financial accounting (2nd edn). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons. • Pauline Weetman. (2011). Financial accounting: An introduction (5th edn.). Harlow, England: Pearson Education. • Robert Libby, Patricia A. Libby, Daniel G. Short. (2011). Financial accounting (7th edn.). New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin. • W. Steve Albrecht, Earl K. Stice, and James D. Stice. (2011). Financial accounting: Concepts and applications (7th edn.). Mason, OH: South-Western Cengage Learning.	• Denney G. Rutherford & Michael J. O'Fallon. (2007). Hotel management and operations (4th edn.). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons. • James A. Bardi. (2003). Hotel front office management (3rd edn). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons. • Jennifer Bobrow Burns. (2010). Career Opportunities in Travel and Hospitality. New York: Infobase Publishing • Mary Ellen Guffey & Dana Loewy. (2008). Business communication: Process & product (7th edn.). Mason, OH: South-Western Cengage Learning. • Thomas J. A. Jones. (2008). Professional management of housekeeping operations (5th edn.). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.	• Michele E. Davis and Jon A. Phillips. (2006). Learning PHP and MySQL (2nd edn). Sebastopol, CA: O'Reilly Media. • Susan Fowler and Victor Stanwick. (2003). Web application design handbook: Best practices for web-based software. Oxford: Elsevier. • Vojin G. Oklobdzija (Ed.). (2008). Digital systems and applications. Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press. • Roger S. Pressman. (2001). Software engineering: a practitioner's approach (5th edn). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Through literature circles and extensive reading, the students were expected to engage in a range of meaning making oriented learning tasks as illustrated in Figure 5.3.

Figure 5.3 *Meaning Making Tasks*



These tasks complemented each other as the teachers and the students worked on the tasks. The ultimate goal of the tasks was to expose the students to a variety of texts and engage them in different meaning making activities. The teacher participants commented that these tasks were completely different from the activities in the prescribed textbooks. They hoped that the students would make the most of these opportunities to develop their English ability and to build or enhance their vocational knowledge. In a similar vein, the vocational teachers were very positive about these new VE materials. They also hoped that the students would have no difficulty understanding vocational texts in English in vocational classes. More crucially, they could use English as a tool for honing their vocational expertise.

CHAPTER 6

Engaging Students in In-Class and Out-of-Class Meaning Making Activities: Learning to Mean and Learning to Learn

Chapter 5 reported the design of vocational English (VE) materials through negotiation and collaboration between the school administrators, the English teachers, the vocational subject teachers, and the students. Chapter 6 presents findings regarding how three different groups of vocational students, accounting, hotel hospitality and management, and computer engineering, used language materials and engaged with a variety of texts and activities inside and outside language classrooms. Language classrooms, for this study, are referred to as face-to-face and virtual sites of engagement. The findings for this study are presented based on recurring themes identified from different sources of data: classroom observations, focus groups and interviews, field notes, documentation, reflective journals, and photovoices. This theme identification was based on in-depth data analysis. In this chapter, five key findings include (1) content or vocational vocabulary building; (2) developing vocational knowledge; (3) authentic text navigation; (4) learning to write and writing to mean vocationally; and (5) exploring lexico-grammatical resources, genres (text types), language appraisal and use of digital dictionaries, corpus, and translators as semiotic tools.

6.1 Content or Vocational Vocabulary Building

Vocabulary building is the point of departure for understanding how grammar works in a coherent text because vocabulary is integral to grammar. From an SFL perspective, both vocabulary and grammar is termed as lexico-grammar to denote their interlocking relationship. Based on needs analysis data, building vocational vocabulary was of concern among vocational teachers who taught bilingually (Bahasa Indonesia-English) because most of the students still struggled with vocational terms, which impeded understanding of content knowledge. The vocational teachers (personal communication, field note, 1 September 2012) argued that vocational terms were not just a list of vocabulary, but also these terms were related to key concepts in context, which underscored understanding of vocational knowledge. They also reported that in the textbooks, many vocational concepts are either technical or abstract, which require a series of explanations. The students were

not fully aware of how vocational terms conveyed conceptual meanings. The vocational teachers felt that there was an urgent need for building students' repertoire of vocational vocabulary. In response to this need, the students engaged with vocabulary building through both intensive and extensive reading activities.

In the pre-lesson sessions, teachers asked and guided the students to do activities, which corresponded to vocabulary building (e.g., accounting, hotel hospitality and management, and computer engineering). The goals of this session were to familiarize students with lexical items, which construct key concepts in their vocational areas. This vocabulary building did not test the students how much vocabulary they understood, but this activity helped the students recall their previous experiences with content knowledge. This vocabulary building guided the students to make a transition from vocabulary building to being aware of how this vocabulary is used or of how it is organized into a coherent text.

The following illustration shows how the teachers guided the students to work on a vocabulary building task before they engaged in a reading comprehension task. To illustrate this event, an example of dialog between the teacher and the accounting students is presented below.

Table 6.1 A Snapshot of How *the Teacher Guiding the Students What to Do in a Vocabulary Building Task*

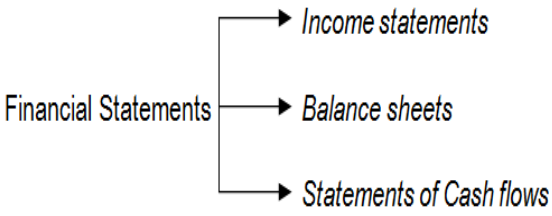
Turns	Actors		Mood
1	T	Good morning, guys (.) How are you doing?	Interrogative
2	Ss	Fine ((*in chorus*))	Statement
3	T	Today…we talking about **financial statement** (.) The main aim is to help you make meaning of a financial statement text in English…through reading comprehension (.) Before we do this...let me show how to discuss this topic\	Statement
4	S1	Can we we discuss this topic in Bahasa Indonesia? If we don't know…*beberapa kata dalam Bahasa Inggris* ((certain English words))	Question
5	T	Yes…but try to use English as you can (.) You may code switch…You take turns asking questions and responding to the questions (.) Let us look at Task 1 ((*the teacher explained what to do*)). In Tasks 2 and 3, you need to classify words into appropriate accounting concepts ((*The teacher spoke slowly*)).	Command
6	S2	Should we report what we discussed?	Question

T	Yes…we will talk about the outcomes of Tasks 2 and 3. Well, do you want to work in pairs or in small groups?	Statement + Offer
Ss	small groups ((*some students replied in chorus*))	Statement
Ss	pairs ((*the rest of the students replied in chorus*))	Statement
T	Who want to work in pairs or in small groups\ Please raise your hand?	Question
Ss	((*most of the students wanted to work in pairs*))	Gesture
T	Please work on the tasks in pairs	Command

The snapshot in Table 6.1 demonstrates that the teacher gave the students a warm-up or orientation in order to prepare them for "'close, attentive' reading of richly complex content area texts" (Fang, Sun, Chiu, & Trutschel, 2014, p.55) and for building an informed understanding of how vocational knowledge is produced (Moje, 2008, p. 97). The teacher signaled the topic the students discussed. In this dialog, the negotiation between the teacher and the students occurred. The student asked whether she could use Bahasa Indonesia. The teacher allowed the students to use this language but encouraged them to use English. This evidence showed that the teacher gave the students a choice of code switching during discussion. In this dialog, the teacher demonstrated how the students discussed vocational concepts they learned and they talked about the classification of such concepts. This guidance pattern was also applied to two groups of students: hotel management and hospitality and computer engineering.

Following teacher guidance, the students engaged in the vocabulary building task in context of texts. They discussed vocabulary with their peers in pairs before reporting what they discussed to the whole class and the teachers. This was essential in assisting the students to go beyond memorizing vocabulary, but it facilitated them to understand key vocational vocabulary to deepen their vocational knowledge. This vocabulary was facilitative of making meaning of vocational texts. For instance, the accounting students discussed vocational terms in relation to *financial statements*. These financial statement texts comprise sub-texts, such as *income statements*, *balance sheets*, and *statements of cash flows*. This taxonomic relationship could be depicted as follows. This relation shows how a particular concept builds on another concept, and it conveys inter-semantic meanings.

Figure 6.1 *Taxonomic Relations (Hyponym)*



In Figure 6.1, the lexical item of *financial statements* was taxonomically connected to other words: *income statements*, *balance sheets*, and *statements of cash flows*. This lexical relation helped the students to see the whole picture of particular vocational vocabulary as representation of a certain concept. In this task, the students were asked to define and classify key terms into these sub-texts: *income statements*, *balance sheets*, and *statements of cash flows*. These concepts are the core of accounting because the vocational teachers (personal communication, field note, 10 September, 2012) argued that these accounting concepts were nationally included in the accounting curriculum. Naming, defining, and classifying words are common in content based language learning because these are meaning making or semiotic processes; that is, construing *financial statement* concepts, for instance. Naming, definitions, and classifications are related to the construction of knowledge of financial statements. Preceding this vocabulary building task, the students took turn asking questions about their experience in reading or writing financial statement texts. This activity helped the students to connect their experience to their learning. Through talking or discussion, the students shared their understandings of the vocational terms, which were used in accounting texts.

Most of the students stated that discussing key terms helped them understand key accounting concepts (e.g., financial statements). As FIT wrote,

> Sebelumnya saya **tidak pernah** melakukan aktivitas **diskusi** mengenai kosakata dalam pelajaran Bahasa Inggris. Kegiatan ini memberi **peluang** saya dan teman-teman untuk **memahami makna kosakata** yang dikaitkan dengan pengalaman/pengetahuan yang diperoleh di bidang akuntansi. Dalam aktivitas ini, saya **tidak merasa** terlalu **kesulitan** karena saya mengalami bagaimana membuat **laporan keuangan**. **Kegiatan laporan keuangan** bagian **aktivitas** akutansi yang kita lakukan secara rutin (Photovoice, Reflective Diary, 30 September 2012).
>
> [I **never** did a learning activity before, which **discussed** vocabulary in an English lesson. This activity afforded me and my peers **the opportunity** to understand vocabulary, which related to my previous experience/knowledge in the area of accounting. In this activity, I **did not find** any difficulty because I had experience

> with **financial statement writing practice**. **This practice** was a routine task in accounting that I did.]

This participant acknowledged that the activity was a new experience for her and her peers. This collective testimony suggests that vocabulary building activity was related to students' lived experience with the vocational area in which they related. The students also argued that vocabulary learning was helpful because they experienced a *financial statement* text, in which vocabulary in the task was included. Another student (TUS) remarked (Photovoice, Reflective Diary, 30 September 2012) that this vocabulary building strengthened what she learned in accounting lessons. She felt that learning English not just understood language, but also engaged with the actual use of language. She also argued that learning key content vocabulary did not simply memorize a list of words, but understood meanings of vocabulary, related to particular social practices (e.g., *financial statement writing*). The accounting students reported that learning a particular accounting word was associated with learning another word, which built on a particular concept (e.g., *an income statement*, *a balance sheet*, *a statement of a cash flow*). They realized that learning vocabulary also involves understanding key concepts in accounting.

Similar to the vocational vocabulary building task for the accounting students, the hotel management and hospitality majors in two different classes talked about their personal experience in social hotel management and hospitality related practice. For example, they talked about *hotel room reservation*. A hotel room reservation or booking is a routine social practice in the hotel hospitality industry. This booking facilitates prospective guests to reserve a room based on their preference in terms of dates and types of rooms. The students discussed types of details or information required for hotel room booking. This information reflects general words, such as *complete names*, *check-in and check-out dates*, *type of a room, and room amenities*. The students did not have any problem understanding these words because these are high frequency or common vocabulary. In particular, some students talked about specific types of rooms that they knew from their apprenticeship. They talked about room classifications (*standard*, *deluxe* or *grand club*, *suite* or *premier*) along with room amenities, such as *Wi-Fi/Internet*, *bath amenities*, *bed*, *washroom*, *shower*, *television, hair dryer,* and *beverages*. Unlike accounting terms, the nature of hotel management and hospitality vocabularies is not too technical or abstract. The reasons for this are that the language of this vocation is accessible to lay people who are potential

guests and that hotel hospitality is a routine social practice. Despite this, the students needed to be familiar with vocabulary corresponding to a hotel room booking practice.

Figure 6.2 *The Student Discussing Technical Vocabulary in Pairs*

(Photovoice, 30 September 2012)

In pairs, when they discussed hotel room booking vocabulary, the students connected their vocabulary discussion to their internship program in hotels. Most of the students did on-the-job training in local and international hotels. The students reported that they enjoyed discussing main vocabularies, which were commonly used in hotel room booking. This discussion could encourage themselves to talk about vocabulary in context, which was aligned with what they practiced in the actual hospitality industry. The students were also challenged to classify target vocabularies into hotel room booking. YADI commented that

> Saya tergolong **belum bisa** Bahasa Inggris. Kegiatan ini bisa **memperkaya** kosakata saya dan saya **lebih tertarik** karena mempelajari kosakata tersebut yang berkaitan dengan **aktivitas kejuruan** saya. Dengan pola pembelajaran semacam ini, saya dengan **memudah memahami** kosakata berdasarkan konteks kejuruan.
>
> [I am **not so good** in English. This activity **enabled** me to enrich my vocabulary, and I am **more interested** in learning vocabularies, **relevant to** my vocational activity. By doing this activity, understanding **vocabulary in context** was **easier**.].

This participant perceived that the learning of vocabulary was easier when it was connected with their vocational experience. This suggests that the context of social practice such as room hotel booking aroused the students to learn more vocational vocabulary in context.

For computer engineering students, they discussed words, which depicted *features of good servers*. In this regard, the teacher guided the students to explore meanings of the words. The reason for this guidance was that most of the students found difficulties understanding technical vocabulary. The computer engineering teacher acknowledged that their students needed to have a repertoire of vocabulary in English because most of the manuals were written in English, including programming languages. Compared to students majoring in accounting and hotel management and hospitality, the computer engineering students were the least proficient based on a local English proficiency test and Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC). In addition, the English teachers reported that the students were less motivated to learn English. When I confirmed this to the students, most of them acknowledged that they were less interested in learning English because they studied the language merely for the national examination. They expected to learn English, which supported their vocational learning. LIN recounted that

> Sebenarnya, kami **ingin** belajar Bahasa Inggris **dengan serius** karena bidang kejuruan kami **menuntut** kompetensi bahasa ini. Saat ini, kami **semangat** belajar Bahasa Inggris karena sesuai dengan **kebutuhan kami**.
>
> [Actually, we **wanted to learn** English seriously because our vocational competence **requires** English. Now, we **are motivated** to learn the language because the current learning activity caters to our vocational needs]

This student admitted that her classmates' and her motivation was low because the English lessons were solely geared for the national examination. The lessons did not meet their needs for vocational English, which supported the development of their vocational knowledge.

Generally, the students built their vocational vocabulary not only through guided reading comprehension tasks but also through extensive reading along with small group discussion. Over 8 months, the students discussed and shared vocational words, which came out of their extensive reading activity. Drawing from this experience, all the participants remarked that content vocabulary building challenged them to name, define, classify, describe, and explain key content area concepts found in vocational texts. The students experienced naming, defining, classifying, describing, and explaining such concepts as semiotic or meaning making processes. This observation concurs with Jäppinen's (2005) finding that "[l]earning vocabulary, particularly in terms of its associated concepts and linguistic properties, is an incremental activity; the meanings of an item of vocabulary can develop

and expand as part of meaning making" (p. 134). The students realized that the learning of content vocabulary in English was more than listing and memorizing such vocabulary but required them to understand the use and meaning of it in context. This evidence shows that the ability to understand, use, apply, and explain key vocational vocabularies as well as the capability of creating links between these vocabularies could help the students construct vocational knowledge (Jäppinen, 2005). The participants also acknowledged that a vocabulary building task worked well if related to their prior knowledge or experience. Instrumentally, building vocabulary repertoire also prepared the students for vocational competence tests, including the national examination. The vocational teachers did not want their students to have difficulty in this examination just because of this terminology issue. In a similar vein, most of the students particularly majoring in computer engineering reported that they were lack of vocational vocabulary because the English teachers did not touch upon their vocational area before they engaged in the present project.

From an SFL perspective, particular terms have specific meanings, and word choices shape meaning and tone. Vocational vocabulary does not simply convey certain types of information but builds knowledge. Different types of vocabulary have different purposes and meanings in this knowledge building. For this study, vocational knowledge is viewed as *ideational content* (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). The findings of the study align with Fisher and Frey's observation (2014, p. 598) that "[v]ocabulary lies at the heart of content learning, as it serves as a proxy for students' understanding of concepts." For this reason, the social function of words in content and text based language learning moves beyond immediate referential function and grammatical category (Armstrong & Ferguson, 2010). Coxhead (2013) adds that vocationally specific vocabulary "denotes field-specific concepts and even the metaphors of a discipline or field" (p. 125). In content based language learning, vocabulary building aims to help students recognize how vocabulary plays a role in creating meaning in content area or vocational texts. Thus, vocabulary is a linguistic resource shaped by the contextual and social constraints integral parts of 'the social system' (Halliday, 1994).

6.2 Understanding and Building Vocational Knowledge

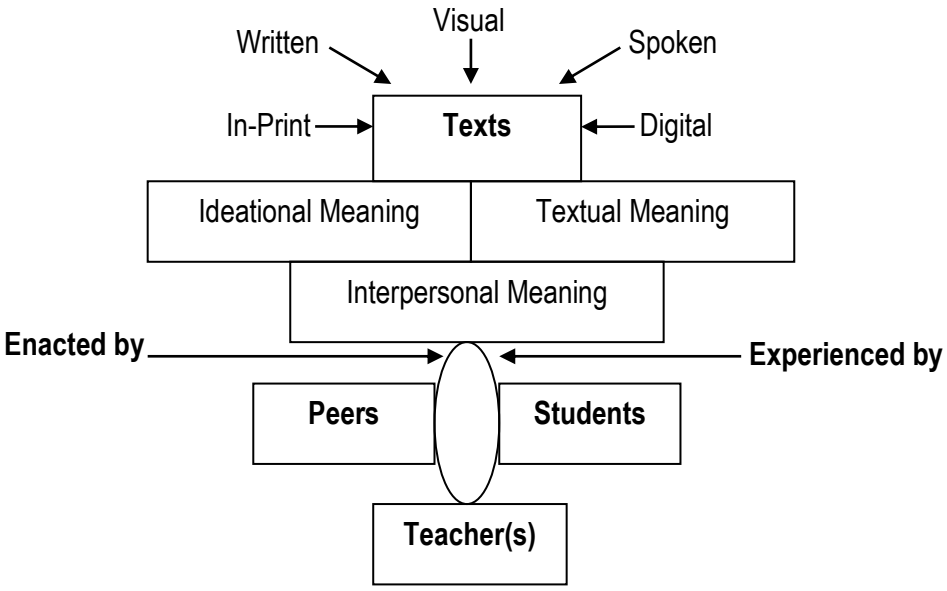
Learning any language including English is inseparable from content or knowledge. The construction or production of ideational content in an SFL term is mediated by language as texts. With this mind, language plays an integral role in the construction and communication of vocational knowledge. Understanding and building content knowledge is fundamentally a semiotic process, involving systematic remodeling of everyday grammar and concomitant re-construal of everyday ordinary life experiences (Fang, 2005). Halliday (1993) contends that "language is the essential condition of learning, the process by which experience becomes knowledge" (p. 94). Language learning touches upon the construction of content knowledge. This suggests that the development of language plays a pivotal role in mediating learning (Mohan, 1986, 2001). In other words, learning about the world or the building or development of knowledge or skills cannot be divorced from language development. This section reports how the students engaged in learning to mean through such different activities as (a) dialogic reading, (b) extensive reading, and (c) collaborative oral presentation. Both dialogic reading and oral presentation were carried in class, but extensive reading was implemented outside the classroom; the students reported what they read in class. For extensive reading, the students completed a reading log (see Appendix H) so that the teachers could keep track of students' extensive reading routines.

6.2.1 Learning to Mean through Dialogic Reading: A Guided Reading Comprehension Task

Dialogic reading is defined as "give-and-take exchange of language between two individuals" (Uebel, 2007, p. 331). This exchange involves "a speaker's specific speech intent and the listener's responsiveness," which "create the true essence of meaning through purposeful exchanges" (Kim, 2011, p. 4). In some literature, dialogic reading is also called reader response or transactional reading grounded in "Vygotsky's stance that knowledge is constructed socially and Rosenblatt's stance that reading is more than just decoding text" (Flint, 2010, p. 290). McElvain (2010) adds that "[f]rom a social constructivist perspective, reading instruction can be seen as a transactional process between the student, the text, peers and the teacher" (p. 181). Thus, the nature of reading is interactional and transactional, involving a reader and text. In this reading, reader's past experience is a catalyst for meaning construction. To elaborate on this concept, dialogic reading is referred

to as learning how to mean ideationally (content and experience), interpersonally (social relationships and roles), and textually (textual organization). This reading engaged the students in meaning making processes, in which these processes were mediated by the use of texts as semiotic resources. To achieve this, the students participated in reading comprehension and small group and whole class discussions guided by the teachers and in book clubs or literature circles, where groups of students shared their own texts with other groups. In these dialogic reading activities, the students played roles as meaning makers who engaged in knowledge building and reproduction ideationally, interpersonally, and textually called meta-functional meanings in an SFL term. These meanings are inextricably linked. To make knowledge building and reproduction possible, both the teachers and the students deployed questions as prompters for both activities developed based on those meta-functional meanings. Thus, the ultimate goal of dialogic reading was to make meaning together from texts (Maine, 2013), as illustrated below.

Figure 6.3 *A Dialogic Reading Model*



The guided reading comprehension tasks were included in the lesson units. To begin with, the students worked on a dialogic reading comprehension task. The goal of this task was to afford students opportunities to work with text, build a tradition of love for reading, and help the students see this task as the point of departure for meaning making in context. Before the students were assigned to read longer and more complicated texts, they worked with a shorter text, which helped them make transition from reading shorter texts to longer ones. This task also introduced the students to content based reading comprehension in English

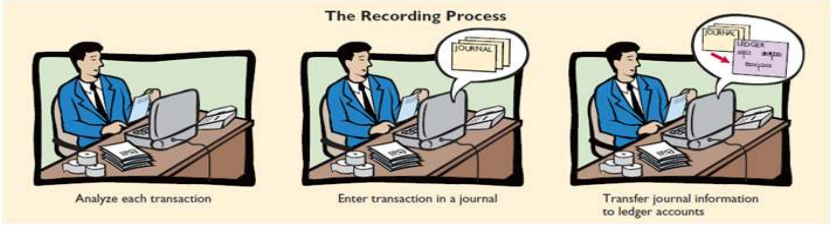
lessons because they were used to being taught EGP as reported earlier in students' needs analysis (see Chapter 4).

The reading questions acted as the point of departure for the students to create their own questions when they engaged in a literature circle task. In this guided reading comprehension task, the text aimed to trigger the discussion and lead to what text the students navigated online. The reading of different texts with the same topic but with different genres provided the students with more experience with learning to mean. Before discussing the questions, the students did silent and close reading of the short text. At the same time, they paid attention or noticed what they did not know or understand in terms of language and content. Though in this reading activity, the students worked on small portions of the text, the activity was a starting point for the students to work with the text and enable them to maintain their engagement. The teachers modeled the reading of disciplinary texts in interaction with students. The students worked on discussion questions arising out of a short reading text. Here are sample classroom illustrations demonstrating how three groups of students: accounting, hotel management and hospitality, and computer engineering made meaning together from texts.

First, the teachers demonstrated how to read texts situated in the specific social practices of a vocational domain. The students were asked to sit in a small group of 4-6 people. The teacher guided the students to understand the text of *the recording process in accounting*, for instance (See Figure 6.4). This activity helped the students identify the recording process, which was commonly practiced in the area of accounting. The use of visuals in the text assisted the students to reinforce or recall what they read. In the text of the recording process, the students learned different process verbs (e.g., *analyze*, *enter*, and *transfer*) and accounting documents (e.g., *accounts*, *a journal*, and *a ledger*). In addition, the students learned every transaction called an economic event. This indicates that the recording process began with economic events supported by evidence of the transaction, such as *a sales slip*, *a check*, and *a bill*. In this modeling of comprehending the text, the students learned process verbs as social practices in one of the accounting events, the recording process. They were also asked to understand how such practices could produce accounting documents.

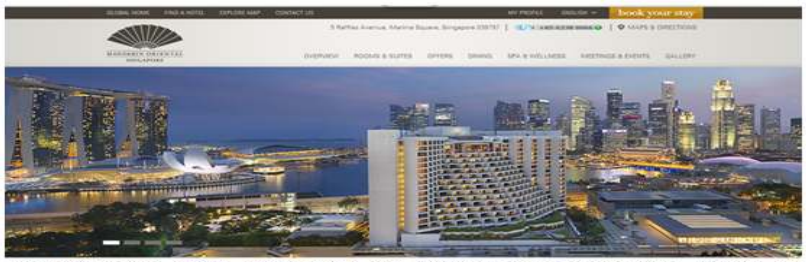
Figure 6.4 Accounting Text of *the Recording Process*

The recording process in accounting is a way to record any business documents. In practically every business, there are three basic steps in the recording process: (1) analyze each transaction for its effects on the accounts, (2) enter the transaction information in a journal (book of original entry, and (3) transfer the journal information to the appropriate accounts in the ledger (book of accounts). Although it is possible to enter transaction information directly into the accounts without using a journal, few businesses do so. The sequence of events in the recording process begins with the transaction called economic events. Evidence of the transaction is provided by a business document, such as a sales slip, a check, a bill, or a cash register tape. This evidence is analyzed to determine the effects of the transaction on specific accounts. The transaction is then entered in the journal. Finally, the journal entry is transferred to the designated accounts in the ledger. The sequence of events in the recording process is shown in the figure below.



As another example, in joint text deconstruction, hotel management and hospitality majors were guided how to understand the text of *international hotel websites* (see Figure 6.5). This topic was chosen because many hotels use websites, and these sites provide rich information on social practices in the hotel hospitality industry. One of the hotel management and hospitality teachers said that before students were assigned to undergo on-the-job training at hotels, they needed to understand the profile of a hotel through its website so that they were familiar with common hotel practices. In some case, the presentation of hotel website shows the reputation of the hotel. In this text deconstruction, the teacher assisted the students to recognize how a variety of doing verbs, such as *attract*, *change*, *create*, *disseminate*, *earn*, *improve*, *increase*, *get*, *promote*, *revolutionize*, and *visit* shows the discourses of hotel practices in order to promote a hotel, build hotel's reputation, and get in touch with prospective guests digitally. In addition, the students learned that websites were viewed as a new genre in the hotel hospitality industry.

Figure 6.5 Hotel Management and Hospitality Text of *Hotel Websites*



The Internet has rapidly changed the way enterprises and organizations operate and communicate. In the hospitality industry particularly, the advent of the Internet has revolutionized how hoteliers promote their hotels to customers. The number of Internet users increases, and so does the number of visitors to hotel websites. Many hotels nowadays make use of the Internet for two main purposes. Firstly, hoteliers make use of a website to interact with their customers in that many customers easily get information on hotels online by visiting a hotel website. Thus, a hotel website serves as a digital or online channel for disseminating information about services and products or a hotel profile so that customers are well informed of a hotel they will stay. Secondly, hoteliers create their own websites as an electronic platform for profitability. Well-designed hotel websites with useful information and extra benefits available to customers can help increase sales volume and improve the reputation of a hotel. In other words, a well crafted hotel website can be a medium of promoting a hotel to attract more customers to opt for the hotel to stay. In conclusion, a hotel website serves not only as a digital platform for communicating services and products to customers, but also as an electronic medium of earning more money.

In a similar vein, the students majoring in computer engineering also engaged in joint text deconstruction, and they worked on the text of *website design*, which was the core of their major (see Figure 6.6). The teacher scaffolded the students to discern what constituted website design. The participating computer engineering teacher recommended this topic because the students were trained to become website designers as one of the target career options. Another academic career option is that the students may further their studies into computer engineering in tertiary education. Web design is one of the core competencies particularly in software engineering, in which the students learned. To become a professional website designer, the students had to have the knowledge of website design. Thus, in consultation with the computer engineering teacher, the text of website design was chosen because of relevancy to the core of computer engineering.

Figure 6.6 Computer Engineering Text of *Website Design*

Website or web design involves creating and maintaining websites. Good websites should have six main features: typography, page layout, high quality content, visual design, user experience design (ease of use), and speed and frequency of updating. Typographically, good websites make use of a few similar styles of typefaces and fonts. Most browsers recognize particular typefaces and fonts to enhance screen resolutions. Secondly, well crafted websites should be well laid out to allow for easy navigation for users. For this reason, a webpage layout should be the same on different pages and looks aesthetically pleasing and eye-friendly. Thirdly, visual design affects how websites are favorably portrayed. The use of visuals not only makes Websites visually attractive, but also helps describe verbal information posted on websites. Certainly, visuals should be chosen based on types of websites, groups of audiences, and target markets. In addition, user experience design typifies good websites. This design relates to layout, clear instructions, and labeling on a website. User experience design assists users in becoming familiar with how they interact via a website. The user experience design also influences the usefulness of websites from a user perspective. Lastly, websites should be regularly updated to attract more visitors to read information posted on websites. A regular update on certain information definitely enhances website credibility. Thus, well designed websites must have such features as: typefaces and fonts, webpage layout, useful information, the use of appropriate visuals, ease of use or navigation, and a regular information update.

In this joint text construction, the teachers guided the students to understand the concept of web design. The web design includes two major tasks: creating and maintaining (doing verbs). Thus, when working on web design, the students played two roles as website creators and website maintainers. In the text, the students learned six features of good websites. They needed to know multimodal resources required to design good websites. They had to be able to present information using different modes. In this joint text deconstruction or modeling, the teachers not only focused on content information, but also emphasized how language worked in the text.

For three groups of students, following this text deconstruction, in the while-lesson sessions, the students engaged in activities, which embraced knowledge building and construction through meaning making activity, such as talking about the text. To engage the students in knowledge building, a content (vocational) topic is always the starting point for language learning (Siegel, 2014). After the joint text construction, the students discussed reading questions in small groups while the teachers observed and facilitated the discussions. The students talked about the text and connected the text to their prior knowledge and experience. The discussion of the questions socialized the students into how to make meaning of the text through talking. The questions were concerned about (1) predicting the title of the text; (2) identifying the source of the text; (3) identifying the type of the text; (4) identifying a thesis and main points of the text; (5) analyzing features of the text such as tone, mood, and style; (6) identifying rhetorical moves such as a topic sentence, major

details, and supporting details; and (7) social functions of the text, such as a relationship between the writer and the reader. As pointed out earlier, these questions attempted to engage the students in meaning making in context. This meaning making activity socialized the students into knowledge building through talking or a collaborative dialog mediated by the reading of the text. This suggests that reading lends itself into talking. Here is an example of how the students made meaning of texts mediated by questions as prompters. In a small group discussion, the students were talking about hotel guest registration.

Table 6.2 A *Collaborative Dialog as a Platform for Making Meaning of the Text, "Hotel Guest Registration"*

Turns	Actors		Mood
1	S6	***Sudah baca teks dengan cermat***? ((*Did you read the text carefully*?))	Interrogative
2	S7	Yes err I read the text carefully err what the text talks about?	Statement
3	S8	I think umm this text tells how receptionists process guest registration\	Statement
4	S9	Agree (.) The picture tells that transaction (.) Right?	Statement
5	S8	Brilliant, X ((name student))	
6	S6	Err…there are two actors in the text umm the receptionists and the customers…saya maksud tamu ((*I mean guests*))	Statement
7	S7	Guests	Confirmation
	S6	Ya guests	Reiteration
8	S7	***Lihat kalimat ini*** ((*look at this sentence*)) "The registration process follows some steps in offering guest hospitality" ((*The student was reading this sentence*))…This shows the central idea of the text (.) is it right?	Statement + Asking Confirmation
9	S6	Ya ((yess)) I mengalami ((experienced)) this registration process when I did job training in a Malaysian hotel\	Elaboration
10	S9	So the text gives factual process information.	Statement
11	S8	Great ((*name S9*))	Praising

The snapshot in Table 6.2 shows that the students participated in a collaborative dialog. S6 initiated the dialog by asking whether her group members were done with close reading. S7 continued the dialog, and she encouraged other members to contribute. S8 gave her

interpretation about the main idea of the text. S9 reinforced S8 interpretation by drawing other members' attention to the picture. This student (S9) interpreted the situation of the event by relating the picture to the text. S9 also tried to ask the confirmation of her peers regarding her interpretation. S8 agreed upon S9 interpretation. S6, then, emphasized the actors in the text. S7 preferred using the word, *guests*, to the word, *customers*. In Bahasa Indonesia, two words convey different meanings (customers: ***pelanggan***) and guests (***tamu***). For this reason, S6 tried to self-correct her word in Bahasa Indonesia, *I mean guests*. S7 drew the other group members by pointing to the topic sentence of the text. S6 connected this idea to her prior experience. S6 testimony triggered S9 response that the information of the text was authentic. The excerpt shows how each of the individual students contributed to the discussion. They shared their interpretations with each other. This collaborative dialog allowed the students to engage in the actual meaning making of the text. More importantly, in this dialog, the students communicated meta-functional meanings (the ideational: *hotel guest registration*; the interpersonal: *initiating*, *questioning*, *agreeing*, *elaborating*, *reinforcing*, *confirming*, and *praising*; and the textual: the use of Bahasa Indonesia as a semiotic tool for meaning making).

After the students discussed the reading questions, they engaged in the whole class discussion guided by the teacher. This whole class discussion aimed to share students' responses to the questions. Each of the groups reported what they discussed in relation to the questions. This discussion did not seek for wrong and right answers but served as a platform for discussing and sharing what they understood in order to build trust, reduce social anxiety, and foster positive relationships. In other words, both small group and whole class discussions facilitated knowledge building in a guided reading comprehension task. This task prepared the students for an independent reading task through literature circles.

Generally speaking, the students showed gradual reading development in terms of reading speed and comprehension though in some units, they required more time to complete reading tasks because most of the students read slowly with little comprehension because of lack of language resources (e.g., vocabulary and grammar). As the students engaged in more dialogic reading tasks, they got accustomed to more meaning making activities along with focused functional language analysis (see Section 6.5). Throughout the guided reading comprehension tasks, all the students found such activities engaging and motivating. Here are some students' responses to the tasks:

Table 6.3 *Students' Reflections on Guided Reading Comprehension Activities*

Students	Responses
END (HMH)	I felt that reading activities encouraged me to participate in pair and small group discussions. Now, I realize that reading is not a stand-alone activity, but it lends itself into another activity, such as discussion. More importantly, I engaged in reading comprehension activities, which were oriented towards learning to mean.
REN (HMH)	I found reading and talking useful because we could share what we read. The most important thing in the reading comprehension activities is that sharing and discussion motivated us to participate not only in learning to read, but also learning to comprehend. This engaging reading activity made me aware that reading could be integral to speaking. By thinking aloud through sharing and discussion, I enjoyed reading a variety of texts.
YULA (Acc)	Reading accounting related texts together with pair, small group, and whole class discussions was always interactive and meaningful because I had to contribute to the discussion. I felt that I took on different roles as reader, meaning maker, and reading partner or collaborator. As a reader, I not only comprehended the texts, but also interacted with the authors of the texts. As a meaning maker, I not only read the texts, but also built knowledge through reading. As a reading partner, I had to share what I understood, and I had to listen to what my peers understood.
TUS (Acc)	Reading with the teachers and my peers sparked my interest in collaboration and initiated collaboration. I felt that in-class learning atmospheres were positive and responsive in ways that encouraged all the students to participate in reading, sharing, and discussion. The teachers scaffolded us how to read and comprehend. We also learned how our peers comprehended texts. We participated in reading silently and talking. I felt empowered as an engaging reader.
LIN (CE)	We experienced something challenging because we did not read for correct answers, but for knowledge building. For me, reading was a tool for building knowledge. I was fully aware that reading did not necessarily respond to questions correctly, but challenged us to connect what we read to what we experienced. Thus, reading, which led to knowledge building allowed me not only to learn English, but also deepen my vocational knowledge.
JUN (CE)	I engaged in responsive reading comprehension activities that I never experienced before. I felt that I enacted my agency as an active reader. I also participated in partner or peer reading activities. These activities always motivated me to read, share, and discuss the texts.

The students' reflection data show different responses about the guided reading comprehension activities along with pair, small group, and whole class discussions. The students admitted that these activities engaged them in learning to mean, learning to read, and learning to comprehend. They also argued that reading activities were useful when integral to sharing and discussion. These activities provided the students with more opportunities to share and discuss what they understood and learn from each other how to unpack the meanings of the texts. As shown in the reflections, the students reported that by participating in peer sharing and small group discussions, they took on different roles as engaging readers, meaning makers, and collaborators. These roles indicate student awareness of their agency as they were involved in the activities. This recognition of agency is articulated in the use of such words as *participation* and *engagement*. With this in mind, the students harnessed their agency and took on responsibility for their own learning. Another important finding is that the students recognized the teachers as facilitators and their peers as reading partners or collaborators. This evidence accentuates the important roles of teachers and peers in building responsive and supportive learning atmospheres.

6.2.2 Learning to Mean through Dialogic Reading: Literature Circles

Following the guided reading comprehension task, all the students went through seven units along with the presentations of self-selected texts. The students engaged in literature circles also called book discussion groups or small group literature discussions. Literature circles encouraged groups of students to talk about texts of self-choice. This pedagogic practice has been much influenced by reader response theory or Rosenblatt's (1995, 2005) transactional theory, Vygotskian-Hallidayan theories of dialogic inquiry (Wells, 1999), instructional conversation (Goldenberg, 1993), and dialoguing to learn (Barnes, 1993). This text based discussion encouraged students to connect their own lives and personal views to the literature or text they read. It also engaged the students with the text in terms of meaning making. Following Shelton-Strong's definition (2012), this dialogic reading activity is "small peer-led discussion groups, involved in reading the same piece of [texts], and who come together on a regular programmed basis to share interpretations of what they have read" (p. 214). Literature circles are small, student-led discussions of student-selected texts (Daniels, 2002), in which a text is a springboard for small group discussions. All group members have to prepare to engage in and contribute to the small group. The groups can share the outcomes of their small group discussion with the entire class (Daniels, 2002).

In this study, the teachers briefed them on how to participate in literature circles. They also detailed roles the students played in this activity. In this activity, texts were authentic materials, which were related to students' vocational areas. This activity was a means for students to share their reading responses (Dalton & Grisham, 2013). The students were allowed to use Bahasa Indonesia, but they were encouraged to use English. They played different roles. Both the teachers and the students negotiated these roles based on two major roles: host groups and guest or visiting groups. These groups took on different roles as briefly described below.

Table 6.4 *The Roles the Students Played in Literature Circles Activities*

Host Group	Roles	Guest Group	Roles
Text Navigator	look for, collect, and suggest an appropriate text based on an assigned major theme or topic	Text Assessor	evaluate if the presented text is relevant to the vocational topic discussed
Text Master	be familiar with the content of the selected text, highlight key or important points for discussion, and present the text orally.	Questioner/ Information Seeker	pose questions based on the text discussed and seek for or exploit as much information as possible in the text discussed
Summarizer	write a summary of the text	Note Taker and Reporter	take notes of what has been discussed and report some main points to the whole class and the teacher
Language Enricher	provide language resources (e.g., lexico-grammar), which facilitate the understanding of the text presented or enrich language resources (e.g., grammar guides, vocabulary lists, e-dictionaries, and corpora	Language Observer	Identify or list any unfamiliar lexico-grammatical resources
Text Enricher	recommend more texts, which are relevant to the presented text and connect the text presented to another text other groups members should read		

These roles served as a scaffold for guiding the students to participate student-led discussions in more organized and interactive ways. These roles also assisted the students to focus on particular responses or specify what tasks they were supposed to perform. By assigning the students different roles, individual students had responsibility for their own learning and sharing what they had done with other members. This collective meaning making helped the students explore features of text. Before the students participated in literature circles, the teachers demonstrated or guided them how to play these roles. The central goal of this task was to talk about a text in a small group discussion. The students were asked to prepare text presentation through posters or PowerPoint slides, assigned to visit other groups' posters, and told to play the assigned roles. Though the students played different roles, they supported each other through sharing, negotiating, and discussing the text presented. In each literature circle, the roles the students played were rotated so that they experienced different roles. They stood in small groups in poster stations with each group member sharing the questions, texts, and language resources they had prepared to initiate the discussion. In the literature circles, after giving the initial directions and the modeling, the teachers moved around to observe and listen in the small group discussions but did not provide additional comments until after the groups were finished with the discussions.

Students who played a role as text navigators looked for and selected a text, which would be presented in a small group discussion. The students reported that they digitally navigated a variety of texts based on the assigned theme. The members frequently discussed the impact of the text on the building of vocational knowledge. They equated reading with opportunities to learn more about a wide range of vocational topics and information. The students navigated the text online in an after-school hour session, and the students as text navigators initiated this endeavor. They admitted that they found a lot of texts that confused them. To help the students avoid this confusion, the teachers provided the students with a guide sheet listing criteria for selecting the text (see Table 6.5). These yes and no questions were the point of departure for student self-reflection. For small group discussions, the questions were turned into open questions, such as *what is the relevance of the text to financial statements* (for accounting), *to hotel hospitality* (for hotel management and industry), and *to website design* (for computer engineering)?

Table 6.5 *Criteria for Selecting Vocational Texts*

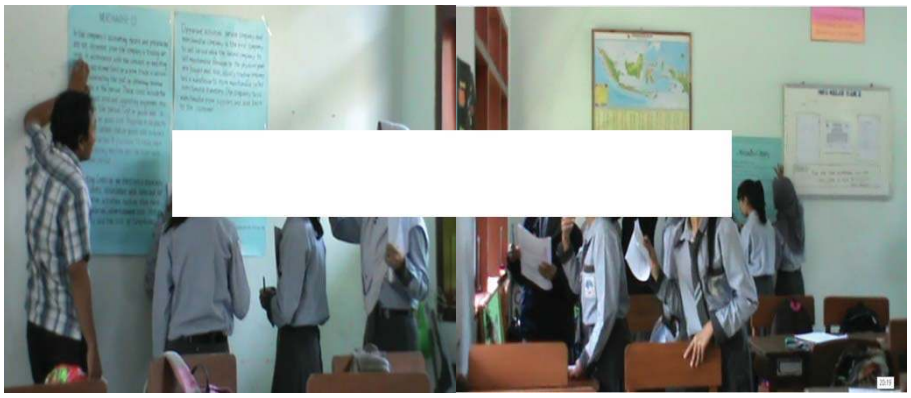
- *Is the text relevant to the theme or topic?*
- *Does the text ignite student vocational interest?*
- *Is the text authentic or socially practiced in a vocational area?*
- *Does the text support student vocational knowledge building?*
- *Will the text provide the students with new understandings of vocational knowledge?*
- *Does the text add to what the students read in the guided reading comprehension task?*

The text navigators chose several texts (between 3 and 5 texts) to negotiate and discuss with their group members. Finally, they selected a text based on a unanimous decision. In this process, the students in a small group read and discussed the text before they presented to another group. This reading encouraged the students to understand the text though some students were assigned to play as text masters. One important thing in this respect is that other students helped the students as text masters understand the content of the text. This support could lighten text masters' loads. This initial reading and sharing built student ownership of the text. Most of the students argued that they felt that they were responsible for mastering the selected text. In addition, the initial reading and sharing within small groups prepared the students who played roles as summarizers, language enrichers, and text enrichers. They highlighted the points that needed to be presented based on their roles. For example, students as summarizers highlighted main ideas of the text. Language enrichers jotted down key lexico-grammatical resources that they shared with other group members, they highlighted lexico-grammatical resources for other readers to consider and learn. In other words, the students as engaged readers could see what other readers had found important in the text. They were also encouraged to share what they read, thought, and highlighted. The sharing of responses to the chosen text prepared the students for the actual literature circle task in a class.

In each of the literature circle sessions, the students started presenting the self-selected text, and the guest group members listened to their presentation. The students who played a role as text masters initiated talking about the text, which involved meaning making in context. The meaning making is the engine of comprehension or understanding, which happens when reading the text. The text masters pointed out vocational issues (e.g., *a website as a tool for marketing in the hotel hospitality industry*, *a cash flow and firm financial*

health, and *designing an interactive website*) that other students had to learn in the text. All the students engaged in close reading of the text discussed. This close reading has a lot to do with "a focused rereading of a text" in which the students went beyond "a basic understanding of the text" (Dalton, 2013, p. 643). The students also engaged in close reading together with small group discussions. Thus, close reading involved a particular portion (e.g., terms, phrases, or clauses) of the text to discuss particular vocational concepts or knowledge. This close reading was a starting point for a dialogic discussion as semiotic mediation. This dialogic discussion enabled the students to collectively present, defend, and convince each other's viewpoints; negotiate meanings; and build knowledge.

Figure 6.7 *The Students Engaging in Literature Circles Activities*



After the text masters presented the text, questioners or information seekers asked some questions. These questions were open-ended or subject to a discussion. At the same time, language observers identified lexico-grammatical resources that both host and guest group members discussed. In response to language related queries, language enrichers explained them coupled with digital resources that the group members could access. Before the discussion was finished, summarizers reported a summary of the text and of the discussion. Note takers and reporters reported what they discussed to the class when all the small group discussions were finished. In addition, text enrichers recommended further texts that the guest group members might be interested to read. In the meantime, text assessors evaluated the text presented in relation to the criteria for text selection.

The students argued that literature circles were one of the instructional activities, which promoted dialogic learning because they played a role as co-inquirers, collaboratively engaging in meaning making of texts. The students participated in question-and-answer enterprises, which led to knowledge building because they exchanged a lot of information or

knowledge. These enterprises were not constrained in correct-or-wrong entities, but they served to trigger a meaningful inquiry toward new understandings. The students engaged in asking for justification, challenging, or prompting for evidence. The different roles the students played resulted in a great deal of engagement and collaboration in reading, sharing, discussing, and analyzing texts.

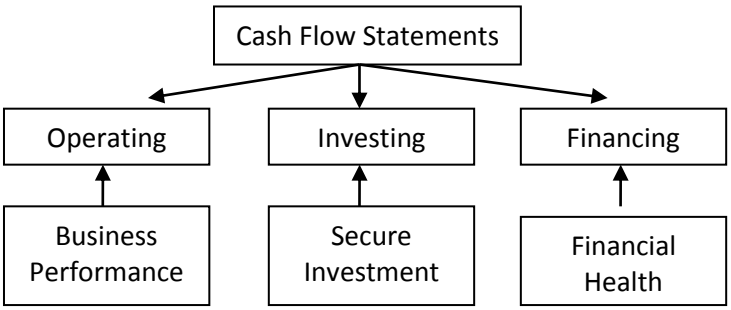
Here is an example of the small group discussions. In this discussion, the students jointly made meaning of the *cash flow statement text*. This discussion came out of what the students read.

Table 6.6 *The Students Discussing the Concept of Cash Flow Statements*

Turns	Actors	Contributions	Mood
1	S13	Our group talks about cash flow (.) understanding the cash flow important for businessmen and entrepreneurs\	Statement
	S14	Also bankers investors and other business players	Elaboration
2	S15	Why?	Interrogative
3	S13	((name one of her group members)) please explain this	Imperative
4	S14	to make a decision about financial business	Statement
	S17	Like?	Interrogative
	S14	if a business is bad or good financially	Statement
6	S13	Let me give more information (.) if a company is financially in good position…so the cash flow tells inflows and outflows of cash	Statement
7	S14	In some literature the cash flow also indicates a company the strength of balance sheet ((*reading the note*))	Statement
	S13	The cash flow records activities like operating like cash generated from operations (.) investing like interest received (.) financing like dividends paid…	Statement
	S15	So…the cash flow template consist of operating investing and financing	Statement
	S14	Inflows and outflows of operating investing and financing activities\	Statement
	S17	Can we say a company performs well umm if the cash flow shows **surpluses**?	Asking Confirmation
	S13	You mean **net cash** for each business activity?	Statement
	S17	I see	Agreeing

In the excerpt (Table 6.6), the students discussed what counts as a cash flow statement, which is one of the financial statements. In Generally Accepted Accounting Principles (GAAP), the cash flow statement "reflects a firm's liquidity and includes only inflows and outflows of cash or cash equivalents" (Cory, Envick, & Patton, 2011, p. 64). Each of the students contributed to the discussion about the cash flow statement. After the students finished the discussion, one of the students who played a role a summarizer created a concept map presented below.

Figure 6.8 *A Concept Map of a Cash Flow Statement*



Engaging the students in small group discussions could support both personal and critical responses (Sanacore, 2013). This engagement assisted the students to develop their meaning making by considering a broader range of viewpoints, especially while they were discussing multimodal texts. This instructional enterprise fits well with a social constructivist perspective and a critical dimension of education (Sanacore, 2013; Wells, 1999) because they are fundamentally dialogic (Reznitskaya, 2012) as they encourage students to invest actively in their learning and to embrace language as a motivational tool for developing novel approaches to thinking. Literature circles engaged the students in dialogic meaning making activities, which go beyond teacher knowledge transmission. This meaning making challenges behaviorist perspectives, which claim that knowledge is best transmitted. Through dialogic reading, the students confirmed that they learned English not just as a vehicle for communicating ideas, but also as a semiotic tool for forming new ways of thinking and knowing (Vygotsky, 1978).

After the students engaged in all the literature circle activities, they were asked to write a reflective account based on two questions: (1) what did you do during the literature circle activities and (2) what did you learn from these activities? The students who played different roles in the activities expressed different experiences as reported below.

Table 6.7 *Students' Reflections on the Roles Played in Literature Circles Activities* (Part 1)

Roles	Reflective Accounts
Text Navigator	I was challenged to navigate and **make a decision** on which texts we selected. Though playing a role as a text navigator, I had to discuss this with my group members. Not only was I responsible for the selection of the text, but also my group members **made a decision** on text selection. (RIS, Accounting Student, 25 March 2013)
	I realized that the first step in **reading autonomy** was navigating and selecting a text I found **rewarding**. We got **spoon-fed** by our teachers before we **engaged** in this project. The teacher **controlled** what text we read. Now, we **decided** the text we read, shared, and talked. (AGU, Hotel Management and Hospitality Student, 25 March 2013)
	I visited several websites to find **reliable information**. The teachers provided **a guide sheet**, which **helped** us navigate and choose a text, which met our expectation and curriculum expectation because learning English does not solely aims to develop our language ability, but also **deepen our vocational knowledge**. (WIN, Computer Engineering Student, 25 March 2013)
Text Master	My role as a text master required me to **fully understand** the text. I had to highlight some interesting points for a small group discussion. I also had **responsibility** for leading the discussion and keeping it going. (YUL, Accounting Student, 25 March 2013)
	At first, I had difficulty in deciding vocational information useful for a small group discussion. But, I had to **consult** this with my peers and my vocational teachers. They **helped** me focus on particular information, which was the core of our vocation. (REN, Computer Engineering Student, 25 March 2013)
	As a text master, my job was **to provide** useful information, which **could enhance** my vocational knowledge and my peers'. The points I raised could **encourage** others to **contribute** to the discussion. (LIN, Computer Engineering Student, 25 March 2013)
Summarizer	I jotted down main points of the text and the discussion. For me, it was a challenge to present central ideas that **enhanced** my **understanding of vocational knowledge**. (ADI, Accounting Student, 25 March 2013)
	I **never wrote** a summary of any text **unless** the teacher did so. But, through literature circles, I **learned** to condense a text. I always **paid attention** to what the group discussed. (YUL, Hotel Management and Hospitality Student, 25 March 2013)
	I tried to summarize central ideas, important for **knowledge building**. This summary **helped** others **recall** what we discussed

Roles	Reflective Accounts
	and connect the central ideas to other texts. (MAL, Computer Engineering Student, 25 March 2013)
Language Enricher	I was responsible for listing and explaining key lexico-grammar that predominated in the text. We learned a lot from **reading**, **sharing**, and **discussing** the text. (ANI, Accounting Student, 25 March 2013)
	What I did enjoy was that I presented vocabulary and grammar. I also had **to provide** some links such as corpora, online dictionaries, and language websites, which **provided** vocabulary and grammar resources. (REN, Hotel Management and Hospitality Student, 25 March 2013)
	We thought that we learned **vocabulary and grammar** first before we read. Now, we **learned** these language resources **through reading**. It was a challenge for me which vocabulary and grammar we discussed in detail and why these were worth discussing. (SIL, Computer Engineering Student, 25 March 2013)
Text Enricher	It was a great opportunity for me **to present information** the author(s) had **not fully described** in the text, and it made reading more interesting. (FIT, Accounting Student, 25 March 2013)
	I had to **read and understand** the text discussed before I suggested more texts to others. When we talked about **technical concepts** or terms. As a text enricher, I had **to recommend** relevant texts to get more information. I was aware that one text is connected to another text. (EKA, Hotel Management and Hospitality Student, 25 March 2013)
	To provide more texts, I **had to visit** some websites and did close reading of some texts. It came to **my surprise** that we had to **read more texts** to **relate** what we discussed in a small group discussion to relevant texts. (REN, Computer Engineering Student, 25 March 2013)

The students' reflective accounts show that the students expressed different voices regarding the benefits of literature circles activities. The students had full autonomy to select texts. This autonomy built their learning ownership and enabled them to control their learning. The students also addressed two-fold goals of role-based reading or literature circles: to develop their language ability and to deepen their vocational knowledge. The students also felt that in literature circles, both their peers and the teachers were supportive. This evidence recognizes the agency of the students. The students also admitted that such tasks encouraged them to engage actively in sharing and discussion. They also reported that both sharing and discussion were a platform for knowledge building and language resource enrichment. Over half of the students addressed the importance of vocational

knowledge building when engaging in literature circles. The students realized that they engaged in a series of activities, such as navigating, reading, negotiating, sharing, and discussing. They also recognized their role identities as resource persons. More reactions of the students to their engagement in literature circles activities are presented below.

Table 6.8 *Students' Reflections on the Roles Played in Literature Circles Activities* (Part 2)

Roles	Reflections
Text Assessor	**Assessing** if a certain text is relevant to accounting is **not an easy task**. I had to read the text closely. In some case, I **asked help** from my group mate who is a fast and good reader. For me, being a text assessor challenged me to become critical. (FIT, Accounting Student, 25 March 2013)
	I have **no experience** in text assessment for discussions. I used to read texts not for discussions but **just for reading and translating** vocational texts individually. (EKA, Hotel Management and Hospitality Student, 25 March 2013)
	Questioning if texts are useful for hotel hospitality and management students **required close reading**. For me, I had to reread texts to know if the texts represent hotel hospitality and management concepts, if they are socially practiced in the field, and if they contain words, phrases, and clauses that linguistically **enrich** our language resources. (REN, Computer Engineering Student, 25 March 2013)
Information Seeker/ Questioner	I **enjoyed** seeking information by asking questions to other group members. Digging more information on particular vocational concepts, terms, and topics was **quite challenging**. (RIF, Accounting Student, 25 March 2013)
	I realized that I **could make** the discussion **lively** by posing several questions that I really did not know. I was responsible for **continuing** a peer conversation. We could **talk more** about a text. (NUR, Hotel Management and Hospitality Student, 25 March 2013)
	I learned to become an **active questioner**. I felt that questioning was a prompter for group discussions. The questions I asked aimed to **develop** our vocational knowledge. Through **questioning**, we **shared** and **discussed** vocational knowledge and experience. (NIA, Computer Engineering Student, 25 March 2013)
Language Observer	I was **motivated to learn** a lot about **vocabulary and grammar** discussed in texts. I got used to look at grammar books as guides. Now, I learned what vocabulary and grammar are commonly used in the texts. If I found difficulties, I **consulted** them with teachers and grammar books. (RUS, Accounting Student, 25 March 2013)
	It was always interesting **to learn** language features **actually used**

	in texts. Through **texts**, I **knew** which vocabulary and grammar had to be learned. (SEL, Hotel Management and Hospitality Student, 25 March 2013)
	I **exploited** as much vocabulary and grammar as possible. I think that texts are **sources of vocabulary and grammar**. Both vocabulary and grammar are the **architecture of text**. (MEG, Computer Engineering Student, 25 March 2013)
Note Taker and Reporter	I **had to** pay close attention to what the group members discussed because I would **report** this discussion to the whole class discussion. I just wrote **main points** discussed. (ROS, Accounting Student, 25 March 2013)
	Note taking and reporting were **quite challenging**. By doing these, I **learned a lot** particularly about **vocational concepts**. We talked about computer engineering related concepts. (ANI, Hotel Management and Hospitality Student, 25 March 2013)
	Note taking and reporting were **useful skills** that I gained during the process of literature circles. Note taking **supported** my writing skills particularly **summarizing** and **synthesizing**. (PAN, Computer Engineering Student, 25 March 2013)

Generally speaking, students' reflection data show that they also learned different aspects of vocational knowledge and lexico-grammar as well as other skills, such as note taking, summarizing, reporting, listening, speaking, and synthesizing. Drawing on all the data, the students recognized their authority, agency, and leadership in negotiated literature circles. The students were also able to exercise a variety of choices (e.g., selecting texts and planning information presented). They voiced the benefits of literature circles, such as responsibility, engagement, collaboration, and support. These benefits were reported in previous studies (see McElvain, 2010; Rowland & Barrs, 2013). Taken together, all the students were positive about literature circles. They reaped benefits from engaging in this task. More importantly, they participated in meaning making activities, such as reading, sharing, responding, discussing, questioning, and conversing. These activities mediated learning to learn and learning to mean collaboratively. These are evidenced in the following students' reflections.

Students' Reflections on the Roles Played in Literature Circles Activities (Part 3)

> We took on **shared responsibilities**. These responsibilities led to **engagement** in group discussions. We knew what to read, share, respond, and discuss. The teachers **rotated** responsibilities. This enabled us to **learn different skills**, such as navigating texts, leading a discussion, questioning, observing language resources, and other skills when playing **assigned roles**.

> We **learned from each other**. We were **a community of readers** who exploited and discussed information within groups. We **collaboratively** selected the texts, shared **knowledge** and **expertise**, and developed topics vocationally relevant.
>
> I observed that both host and guest group members did **their best to keep** the discussion moving. For example, when a text master **did not elaborate** a particular concept, an information seeker **posed some questions**, which created a lively conversation. In some case, the teachers also **helped** both text masters and information seekers raise interesting issues for a discussion.

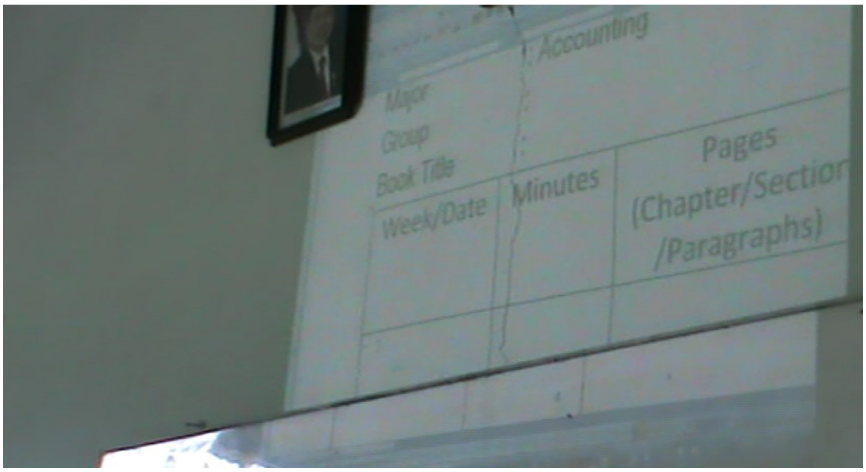
6.2.3 Doing Vocationally Oriented Extensive Reading along with Learning Logs

Many studies (see Nakanishi, 2015; Taguchi, Gorsuch, Takayasu-Maass, & Snipp, 2012) on extensive reading (hereafter ER) in different contexts investigated the development of vocabulary acquisition and lexical knowledge, the development of reading fluency, the improvement of reading proficiency and language proficiency, sustained motivation for independent reading, behaviors of speed reading and repeated reading, the building of autonomous learning, and student enjoyment of reading. This previous research still views extensive reading as cognitive and textual behaviors, but none of this research sees ER as a way to build and develop content knowledge mediated by language as a semiotic tool. Grounded in SFL, three groups of students in this study were assigned to read a vocational textbook that they chose extensively. This ER was based on vocational teachers' and students' input for more opportunities to build and develop content or vocational knowledge; at the same time, developing language ability. English medium textbooks chosen were relevant to students' vocational area: accounting, hotel management and hospitality, and computer engineering. The students had access to these materials. Each of the individual students had the copy of the chosen textbook. Some of the students referred to read the electronic version of the textbooks because they had a personal laptop. This out-of-class extensive reading attempted to maximize students' reading time and build a habit of reading to learn and reading to mean.

Before the students commenced reading the chosen textbook outside of class time, the teachers explained three learning logs: reading, grammar, and vocabulary (see Appendix H). The reading log focused on how much time students read and how much information they learned. The grammar log was used to record grammatical resources the students learned. The vocabulary log was employed to record all the lexical items the students learned or found useful. The teachers demonstrated how to complete all these logs along

with how to read a textbook. Due to limited in-class time, the students were randomly asked to report on their learning logs in each of the class periods.

Figure 6.9 *An Extensive Reading Log*



Throughout sustained ER, the students were engaged in the act of reading as a meaning making process (ideational meaning, interpersonal meaning, and textual meaning). The reading processes include repeated reading (RR), speed reading (SR), and reading for meta-language analysis. In the first 3 months, the students encountered many unfamiliar words. They admitted that it was hard to read longer English medium texts on a daily basis because they did not get used to doing this task. For this reason, they always re-read the texts to understand the gist of the texts. Most of the students did this repeated reading in order to complete components of the reading logs, such as “a summary of your reading” and “best quotes” that they did enjoy reading. Three majors, accounting, hotel management and hospitality, and computer engineering, reported what unfamiliar words and difficult clauses contributed to this repeated reading.

Table 6.9 *Students’ Reflections on Engaging with Sustained ER*

Participants	Diary Entries
YUL	When first doing extensive reading, I encountered unfamiliar words, such as *revive*, *eminent*, *safeguard*, and *numerous*. To solve this lexical difficulty, I used my **digital dictionaries**. I did not guess these words because **guessing** took time and did not develop my **vocabulary repertoire** because I was not sure what these words meant. I think that consulting these words with **dictionaries saved** my time and enabled me to know the exact meanings of the words. When I had difficulty understanding particular clauses, particularly complex clauses or clause patterns I found unfamiliar, I **asked my teacher** to help me sort out this

	problem.
END	It was the first time that I did extensive reading. I had to manage my reading time. Luckily, I **read** not only for **learning English** but also for **deepening my vocational knowledge**. I always skipped unfamiliar words. I just attempted to understand the gist of the text. If these **unfamiliar words** were relevant to **key concepts** in my vocation, I would be interested to **know more** by consulting these words with my vocational teachers whose English ability is good. I learned a lot from this extensive reading.
LIN	Honestly, it was hard for my classmates and me to do extensive reading. We **scarcely** read computer manuals and textbooks in English. But, we had to deal with this difficulty. I **read together** with more capable friends of mine, so I could ask them if I found difficult words or clauses.

These data show that the students did not use guessing to make meaning. They did not use the context to determine how to deal with unfamiliar words and difficult clauses. But, the students relied on the use of dictionaries as a semiotic tool. Other evidence demonstrates that if the students found those word groups and clauses unimportant for understanding and building vocational knowledge as a whole, they preferred skipping them. Nonetheless, if they thought that those unfamiliar vocabulary and clauses were critical for understanding the concept(s), they consulted both dictionaries and vocational teachers to know the exact meaning of the words and clauses. The students also recognized both their peers and the teachers as resource people.

After 3 months, most of the students did speed or fast reading because they used to do ER. The majority of the students reported that they did read 4-6 pages of the textbook before they went to bed and 2-3 pages early in the morning because they were required to complete learning logs. The students spent between 60 minutes and 100 minutes reading the chosen textbook on a daily basis. The learning logs could be a trigger for the students to read routinely. Regardless of student English ability, the students recounted that the learning logs helped them keep track of their reading. The logs also encouraged them to summarize the gist of what they read and record lexico-grammatical resources they learned. JUD (Computer Engineering, a male student, Reflective Diary, 10 January 2013) said that

> By doing **independent reading** and completing **learning logs**, I was **motivated** to learn English seriously. In English lessons, I did **not pay attention** to the lessons because we **studied for English examinations**. For me, I could prepare these examinations for a short time because the examinations were

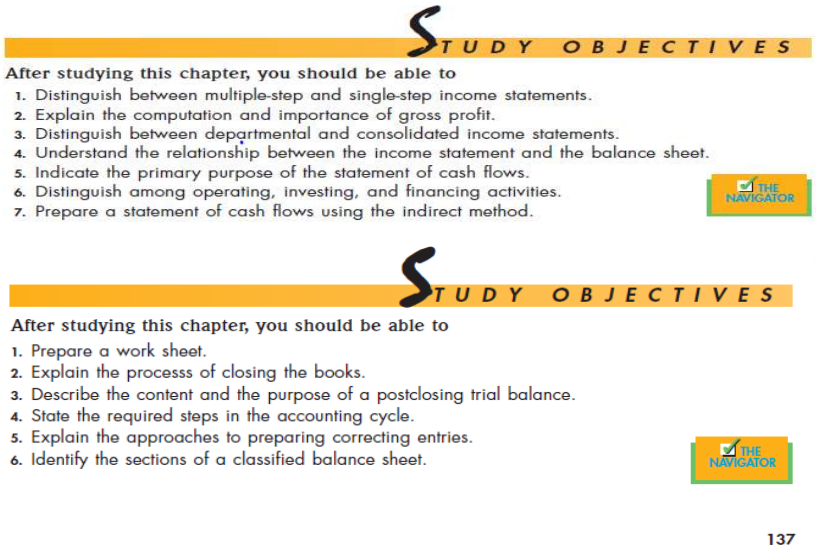
> multiple choice oriented. In this extensive reading, although I experienced **difficulty** understanding content of the text, I had to **deal with** this difficulty. The reason for this was that the textbook was **relevant to my specialization**. I **wanted to further** my study into polytechnic and major in computer engineering. I want to become a computer engineer **who is up to date** with the global development of computer engineering. To prepare for this, I have to **improve** my English. English is also one of the **most important** skills in my vocational area.

YUL (Accounting, a female student, Reflective Diary, 10 January 2013) reported that she enjoyed doing extensive reading. She felt that she was really engaged in building and developing her accounting knowledge while developing her English ability. In particular, she recounted that

> I read the book entitled *Hospitality Financial Accounting*. I chose this book because I wanted to **learn more** about the **application of accounting** to hospitality, such as hotel and lodging, catering, and spa. I also wanted to **know more about** accounting principles, the recording process, ledgering, accounting cycles, financial reporting, and accounting aspects, which **support** hospitality business.

In addition, YULA felt that in the textbook, study objectives were clearly spelled out. She reported that these objectives provided her with an overview of learning specific concepts covered in each of the chapters. She found these objectives useful in guiding what to learn and what concepts she needed to develop. For instance, she showed the following study objectives in the textbook chapters: *Financial Statements and Completion of the Accounting Cycle* she read.

Figure 6.10 *Examples of Learning Objectives in the Accounting Textbook*



STUDY OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter, you should be able to

1. Distinguish between multiple-step and single-step income statements.
2. Explain the computation and importance of gross profit.
3. Distinguish between departmental and consolidated income statements.
4. Understand the relationship between the income statement and the balance sheet.
5. Indicate the primary purpose of the statement of cash flows.
6. Distinguish among operating, investing, and financing activities.
7. Prepare a statement of cash flows using the indirect method.

THE NAVIGATOR

STUDY OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter, you should be able to

1. Prepare a work sheet.
2. Explain the processs of closing the books.
3. Describe the content and the purpose of a postclosing trial balance.
4. State the required steps in the accounting cycle.
5. Explain the approaches to preparing correcting entries.
6. Identify the sections of a classified balance sheet.

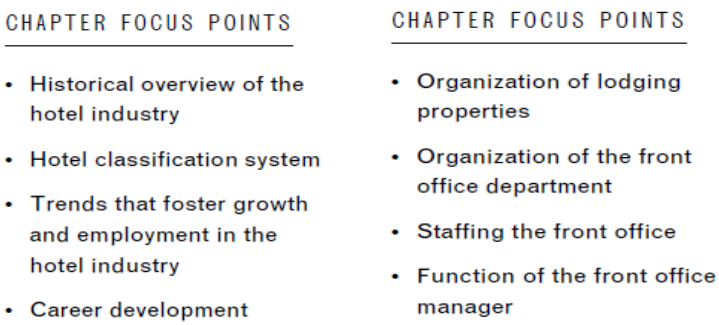
THE NAVIGATOR

137

The learning objectives include mental and verbal processes (e.g., *distinguish*, *explain*, *identify*, *indicate*, *state*, and *understand*). These processes show that accounting students should understand and develop the concepts of financial statements and the accounting cycle, for example. In addition to these processes, the students should be able to demonstrate the actual tasks of preparing a statement of cash flows and a work sheet. This objective required the students to apply the concepts to the actual accounting practices.

In a similar vein, RIS (Hotel Management and Hospitality, a female student, Reflective Diary, 10 November 2012) shared the same experience while doing ER. She found Chapter Focus Points helpful in jotting down the gist of the chapters in the textbook. These chapter focus points signaled some key concepts in each of the chapters. Before she read, she knew what concepts she would read.

Figure 6.11 *Examples of Vocationally Oriented Learning Goals*



CHAPTER FOCUS POINTS

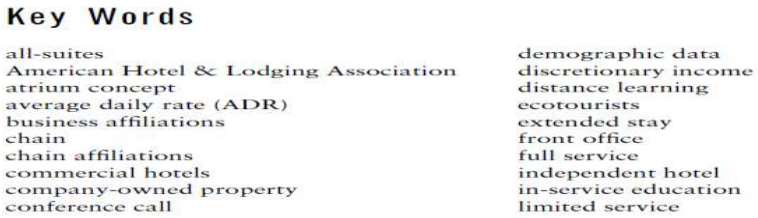
- Historical overview of the hotel industry
- Hotel classification system
- Trends that foster growth and employment in the hotel industry
- Career development

CHAPTER FOCUS POINTS

- Organization of lodging properties
- Organization of the front office department
- Staffing the front office
- Function of the front office manager

This student participant also reported that a list of key words in each of the chapters encouraged her to find these key concepts. She felt that these key words were related to hotel hospitality. She had no prior knowledge of this area, but she had to know these words. Then, she consulted these words with her school mates specializing in this vocational area.

Figure 6.12 *Key Words in Hotel Management and Hospitality*



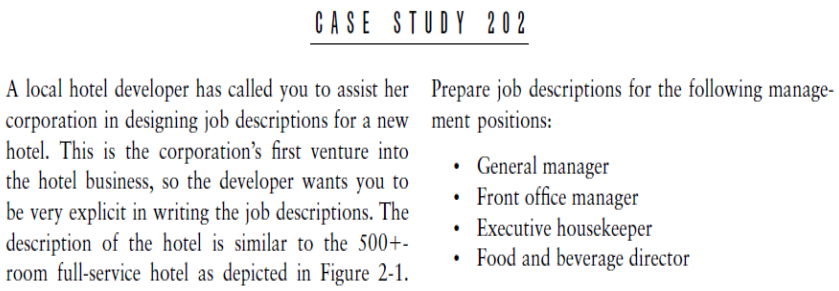
Key Words

all-suites
American Hotel & Lodging Association
atrium concept
average daily rate (ADR)
business affiliations
chain
chain affiliations
commercial hotels
company-owned property
conference call
demographic data
discretionary income
distance learning
ecotourists
extended stay
front office
full service
independent hotel
in-service education
limited service

The student participant also argued that she was familiar with the list of key words because these are common words in the hotel hospitality industry. The participant added that in the textbook, the chapter recaps were presented. She argued that this recap assisted her to summarize the whole chapter. Other students who read the same textbook added that they

were challenged to respond to a case study. This case study encouraged them to explore more knowledge (see Figure 6.13). In particular, ANI recounted that the case study provided her with knowledge of job descriptions. She wrote: "This case study required me to take a role of an assistant local hotel developer in drafting job descriptions. For me, preparing this text was something new. For this reason, I used Google by typing these key words: *general manager*, *front office manager*, *executive housekeeper*, and *food and beverage directors*." This student used Google to find more information about these posts.

Figure 6.13 *Sample Hotel Management and Hospitality Text*



CASE STUDY 202

A local hotel developer has called you to assist her corporation in designing job descriptions for a new hotel. This is the corporation's first venture into the hotel business, so the developer wants you to be very explicit in writing the job descriptions. The description of the hotel is similar to the 500+-room full-service hotel as depicted in Figure 2-1.

Prepare job descriptions for the following management positions:

- General manager
- Front office manager
- Executive housekeeper
- Food and beverage director

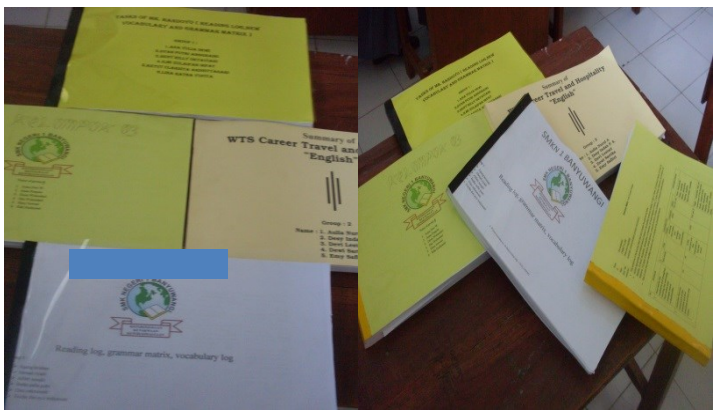
Similarly, the students majoring in computer engineering admitted that doing vocationally oriented extensive reading (henceforth VOER) engaged them in building and developing knowledge. They could deepen their computer engineering knowledge. They argued that learning English also has a lot to do with knowledge building. They also added that this knowledge building enabled them to explore how meanings were contextually embedded in the text. The students in groups shared what they read with the class and the teachers. This platform allowed them to learn from each other. Most of the students also presented lexico-grammatical resources they found unfamiliar and learned. This oral report also provided the students with the opportunity to speak English, but they were allowed to speak Bahasa Indonesia. Some of the students gave an oral report in English, and the rest delivered the report in Bahasa Indonesia.

Overall, VOER enabled the students to engage in knowledge building along with the support of the vocational teachers, the English teachers, and more capable peers. This support fostered students' engagement in VOER. VOER also provided the students with more opportunities to gain access to knowledge and to engage in knowledge reconstruction (Fang & Schleppegrell, 2010). Moje (2008) emphasizes that this knowledge construction "builds an understanding of how knowledge is produced in the disciplines, rather than just building knowledge in the disciplines" (p. 97). This knowledge construction allowed the

students to use language in distinct ways “to present information, engage in interpretation, and create specialized texts” (Fang & Schleppegrell, 2010, p. 591).

As the students engaged in VOER, the students used to read for meaning, including knowledge, concepts, skills, and processes that the students learned. The majority of the students argued that they did VOER for their specific purposes: building and developing vocational knowledge and developing their vocational English. They also admitted that they never thought of these goals before. By doing VOER, the students realized that reading to mean and reading to learn enhanced their goal-driven motivation for reading more texts, which were relevant to their vocational areas. They admitted that reading involved three meta-functional meanings, which recognize the actual use of language. They saw that the learning of English became functional as a semiotic tool for building and developing their vocational knowledge. Different groups of the students showed different disciplinary knowledge representation and reproduction. Though the students encountered difficulty and frustration at the outset of VOER, they felt that this enterprise enhanced students’ motivation, self-confidence, autonomy, and engagement. They saw that English learning integrated with their content area built their learning ownership and autonomy. More crucially, the students felt that doing ER was an achievement that they never made before. They compiled all the learning logs into a portfolio over a period of six months. They were surprised that they could make it. These portfolios were collected works since they participated in this project.

Figure 6.14 *Students’ Learning Portfolios*



The completion of portfolios was a sense of accomplishment. They felt that they created large amounts of texts. RIS, for example, admitted that “I never thought that I could finish reading the textbook. This portfolio was an artifact, which showed my achievement.” YUL

added that “doing extensive reading as a routine produced a product that made my day. I was proud of what I achieved. Other students also expressed the same feelings. Generally speaking, the students argued that VOER helped them widen their vocational horizons, develop their reading ability, and enrich their language repertoire.

6.2.4 Speaking Vocationally through Collaborative Oral Presentations

In addition to presenting what students read in literature circles, spanning six months, the students engaged in a series of collaborative oral presentations. Each of the groups (3-6 members) had the opportunity to carry out oral presentations twice a month. Thus, there were 12 oral presentations that each of the groups delivered. Group oral presentations were viewed as a platform for the students to represent and communicate meaning of what they read in the chosen textbook or texts found online and what they experienced over vocational practicums (Kress, 2003). Linguistically speaking, the group oral presentation also allowed the students to speak English vocationally. In this oral presentation, the students were challenged to understand and communicate vocational content or knowledge in English. Oral English presentations were one of the speaking skills that the students had to develop because in the vocational curriculum, students would take an English medium oral presentation test when they took a vocational subject examination in the third year (Term 2). Interpersonally, oral presentations created an environment, which allowed the students, through interaction, could associate with each other in the target language, negotiate meanings, learn from each other, and share experiences while practicing using their speaking skills. In this study, the students did oral presentations beyond repeating after the teacher, memorizing a dialog, or responding to drills. Group oral presentations as social interaction engaged the students in collaborative learning and interactive discourse, which foreground participatory pedagogy.

Though group oral presentations seemed to be a simple task, they were engaged in a series of activities, including:

(1) Negotiating and discussing presentational topics: These topics enabled the students to focus on their oral presentations. They presented varied major topics such as *finding and choosing a hotel*, making *room reservations*, *hotel services*, and *hotel profiles* (for hotel hospitality and management students); *the balance sheet*, *the income statement*, *cash flow statements*, and *ledgers* (for accounting

students); and *application software*, *systems software*, *programming language tools*, and *website design* (for computer engineering students). Thus, the students were vocationally familiar with the topics presented. Selecting topics for in-class oral presentations not only aroused students' vocational interest, but also prepare them better for real-life interactions in vocational domains: they talked about the topics they experienced.

(2) Outlining key ideas to be presented: the students in groups discussed what ideas to be presented and how they managed to take turns delivering the ideas. In every presentation slide, they outlined between 20 and 80 words depending on the types of information presented. Each of the group had between 3-5 slides, which contained phrases and clauses. In some case, the students presented webpage texts when presenting company profiles and product specifications.

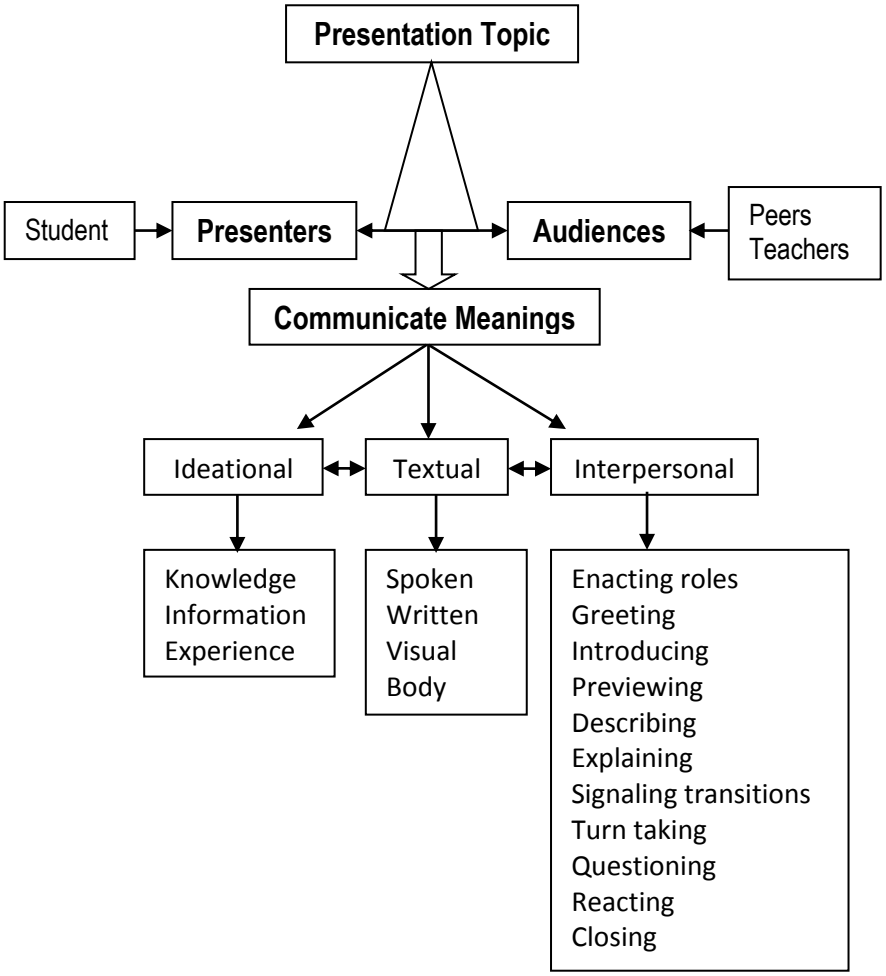
(3) Designing their presentation templates and slide transitions: The students were familiar with PowerPoint. PowerPoint is presentation software, viewed as a semiotic tool for enabling the students to structure and remember the content of the presentation more easily (Wecker, 2012). For this reason, the students were given full autonomy to design their presentation templates and slide transitions based on their presentation needs.

(4) Making decisions on the inclusion of visual elements: From a design perspective, the students were allowed to include visual elements, which were semiotically meaningful (e.g., reinforcing or elaborating the meanings of the verbal texts presented).

(5) Delivering group oral presentations: Each of the students in one group took turns presenting the materials. They were allowed to organize who first talked and manage how they delivered an oral presentation collaboratively. In addition, the students could bring notes with them while delivering the oral presentation.

In other words, group oral presentations provided the students more opportunities to use English, organize presentational features and demands, and deliver vocational information. Overall, the nature of oral presentation can be depicted below.

Figure 6.15 *The Nature of Collaborative Oral Presentations*



(Adapted from Morell, 2015)

Drawing on ethnographic observation data, I would like to analyze how students' group oral presentations could be viewed as enacting and negotiating ideational meaning, interpersonal meaning, and textual meaning. From an ideational perspective, as pointed out earlier, oral presentations are ways to represent and communicate vocational knowledge, information, and experience. All the students delivered what they read and discussed within groups in front of the class. They presented content or vocational information to two groups of audience: teachers and peers. In this oral presentation, the students were challenged to define, classify, and elaborate vocational knowledge through verbal-visual presentation. As shown in Figure 6.14, most of the students confidently did their oral presentations after four months at the outset of oral presentation. They used a laptop connected with a LCD projector. In every turn, each of the student spent 4-8 minutes presenting vocational information.

The students admitted (Reflective Diaries, 20 March 2013) that they felt that explaining their vocational knowledge was a big challenge because they not only delivered their content or vocational information but also used spoken language appropriately to communicate vocational information. In particular for accounting students, they needed to verbalize numerical accounts in an accounting term and elaborate on certain technical vocabulary (e.g., *assets*, *capital*, *dividends*, *equity*, *general ledgers*, *liabilities*, and *obligations*). Working with accounting texts, the students also experienced mathematical texts, which included natural language and symbolic language, visual representation of numbers, graphs, diagrams, and other visual elements (O'Halloran, 2005). To make meaning of texts consisting of technical and abstract words and mathematical or numeric words, they were also challenged to demonstrate mathematics/numeracy knowledge. The nature of this language is frequently found in financial accounting texts. The same case was experienced by computer engineering students who verbalized visuals. They presented information along with visual cues to make sense of particular technical words such as *address bar*, *browser*, *content area*, *interface*, and *dialog box*. Most of the students reported that they gave the presentations as ways to present information precisely. In most computer engineering texts, the students needed to recognize the meanings made in both language and visual elements, and in the interplay of these modalities. Computer engineering discourse is highly technical and multi-semiotic, drawing on symbolic language and visual display.

The hotel management and hospitality students talked about a profile of an international hotel website because the students reported that a large number of hotels use websites as a platform for marketing and for communicating with prospective guests. They used texts, which pertained to different forms and sheets. When they talked about hotel marketing, they engaged with a variety of visual texts to describe hotel websites. Different groups of students presented information found on hotel webpages. Most of them focused on hotel front webpages and bookings because this information was relevant to what they learned.

In addition to talking to vocational information, in last four class periods (February 2013), the students from three majors presented company profiles, which were relevant to their specializations. For example, accounting students delivered an oral presentation on a profile of an accounting company; computer engineering students presented a profile of software, hardware or IT companies. The hotel management and hospitality presented international

hotel profiles. Through presentations of company profiles, the students explored different philosophical values (e.g., *commitment*, *hard work*, *excellence of service*, *dedication*) from they could learn so that they could envision work ethics that companies hold. Following the presentation of company profiles, they were asked to write an application letter (reported in the next section).

From interpersonal and textual perspectives, the students reported that they approached the presentation as a flexible means of interacting with their peers and the teachers. They also argued that the presentation aimed to tell a story and make an argument. This evidence shows that group oral presentations are not purely as a monolog, but as an interactive enterprise because the students presented the information to the teachers and their peers. Throughout oral presentations, the students enacted different interactional moves, such as greeting, introducing group members, introducing a presentation topic, signaling turn taking, using transitional markers, and attracting audience attention. These interactional moves were realized by the use of different linguistic resources as presented in Table 6.10.

Table 6.10 *Linguistic Realizations Indicating Interactional Meanings*

Interpersonal Meanings	Examples
Greeting	As-salamualaykum*, Friends, Good Morning, Hello, Ladies and gentlemen*
Introducing group members	*Before we present, I would like to introduce…, We are Group…, the first, second…speaker/presenter is…, I serve as a moderator, I will introduce…*
Introducing a presentation topic	*We are going to explain, We would like to introduce…, We want to share our…, we present…, we talk about, we will present…, we want to present…, our presentation is about…, We will show…*
Signaling turn taking	*Okay, the next section will be explained by; Right, X will describe/explain…; For the first presentation, X will explain…*
Indicating transitional markers	*First, next, the first presentation, the second section, the last…,*
Attracting audience attention	*Let's see… Look at…, the first paragraph…Please see…Please pay attention.*
Closing	*Thank you for listening, Waalaikumussalam warahmatullahi* wabarakatuh

The students were fully aware of interpersonal meanings because they talked to the audiences. They also worked collaboratively, which was evident that they always used, *we* and *us,* representing their groups. The use of *we* were frequently found in the move of introducing a presentation topic. The students signaled the audiences what they were going to talk. They also articulated roles as moderators and presenters. To maintain the flow of presentation, the students indicated turn taking in order to manage who would talk. This turn taking also demonstrates the continuation of presentational acts. They also made use of transitional markers. When the students explained specific information, they invited the audiences to pay close attention to such information. Paralinguistically speaking, the students made direct eye contact with the audiences though they made use of small notes. They reported that oral presentations had to be interactive because they communicated information to others.

The evidence shows that oral presentations conveyed myriad different interpersonal moves. The students presented multimodal (written, spoken, and visual) texts mediated by the use of language and technological tools, such as PowerPoint, a laptop, and a LCD projector. These semiotic resources mediated interpersonal acts. Particularly, in the question-and-answer session, the teachers and the peers could ask questions or elaborate information presented, this interactional act involved exchanging content information.

Overall, most of the students introduced a central topic clearly. Verbally, most of the students used concise words and expressions. They consistently talked based on the slides prepared. What they said and what was written on the slides were the same. All the participants just added little information to elaborate the information written on the slides. For accounting and computer engineering students, in some case, they presented visuals instead of words to make the meanings of the words effectively visible. For some less proficient students, they relied upon the use of visuals in order to compensate for their verbal deficiencies (Morell, 2015). Additionally, most of the students made use of notes, and some students did the presentation aloud without looking at the screen and notes. They previewed all the main ideas to be presented. They used clear transitions or links between points. Despite this, almost all the students did not make clear conclusion or strong ending. This was evidenced in the first 3 months. In terms of slides, all the students included simple texts and visuals. Some of the students included too much detail. All the students did not use distracting colors, fonts, and animations. Most of the students directed eyes on

audience, not on screen and used gestures as well as manage their speech appropriately. These semiotic resources facilitated students' oral presentations in order to stay in close contact with the audiences. Many of the affordances of the spoken mode were reinforced by those of the written mode by, for example, presenting the key words and utterances by using highlighting or outlining techniques (e.g., boldfacing, or showing bulleted points). These written paralinguistic features helped the students organize their presentations. For hotel management and hospitality students, when the presented information on hotel websites, they explained non-verbal and hyperlink texts because hotel websites contain such semiotic texts in order to provide the reader with information about hotels and their services.

Figure 6.16 *Hotel Webpage Text*

The students majoring in hotel management and hospitality presented different visual features of hotel websites because they argued that many hotels used websites as promotional platform and as channel to communicate directly with their prospective customers or guests. For this reason, hotel webpages are considered as multimodal texts.

Drawing on reflective diary and individual interview data, the students admitted that they were apprehensive about oral presentations for a number of reasons. Several studies have demonstrated that speaking in class, including oral presentations is the most anxiety provoking skill (see Baran-Łucarz, 2014; He, 2013). This anxiety in speaking performance has been investigated from a cognitive psychological perspective. For this study, anxiety is viewed as a realization of affect, which commonly occurred because the students wanted to

avoid negative face when interacting with others. Anxiety might take place because of unequal power relationship between the students and the teachers. Thus, anxiety is an interpersonal act. Before and during group oral presentations, the students were also concerned about English oral presentation anxiety because linguistically, they were afraid being corrected or making mistakes in grammar and pronunciation. They thought that making mistakes embarrassed them. Based on students' prior experience, they felt worried about negative evaluation and uncomfortable when speaking with more capable peers. The students were anxious about explaining technical vocabulary, which required precision in meaning. In addition, speaking in front of the class challenged the students to communicate information to audiences.

Over half of the students also realized even though they delivered oral presentation in Bahasa Indonesia, they felt anxious because they were lack of information or knowledge. To anticipate this anxiety, the students were allowed to use Bahasa Indonesia when expressing difficulty words in English and were given sufficient time for preparation before presenting in class. Particularly for less proficient students, the use of Bahasa Indonesia during group oral presentations reduced speaking-in-class anxiety. Additionally, this could build up students' confidence and encourage them to speak English as they were engaged in sustained oral presentations in English. The students were also provided sufficient wait-time (the length of time that students could respond to teacher and peer questions). They were also uneasy about delivering an oral presentation in front of the class without sufficient preparation and being corrected when speaking at all times. Framed in language appraisal, the students needed security and trust from both their peers and the teachers. Both security and trust could build an anxiety reduced atmosphere. Other factors, such as expertise and familiarity with the vocational topics, boosted the students' linguistic self-confidence because they could anticipate linguistic resources needed for understanding and communicating vocational content or information. Because topic familiarity mediated what students actually talked about in their routine vocational lives, the students felt secure in delivering oral presentations.

In spite of this oral presentation anxiety, the students found group oral presentation useful in terms of practicing speaking English in both planned and spontaneous ways. Vocationally, they were enthusiastic about such an activity because they had the opportunity to communicate vocational knowledge, information, and experience with other students and

the teachers. They also engaged in sharing vocational content with each other. After delivering oral presentations seven times, the students felt confident speaking English. They recognized that oral presentations were important in developing language and content. Though in several oral presentations, the students had difficulty, they felt working together mitigated anxiety, and they were encouraged to contribute to the group. In other words, the students were positive about collaborative oral presentation.

6.3 Authentic Digital Text Navigation

In the lesson units, the students were asked to navigate authentic digital texts. In this text navigation, the students needed to find vocational texts, which had to be relevant to the previous reading text discussed. These digital texts were materials for students' literature circles activities as discussed earlier. All the students were familiar with the World Wide Web (The Web); they got used to working with computers and being online because the Web is fabric of life with which the students engage on a daily basis (Mickan, 2013a). The students appeared to have no problem with technical issues (e.g., the use of computers). Widodo (2014a) argues that "in today's digital age, students are already digital natives in that they lived with a myriad of digital texts" (p. 151). The advent of mobile and digital technologies has made a digital text navigation task possible.

The Web is an intersemiotic (verbal and visual entities) resource for language learning, and it was also a site of engagement for the students. In this study, the students are viewed as global netizens or cybercitizens because they participate in a digital world, and they play a role as users of the Internet regularly. They build online communities of practice. At the outset, the teachers demonstrated how to navigate the Web, use it to find information, and assess whether the information was relevant to students' learning needs. From a social semiotic perspective, this teacher modeling aimed to socialize the students into the use of the Web for language learning. This modeling suggests that this text navigation did not simply ask the students to browse or surf the texts, but they hyperlinked, decoded, selected, and made sense of the chosen texts (Walsh, 2010). The students felt that teacher modeling assisted them to ignite their interest and build their motivation to surf, hyperlink, view, and read authentic texts. This evidence suggests that the students not only acted as text navigators, but also played roles as text assessors and meaning makers of texts. Some of the students used a laptop that was connected to the Internet through a USB modem, and

few of them used an Internet connected mobile phone and tablet. The rest of the students used a Wi-Fi connection provided by the school. The students admitted that the Web was a window of language learning, which showcases authentic materials, such as texts and tasks in real-life situations (Son, 2007). These texts and tasks provided the students "unlimited opportunities for accessing authentic language" (Murray, & McPherson, 2004, p. 2). Mansfield (2002) argues that "[l]etting English language learners onto the Internet is like dropping them in an ocean of words, concepts, genres, tenses, even other languages" (p. 3). This argument indicates that the Internet as semiotic mediation offers a variety of texts along with different textual and semiotic features. In other words, the Web as a semiotic tool engaged the students in navigating a variety of texts

Despite these advantages, the teachers advised the students not to find digital texts containing language beyond their current linguistic competence and not to find sites that use socioculturally inappropriate content and language (e.g., inappropriate advertising sites, pornographic sites). Further, after the intensive reading activities were finished, the teachers started providing the students with a sample authentic text, relevant to themes in the lesson units (e.g., *international hotel websites* for hotel management and hospitality students; *the income statement* for accounting students, and *computer software* for computer engineering students; for a more complete list of themes, refer to Chapter 5: Table 5.3). This text assisted the students to recognize the nature of content information, language, and genres. The teachers explained why the text warranted closer reading in order to help the students recognized the importance and relevancy of texts. This modeling was a starting point for navigating online texts, which were relevant to assigned themes. This digital text navigation activity reflected student-centered learning because it empowered the students to take the ownership of their learning experience with authentic texts. Thus, giving the students a freedom to navigate and select their own vocational English texts recognized the agency of the students. This also personalized students' need to read based on the negotiated or agreed themes.

When asked about what kinds of texts the students were surfing, they reported that they found and selected the texts based on relevant topics of discussion, vocational content, and language. This evidence shows that topics, content, and language were of great concern among students because the texts they chose were not merely for learning English, but also for developing their vocational knowledge. The students felt that connecting the learning of

English to vocational interests built their motivation to learn English more. When surfing texts outside the classroom, the students consulted vocational texts with their vocational subject teachers. They claimed that the vocational teachers were experts, who could suggest whether the texts were relevant to vocational areas. This stresses the role of the vocational subject teachers plays in text selection.

The students were positive about the use of the Web because they admitted that the Internet offered a myriad of texts. In particular, one of the students (REN, Hotel Management and Hospitality, 10 October 2012) reported that "In this digital era, we live with a great deal of information. This information provides us with unlimited public knowledge, and I realize that this information is presented in a variety of texts." Some of the students recounted that they felt that navigating digital texts changed the way they read because they engaged in active reading processes. Before they actually read texts, they had to browse, search, and select the materials. They argued that this text navigation allowed them to harness their flexibility and authority to quality and content of information. Interestingly, the students said that the web was viewed as a digital library, publicly accessible. They did not need to visit the library because a digital library offered them a myriad of authentic resources for language learning. They were also involved in a decision making process regarding the ways to navigate texts digitally and the sources of information they needed to use. Another positive side is that the students were motivated to read more texts through surfing digital texts. More importantly, the students pointed out that the Web provided them with ease of access to a range of texts. This is clearly evidenced in the following reflective diary data.

Students' Reflective Diary Entries (20 December 2012: *Digital Text Navigation*)

Student 1

Browsing texts online was **easy** and provided **quick access** to the text I looked for. For instance, when I was assigned to find out an international hotel webpage in a certain country, I just typed key words, such as *international hotels in Malaysia*. Then, Google told me **a range of hotels** in Malaysia, but usually this search engine told us two top hotels that appeared in the first or second line. I found Swiss-Garden International Hotel and Kuala Lumpur International Hotel. Just by clicking on key words, I could **easily find** the assigned text. Google was **useful text browser and detector**. Browsing texts relevant to my vocational area was always fun because I could **independently select** with which text I would work (END, Hotel Management and Hospitality).

Student 2

I feel that surfing vocational texts through the Internet gives me **a lot of choices**. The web is a digital engine, which gives **unlimited access** to texts. The only thing that I need to do is deciding which text I have to read. I realized that I had to know a particular theme/topic to determine a type of text for which I wanted to search. I do enjoy surfing different texts, which **relate to my area of vocation**, hotel management and hospitality. I find using the Web helpful in terms of **variety and efficiency** (REN, Hotel Management and Hospitality).

Student 3

In my opinion, navigating digital texts related to my major, accounting, was a useful activity. This gave me the **autonomy** to choose what text I was going to read or learn. This navigation also **challenged** me **to select** an appropriate text. I **never had this opportunity** before because my teachers also gave me texts in the textbooks. We should not wait for teachers to give texts. I also felt that reading involves surfing and viewing (YUL, Accounting).

Student 4

Finding accounting related texts online was **easy** and **quick** because I could use Google as a search engine. I found this engine useful because I got many texts, such as *a balance sheet* and *a statement of a cash flow*. This search engine offers **many forms of these texts** available online. I could learn how these texts were presented in **different templates**. I was fully aware of preparing balance sheets differently. For me, the advent of the Web **revolutionized** the way I found out texts. Searching for texts now was **efficient**. I did not need to go to the library. I just went online (RIA, Computer Engineering).

Student 5

This digital text navigation has been my hobby. Because I majored in computer engineering, I always searched for particular computer program manuals online. The Internet provided me **useful manuals** I needed. Although surfing texts was not new experience for me, navigating digital texts for learning English was **something new** (NOR, Computer Engineering).

The reflective diary entries show that all the students felt that the use of the Web was useful; they navigated texts based on their interests and areas of vocation that they were learning. For example, END argued that the role of Google as browser and detector enabled her to find relevant texts assigned in the lesson units. This tool provided easy and quick access to a myriad of texts. REN added that The Web provides him a wide range of texts that he could choose. He commented that surfing texts saved time. YUL admitted that digital text navigation built learning autonomy. This differed from what she experienced previously because she always worked with the texts provided by the textbooks. Though useful, self-initiated digital navigation was a challenging task because she had to evaluate appropriate

texts. RIA reported the use of the Web as the discourses of ease and efficiency because she could easily find different accounting texts (e.g., *balance sheets* and *statements of cash flows*) with different templates. JUD recounted that for him, navigating authentic texts for learning English was a new experience. Vocationally speaking, this participant acknowledged that this navigation task was a tradition in his field. The student participants voiced that they really enacted their social role identities as netizens, text navigators, decision makers, and meaning makers. They moved beyond the comfort zone that they were used to being fed spoon by the teachers and the textbooks.

From a social semiotic perspective, the web offers a multitude of multimodal authentic texts. These digital texts allow for interactivity—an active relation or engagement between users and texts, and they enable the students to carry out multi-tasks (Adami, 2013). The students engage in hypertexuality (form: verbals, images, icons, sound, colors, templates, navigational bars; actions: typing, clicking/tapping, tabbing, viewing; effects: accessing, providing, and transferring texts), affording access to a network of other texts, which allow them to surf the ocean of texts (Lemke, 2002). In other words, the web is viewed as a semiotic mediation, which provides an extensive range of authentic materials as well as more learner-centered learning, which complements classroom based activities. Thus, the reflective diary data show active students' engagement in digital text navigation activities and their positive attitudes toward such activities. These findings also suggest the potential of online resources for both language learners and teachers. Authentic digital text navigation provides the students with multi-semiotic experiences, which mediate knowledge building and language development.

6.4 Learning to Write and Writing to Mean Vocationally

6.4.1 Summary Writing in Vocationally Oriented Extensive Reading (VOER)

Much research on summary writing has been undertaken in classroom contexts where the participants were asked to write a summary based on a short text of between 400 and 1,000 words, and they were told to do so because of particular intervention by the researcher(s) (see McDonough, Crawford, & De Vleeschauwer, 2014). A very few studies address how students were engaged in a summary writing task as a result of sustained extensive reading (ER). These studies still conceptualize summary writing as a technical process of changing

textual features of the original text and using a rigid rubric, which includes content, organization, vocabulary, and language use. The present study reports gaps in this area.

Summary writing was part of VOER done by the students over 6 months. Source texts were vocational textbooks of roughly between 60,000 and 150,000 words chosen by the students. They summarized a small portion of the whole abridged text on a daily basis; the students wrote summaries of between 100 and 200 words. Most of the students drafted and finalized their summaries in a Microsoft Word Document, and some handwrote their summarized texts. The teachers encouraged the students to feel free to take notes and highlight the words or clauses they read. The students were also reminded not to include their personal opinions (Keck, 2006). A summary task aimed primarily to record what they read on a daily basis. The other goals of this task were to encourage the students to write to learn (writing as social practice mediated by language) and learn how to mean (meaning making) through writing. The writing of summary also aimed to build a tradition of learning to write (writing skills) because all the students engaged in this task for the first time. Based on students' experience with the learning of English, the students encountered mechanically or grammatically oriented writing exercises, which emphasized correct usage of grammar. In this regard, writing exercises focused on decontextualized or discrete sentence construction. Grammar was not viewed as "a set of meaning-making resources in a rich variety of text types and genres, which afford students "new opportunities for addressing the intricate relationship between writing-to-learn and learning-to-write in an instructional environment" (Yasuda, 2015, p. 106).

In line with this argument, a summary writing activity was the point of departure for familiarizing the students with functional use of language as a semiotic tool for condensing or re-meaning a small portion of source text from the vocational textbook that the students chose. In this way, summary writing is a useful task for the students in order to avoid or rely upon verbatim copying and in turn avoid plagiarism (Hood, 2008). This text reproduction is seen as a rhetorical process of meaning making rather than a mechanical process of changing lexico-grammatical skeletons (Yasuda, 2015). Although summary writing seemed to be short and simple, the students were challenged to represent and maintain the original voice of the author(s). In this study, the role of students was meaning re-makers. The students interpreted the intentions of the author(s) and transformed them into extracted information. Grounded in SFL genre theory, Yasuda (2015) concludes that "writing-to-learn

and learning-to-write" (p. 106) are viewed as "the ability to make appropriate meaning-making choices" (p. 106) to re-mean original or source text in "new ways that create the appropriate level of abstraction, generalization, and technicality required for the new rhetorical context" (p. 107).

When asked about their experience of summary writing in other subjects, three groups of the students reported that they did summary writing tasks in junior high school and senior high school. They wrote this summary in Bahasa Indonesia to understand the gist of the lesson taught. Some students said that their vocational subject teachers asked them to carry out an oral summary to check the degree of comprehension. In addition, this summary helped them review what they learned. This also enabled them to easily recall the lesson because they re-wrote the content of the lesson in their own words. For instance, all the accounting students said that their accounting teachers always asked them to write summaries in English, but hotel management and hospitality and computer engineering majors reported that they never did this task in English. Further, the accounting majors added that their accounting teachers just asked them to summarize accounting texts without commenting on what a good summary looked like. They also admitted that they did not know how to paraphrase condensed details. They just focused on main points without referencing the source text. This empirical evidence shows that the students had prior experience with the writing of summary, and they were conceptually ready for a summary writing task, but they were not ready linguistically for this task in English. This was evident when the students were first asked to summarize a text of 400 words. They attempted near copy and minimal paraphrases on a word level. Borrowing Keck's term (2006, 2014), attempted paraphrases are textually modified words (at least, word-level change) or clauses selected from a specific instantiation of a source text. The taxonomy of this attempted paraphrase includes direct copy, near copy, minimal attempt, and substantial attempt. This word level change can be synonyms, substitutions, replacements of one function word with another, and word groups (from a noun, *reserve*, to verb, *reservation*). Changes in punctuation, grammatical number, and subject-verb agreement alone as well as re-ordering of clauses or phrases taken from the original were not considered as attempted paraphrases. Here are sample students attempted paraphrases from three groups: (1) accounting, (2) hotel management and hospitality, and (3) computer engineering.

Table 6.11 *Attempted Paraphrases in Students' First Summaries*

Majors	Source Texts (Bold in Original)	Attempted Paraphrases
Accounting	The **front office** is the nerve center of a hotel property. Communication and accounting are two of the most important functions of a front desk operation. Effective communications—with guests, employees, and other departments of the hotel—are paramount in projecting a hospitable image…(Bardi, 2003, p.1)	The **front desk** is **the important part** of a hotel property. Communication and accounting are two of the most **crucial** functions of a **front office** operation. Effective communications—with **customers**, **staff**, and other **units** of the hotel—are **important** in projecting a hospitable image…(Bardi, 2003, p. 1)
Hotel Hospitality and Management	Like all businesses, Maxidrive has an **accounting** system that collects and processes financial information about an organization and reports that information to decision makers. Maxidrive's managers (often called **internal decision makers**) and parties outside the firm such as Exeter Investors and American Bank (often called **external decision makers**) use the reports produced by this system…(Libby, Libby, & Short, 2009, p. 4)	Like *other commercial organizations*, Maxidrive has an **accounting** system that *gathers* and processes financial *details* about a *business* and reports that information to *top managers*. Maxidrive's managers *or* **internal decision makers** and parties outside the *company like* Exeter Investors and American Bank *or* **external decision makers** use the reports produced by this system. (Libby, Libby, & Short, 2009, p. 4)
Computer Engineering	*Software engineering* is an engineering discipline that studies the nature of software, approaches and methodologies of large-scale software development, and the theories and laws behind software behaviors and software engineering practices. The nature of software engineering and its theories and methodologies are determined by the nature of the objects under study, *software*, and the needs for adequate and denotational mathematical, theoretical, and methodological	*Software engineering* is an engineering **science which** studies the nature of software, approaches and methodologies of large-scale software development, and the theories and laws behind software behaviors and software engineering practices. The nature of software engineering and its theories and methodologies are determined by the nature of the objects under study, *software*, and the needs

Majors	Source Texts (Bold in Original)	Attempted Paraphrases
	means for this discipline…(Wang, 2008, p. 7)	for adequate and denotational mathematical, theoretical, and methodological means for this discipline…(Wang, 2008, p. 7

Based on students' summaries data, most of the students copied clauses directly from the source text without paraphrasing the clauses. This exact copy was reproduced in the summary without the use of quotation marks. The students just attempted to change words by using multiple synonyms (near copy). This lexical change was also minimal. They did not make any grammatical modifications. The students reported that they relied upon lexical changes that they knew. The reason for not using their own words is that the students reported that they lacked lexico-grammatical resources. Interpersonally, though a full in-text citation was given, the students seemed not to realize that they could use reporting verbs or verbal verb processes, such as *argue*, *contend*, *maintain*, *state*, and *suggest*. The students were not aware of communicative purposes of summaries as a representational or reproduction genre. They were not confident in paraphrase attempt. For computer engineering students, they were the weakest group of two other majors because they admitted that they found technical terms in their vocational area too difficult and abstract. In addition, their vocational teachers did not engage them in vocationally oriented summary tasks.

Since the start of doing VOER, from an ideational perspective, the students could identify a thesis statement along with main points. They were also able to detect range and depth of content because they might be familiar with the topics of the textbooks. In addition, the organization of the texts was also clear. But, in terms of textual dimensions, most of the students copied main points of the source text. The clauses produced by the students were still duplicated from the original text. The students were not fully aware of plagiarism issues because they were unfamiliar with genre conventions that summary writing not only condensed the original text, but also made lexico-grammatical modifications without changing original intentions or voice of the author(s). From an interpersonal perspective, the students did not acknowledge the author(s) of the source texts. They did not realize who they wrote to whom. They did not re-instantiate appraisal resources because they admitted that they were lack of lexico-grammatical repertoire although they were taught correct usage

of grammar, but this instruction did not help them make a transition from this drilling instruction to the actual use of grammatical resources in the actual writing task, that is, summary writing.

Based on two data sets of students' experience and written summaries, the students needed to receive explicit instruction of summary writing before they started doing this task as a result of doing sustained VOER. The students were taught to write a summary using the following guidelines: (1) identify gist of the text, (2) include major ideas, (3) exclude minor ideas, (4) synthesize similar ideas into categories, and (5) write in his/her own words (Casazza, 1993). The students were also taught the use of SFL genre analysis in their summary writing. In the modeling stage, the teachers explicitly guided the students to write a summary. This modeling included the components of SFL genre analysis.

Table 6.12 *SFL Genre Informed Summary Components*

Ideational (What is summarized)	Interpersonal (Who writes to whom)	Textual (How the summary is instantiated)
• Extracting content meaning • Identifying main ideas • Range and depth of content	• Reporting (genre awareness) • Acknowledging the original author (source referencing) • Re-instantiating attitude, engagement, and graduation	• Rewording the original author's ideas (meanings). • Using lexico-grammatical choices (meaning making potential) to generalize the gist and condense information • Using grammatical metaphor • Organize the summary

(Adapted from Hood, 2008; Yasuda, 2015)

In the second month, the students were asked to summarize small portions of texts from the textbook they read and organize their summaries based on three meta-functional meanings. The students demonstrated different levels of meta-functional meanings. After the second month of doing VER, the students shared and commented on their summaries with each other. They showed considerable change in their summaries. This change could be attributed to the focus of SFL genre based instruction and SFL genre informed feedback conference. The students spent a large portion of class time analyzing and discussing meta-functional meanings. After a period of six months, the majority of the students summarized

the vocational texts not only by focusing on the key components of summaries, but also by emphasizing meta-functional meanings. Out of these meta-functional meanings, the students were able to condense key content or ideational meanings. The majority of the students demonstrated enhanced awareness of interpersonal meanings, but a few students used a range of lexico-grammatical resources. This evidence suggests that only more capable students could write summaries, which addressed three meta-functional meanings learned. Most of the less capable students tended to focus on the selection and deletion of the texts at the surface level and still had difficulty in making moderate and substantial paraphrases. They still had difficulty combining or synthesizing all the ideas in the texts they read. Despite this, the majority of the students gradually decreased their reliance on verbatim copying or source text language.

Here are students' responses to the implementation of vocationally-oriented summary writing tasks coming out of VOER.

> Honestly, I viewed summary writing as **a way to identify** main points and re-write the points in my own words. In fact, this textual change was **a not simple task** because I had **to maintain** the voice and tone of the original text. I had to be able to represent authors' arguments. What I never thought was that word choice has an **impact on meaning**. Now I realized that summary is the re-writing of the original text in shorter form. (RIS, Accounting)
>
> After doing summary writing, I was **fully aware** that this type of writing includes two main processes: extracting text and paraphrasing it without changing the original meaning of the text. I also realized that word choice and grammatical patterns **shape meaning**. (YUL, Accounting)
>
> For six months, I wrote summaries in English. This activity helped me understand the fact that **summary writing** was condensing and re-writing what I read. When I needed to review what I read, I just looked at my summaries. For me, this summary writing assisted me **to enrich** my lexico-grammatical repertoire and of course **deepen** my vocational knowledge. (IMA, Hotel Management and Hospitality)
>
> SFL genre analysis helped me pay attention to **functional meanings**. I understood that summary writing **involved** the selection of words to be paraphrased and of words to be discarded. In summary writing, I had to know words, which represented **key concepts** in computer engineering. (JUD, Computer Engineering)
>
> Although my summaries contained minimal and moderate paraphrases, I had learned how to write a summary. This experience was an **asset** for me in order to improve my summary writing skills. When continuing my study into university, I would be prepared for this assignment. I realized that good summary writing particularly in English **needs more practice and time**. (REN, Hotel Management and Hospitality)

These data demonstrate that the student participants realized that summary writing was a process of re-meaning original texts, which involved voice, tone, impact, and meaning. They also acknowledged that summary writing helped them develop their language ability and vocational knowledge. This suggests that the participants realized that summary writing is a social practice, which interweaves language and content knowledge. One of the participants emphasized that summary writing was a way to help recall what she read. Commonly, the students learned how to structure a summary, include (1) formulating communicative goals or social purposes, (2) identifying a thesis statement and major clauses (themes and rhemes), (3) selecting supporting details, (4) condensing the details, (5) paraphrasing the details in a moderate or substantial way; and (5) communicating three meta-functional meanings: ideational, interpersonal, and textual. In addition, the students engaged in attempted paraphrases as textual behaviors, such as exact copy, near copy, minimal paraphrase, moderate paraphrase, and substantial paraphrase. The students recognized how they made a decision on identifying and selecting what to include (inclusion) and what to omit (deletion). Both identification and selection are meaning making processes, which are important in summary writing.

6.4.2 Collaborative Vocationally Based Paragraph Writing

This collaborative paragraph writing of between 150 and 200 words aimed to familiarize students with how to jointly write a short paragraph based on their content or vocational knowledge (to communicate ideational meanings). Topics of paragraph writing were assigned based on the themes in the lesson units. The students wrote collaboratively during writing time. This collaboration encouraged the students to learn to mean through social interaction (exchanging and sharing their thoughts). The verbalizing and sharing of ideas mediated "the process of making meaning and shaping knowledge and experience through language" (Swain, 2006, p. 89). This languaging enabled the students to use language as a semiotic or meaning making tool, which transformed cognitive activity into social activity (Vygotsky, 1978). Both meaning making and knowledge construction were a source of learning because each of the students had unique strengths and different weaknesses when pooling their different resources, they could support or scaffold each other.

Pedagogically speaking, the students from three majors worked on two text types or genres (see Table 6.13). The reasons for choosing these text types were that these text types were

stipulated in the English curriculum. Each of the groups produced four 150-200 word paragraphs spanning six months in which teacher-student conferences were held on a weekly basis because in one class period, only 5 groups' paragraphs were discussed in one teacher-student conference. Another reason was that one lesson comprised different activities, in which the students engaged. Thus, teacher-student conferences were integral to routine class periods. Most of the students from three majors composed their paragraphs onto laptops. All the computer engineering students wrote onto laptops because one of the requirements for them was having a laptop.

Table 6.13 *Text Types Composed by Students*

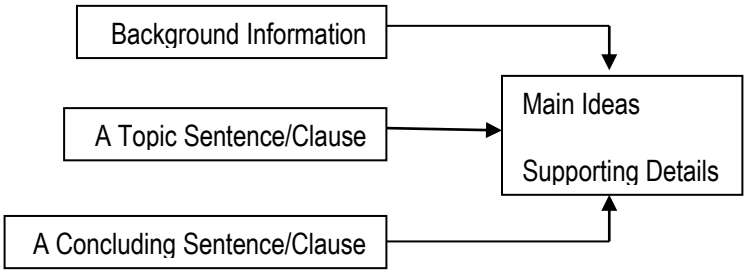
Majors	Text Types		Comments
Accounting	Information Report (Description)	Procedure/ Process	• Information report paragraphs focus on defining, classifying, and describing or elaborating accounting concepts, such as *the balance sheet*, *the income statement*, *a cash flow statement*, and *a ledger*. This type of a paragraph aims to develop students' vocational knowledge (knowledge building). • Procedure or process paragraphs emphasize how to prepare financial statements (e.g., *the balance sheet*) and a journal entry (e.g., *a ledger*). This type of a paragraph is intended to train the students to verbalize concepts into social practice (e.g., steps in preparing a ledge).
Hotel Management and Hospitality	Information Report (Description)	Procedure/ Process	• Topics of information report paragraphs focus on describing or elaborating common social practices in the hotel industry. These

Majors	Text Types		Comments
			social practices describe particular jobs that the students practiced during vocational practica, such as *making a reservation or booking a room*, *handling a guest*, *describing hotel services*, and *recommending a hotel or a room*. This type of a paragraph aims to develop students' vocational knowledge on social practice in the hotel industry (knowledge building). • Themes of procedure or process paragraphs emphasize describing steps in *room reservation*, *hotel room payment*, *hotel webpage design*, and *hotel reputation identification*. This type of a paragraph is intended to teach the students to articulate social practices in the hotel industry in an orderly manner.
Computer Engineering	Information Report (Description)	Procedure/ Process	• Themes of information report paragraphs focus on specifications of computer software, such as applications software, systems software, and programming tool software. This type of a paragraph aims to develop students' vocational knowledge on software (knowledge building). • Topics of procedure or

Majors	Text Types	Comments
		process paragraphs include *installing software*, *designing a website*, *maintaining a website*, and *maintaining software*.

Within the framework of text based language instruction informed by SFL, the explicit teaching of how to write information report and process paragraphs in a vocational domain could be a pivotal resource in providing students with access to vocational discourses. In each of the writing cycles, both the teachers and the students deconstructed and jointly constructed information report and process paragraph texts in order to gain a nuanced understanding of the demands of the target texts. Therefore, at the stage of text deconstruction, the teachers guided the students in proceeding with functional analysis of a model text. Before joint text construction, the teachers explained main moves of paragraph writing, such as a topic sentence, main and supporting ideas, and a concluding sentence. This move analysis provided the students with an understanding of what constituted information report and process paragraphs. The teacher also explained the rhetorical functions of each of the moves. They gave the students examples of topic sentences, which could be developed into a paragraph. This move analysis also enabled the students to frame their work based on the convention of paragraph writing as shown in Figure 6.17.

Figure 6.17 *The Skeleton of a Paragraph*



This textual frame assisted the students to organize their ideas. In addition to the move analysis, the teachers guided the students to analyze two model texts (information report and process) in term of idea development and language. For this purpose, the students received training in textual analysis of linguistic resources in paragraphs called functional meta-language analysis, which identify (1) ideational resources (content of a text), interpersonal resources (attitudes, social relations, and evaluations in a text), and textual

resources (the flow of information and discourse in a text) (see Huang & Mohan, 2009; Schleppegrell, 2004; Yasuda, 2011). Practically, at the ideational level, the teacher (the researcher) guided the students to identify the purpose of the text, the information presented, and the reason for the construction of the text. At the interpersonal level, the students were asked to whom the text was addressed. At the textual level, the teacher drew students' attention to how information was organized and what lexico-grammatical resources were used to communicate messages or information. In other words, move analysis and functional meta-language analysis were intended to assist the students to develop their knowledge of lexico-grammatical resources to communicate messages or meanings to intended audience in particular social contexts. Thus, teacher-led demonstration/modeling familiarized the students with two analytical tools, which complement one another. The following questions guided how to frame and develop ideas into a paragraph.

Table 6.14 *Guiding Questions by the Teachers*

Author's intentions:

- What is your purpose for writing?
- Who is your intended audience?
- What messages do you want to give them?
- How do your messages respond to ideas that people already have about this topic?
- How might your messages be situated in the community you are addressing?
- How will your messages position your readers?
- What stance will you take as a writer to best convey your messages in this community?

(Kesler, 2012, p. 28)

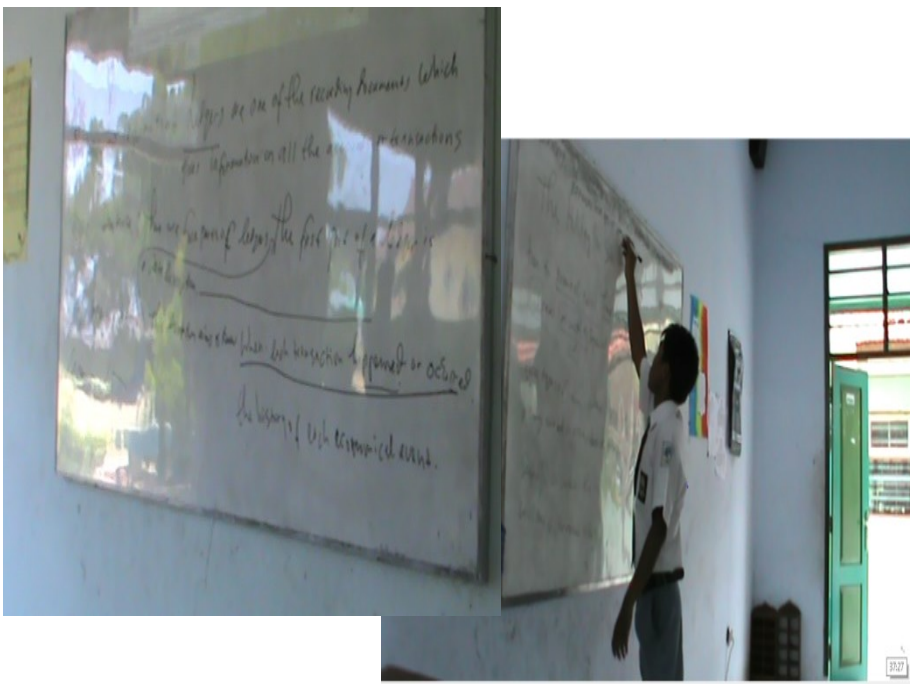
The students were positive about genre or move analysis and a functional meta-language analysis. ANA (Accounting Student) admitted that

> I had been asked to write in English, but my teachers **did not show** me how to do this writing. Now, I was **aware** that these two analyses helped me understand how I organized my ideas and followed a common writing practice. In particular, move analysis gave me an **organizational map** for putting my ideas into written work. I also learned the use of vocabulary and grammar in written work. When writing, I always think of my audience.

ADI (Computer Engineering Student) added that “I have learned a lot from move analysis and functional meta-language analysis. I found the power of writing through these analyses: being able to recognize purpose, audience, and context of my writing as well as being aware of the impact of linguistic choices on the reader. Thus, I became more critical to my own writing.” END (Hotel Management and Hospitality) recounted that “in our content area, our vocational teachers asked us to write a short hotel profile, which should be convincing and promotional. Through functional analysis of texts, I knew how to position myself in writing.” Some of the students reported that move and functional text analyses were a warm-up activity, which prepared them for the actual writing task. Overall, the students reported that both genre and language analyses enhanced their awareness of rhetorical moves, purpose and audience, as well as language features (linguistic choices) in information report and process paragraphs. In particular, the students perceived lexico-grammar as a resource for meaning making through writing.

After the students underwent move and functional meta-language analyses, they engaged in joint text construction with the teachers. The teachers guided the students to construct a text (Macnaught, Maton, Martin, & Matruglio, 2013). The students contributed ideas to the construction of the text. Using a questioning technique, the students composed a topic sentence, main ideas and supporting details, and a concluding sentence. They jotted down all the ideas on the whiteboard. Both the teachers and the students shared knowledge, in which the teachers provided students with language support.

Figure 6.18 *Joint Text Construction Guided by the Teachers*



As observed, the students were engaged in joint production of knowledge and verbalizing; the students discussed how to articulate their meanings in English. In most groups, some of the students began their writing process by brainstorming ideas orally for paragraph writing based on the assigned major topic. They spent 20-30 minutes doing brainstorming in groups. In this small discussion, the students could speak either Bahasa Indonesia or English so that the students did not have linguistic constraints. This was important for low proficient students. At this stage, the students were given the opportunity to generate more detailed ideas and plans because detailed and elaborate planning mediated the construction of more cohesive texts (Lally, 2000).

In addition to using a brainstorming technique, some of the students used listing or outlining: They listed key ideas. This listing or outlining served as a meditational means for generating, collecting, and organizing ideas at the early stage of writing. Most of the students viewed listing or outlining as a semiotic tool for recalling their prior knowledge or experience. When students' prior knowledge was limited, they navigated information online through Google Search. The students reported that googling information helped them get more information or ideas. They outlined all the information found online. They made use of online resources. For example, when hotel management and hospitality students wrote an information report paragraph of hotel services, they needed to access a hotel webpage because they had to write facts or the actual information. This empirical evidence shows that writing was integral to reading, which involved navigating and viewing. It also implies that one lesson activity or task entails other activities, which are seen as a semiotic continuum, meaning that one activity facilitates another task. Computer engineering students also used outlining, but all of the groups deployed digital outlining using MS Word, and they also googled information or ideas to be developed into a paragraph text. In addition, some of the groups, particularly accounting students, used a concept map, "a graphical map visualizing the relationship among concepts" (Liu, 2011, p. 2548) because they thought that each accounting had a semantic relationship with others. For instance, when they composed a process paragraph of *creating a general ledger*, they needed to think of concepts, which were semantically related, including *assets*, *liabilities*, *owners' equity*, *revenue*, and *expenses*. This was because general ledgers could have different templates. In their accounting class, the students were familiar with concept mapping. One of the accounting students (RIS) argued that concept mapping helped her group visualize the global structure of a paragraph text. The students of three groups: accounting, hotel

management and hospitality, and computer engineering shared the similar view that outlining or concept mapping enabled them to draw their attention to text parts, which needed to be developed and allowed them to discuss on which parts individual group members worked.

During composing time, as observed, most of the students did not put down their ideas in English directly, but they wrote down the ideas in Bahasa Indonesia (L2) first and then translated the ideas into English. In this case, L2 was used to pool and organize ideas. The process of transforming ideas into English was a re-semiotic process in that the students attempted to adjust the ideas written in Bahasa Indonesia to the convention of English medium writing. In this re-semiotization process, the students shaped their ideas using different lexico-grammatical resources. YUL recounted that "the use of Bahasa Indonesia enabled me to develop ideas because I was thinking in that language. For me, developing ideas in Bahasa Indonesia helped a lot in completing paragraph writing tasks." YUL's personal account was also reflected in other students' accounts of using Bahasa Indonesia in idea development. These data demonstrate that the use of Bahasa Indonesia plays a role in enabling students to clarify their understanding of the language as well as content issues (Yang, 2014).

Moreover, the students reported that they focused on ideas first even though these ideas were still rough. They also recognized that drafting ideas in L2 enabled them to develop ideas easily. They admitted that they had to discuss these ideas with other group members. In collaborative writing, they pooled ideas together and sorted out whose information was included. Some students recounted that each of the group members contributed 30-40 words to idea development. Others reported that they assigned each of the members to develop a topic sentence soon after they agreed upon a topic sentence. The groups shared their responsibilities and divided their writing load. The rule of task division continued through the whole process of collaborative writing across three groups of students. Each of the groups had group leaders or coordinators to coordinate meeting time and writing contributions. Afterwards, each of the students wrote independently first, and they met to pool their ideas. Through collaborative writing, the students shared with each other content and language resources. These resources could be a catalyst for learning to mean and learning to write at the same time.

The majority of the students argued that collaboration helped enhance their confidence in paragraph writing. For example, AGU reported that “honestly, I would prefer speaking English to writing in this language. For me, writing is more formal than speaking. In writing, I felt apprehensive about making mistakes. Writing collaboratively mitigated my writing anxiety.” SEL added that “when writing, I feel so anxious that I could not develop ideas fluently. I always make a lot of mistakes in grammar because I am not good at grammar. But, in this project, working together was so helpful that I could learn a grammar issue from classmates. I could also shift the load of revising and editing to other members.” Over half of the students also expressed that they had more confidence to write after collaborating with their classmates inasmuch as they had more ideas, and they had classmates who were resourceful. They were not so worried about their grammar and vocabulary, and they could share the responsibility of the paragraph writing among themselves. Furthermore, the students admitted that collaborative writing benefitted them, such as getting more ideas, learning from each other, and sharing resources. RIS acknowledged that “When I got stuck, I could ask my co-writers. I think I enjoyed writing because I always had more things to write after discussing with my group members. I never wrote together. I preferred writing solo. But, now I realized working together gave a lot of opportunities to share with and learn from each other.” Other students also reported that sharing and discussing helped them get more knowledge and experience. Though a few students preferred writing solo due to time and effort issues, the majority of the students argued that task division or shared workload, group harmony, and leadership emerging from collaborative writing mediated the process of such writing, and these factors, in turn, impacted the completion of writing tasks and the quality of learning to write in particular.

Thus, the students argued that with functional analysis of text, joint text construction, and collaborative writing, they engaged not in learning to write, which aimed to express themselves in writing, but they were involved in writing to learn, that is, the process of writing itself, which afforded the students opportunity to experience different writing activities (Mancho´n, 2011). They learned content knowledge and knowledge about the language through writing. In other words, almost all the students recognized the need for developing writers’ genre awareness, linguistic knowledge and competence, and writing competence in tandem.

6.4.3 Job Application Letter Writing

In the third genre of a writing task, the students worked on a job application letter (also known as a cover letter) writing task. This technical and professional writing is part of the curriculum requirement that the students had to be able to write both in Bahasa Indonesia and in English depending on prospective employer expectations. The students wrote this letter based on a post offered. This task was a continuum of a company profile analysis. A job application letter is a professional genre, which calls for an interview for a job or lands a job. The nature of job application letter writing was vocationally oriented; the students had to search for a job vacancy advertisement based on their career options in their vocational area. The students also explored a profile of the company issuing or advertising this job vacancy. From an SFL perspective, in this task, they played a social role as applicants who wrote a job application letter to a prospective employer (applicant-prospective employer relationship). The students reported that this task was challenging because they had to consider what a type of work suited their vocational competency. One of the students (ADI) admitted that in a Bahasa Indonesia lesson, he was also taught how to write an application letter, but he did not learn how to analyze this genre and linguistic features. The Bahasa Indonesia teacher just showed the letter. Most of the students claimed that this writing task also encouraged them to write for real audience.

In this study, before the students drafted the application letter, they did an SFL genre analysis of sample application letters found online. This analysis aimed to help the students become fully aware of genres and meta-functional meanings (e.g., ideational, interpersonal, and textual). These meanings are sketched in the following table.

Table 6.15 *Meta-functional Meanings in Students' Application Letters*

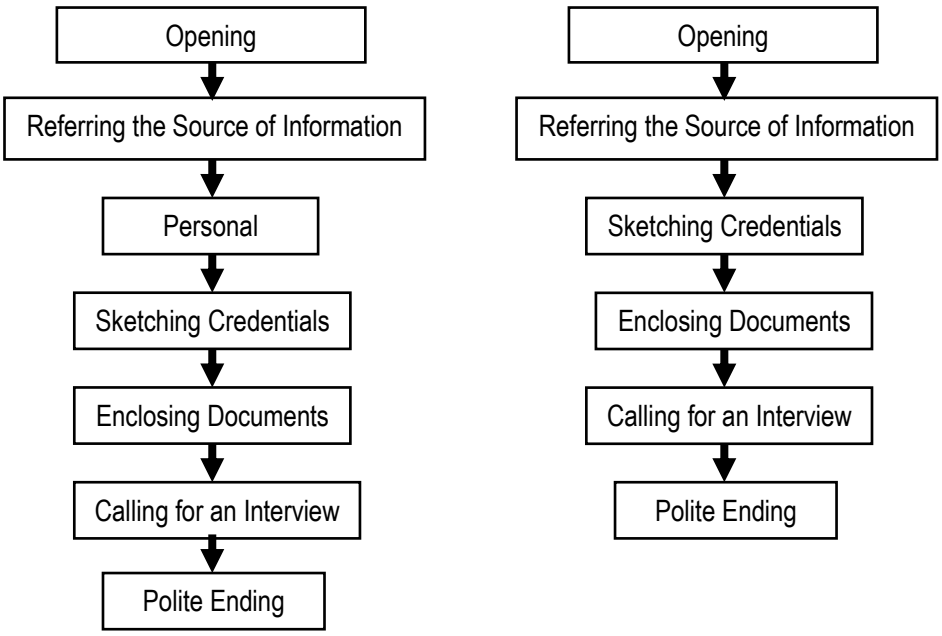
Ideational	Interpersonal	Textual
• involve saying something about the world (human experience) • connect what is said by some kind of logic (logical) • include grammatical system of transitivity realized through participants (humans and non-humans); verb	• enact a social relationship of some kind of mood (declarative, interrogative, and imperative), modality (e.g., possibility, certainty, normality, necessity, obligation), and other appraisal resources of language: attitude, engagement, and graduation (amplification of attitude)	• present a message in a coherent way • the Theme/Rheme system of language • patterns of cohesion: reference, synonyms and antonyms, and conjunctions

processes: doing, sensing, saying, behaving, relating, and being; and circumstances: space, time, reason, agent, manner) • The realization of logical meaning through the use of different clauses: main clause, hypotactic clause, paratactic clause, and embedded clause	

For vocational secondary school students, writing a letter of application was not an easy task, but because they were prepared for immediate employment, writing this letter was a writing skill that they needed to learn. Practically speaking, the SFL genre analysis helped the students become fully aware of the generic or schematic structure of job application letters because this type of genre often creates the first impression a prospective employer and may open the door for an interview (Al-Ali, 2004). It, in turn, enabled the students to develop their familiarity with a job application letter genre because the nature of this genre is technical or professional, in which the tone of the genre is promotional. This text deconstruction activity prepared the students for the actual writing task and built students' knowledge of job application letters.

The students admitted that writing a job application letter in Bahasa Indonesia differed slightly from composing the letter in English. In the discourse of Bahasa Indonesia, most of the application letters included personal details, such as a full name, a birth date/age, a postal address, and academic qualification(s). In an interpersonal meaning, applicants would like a prospective employer to know them personally and establish a closer personal relationship with the prospective employer. The students were aware that this personal information was not included in an English job application letter. The goal of this comparative analysis was to enable the students to connect their L1 resources with their target language resources. The students found this comparative analysis useful in terms of move similarities and differences.

Figure 6.19 *Moves of Application Letters in Bahasa Indonesia and English*



Regarding the moves of Indonesian and English job application letters, the students provided different justifications for this. For example, one of the students (EVI) recounted that

> Saya baru tahu **ada perbedaan sedikit** antara **surat lamaran Bahasa Indonesia** dan **Bahasa Inggris**. Hal ini menunjukkan **nilai budaya** tertentu. Ketika saya disuruh menulis surat lamaran pekerjaan, saya akan **mempertimbangkan siapa pembacanya** dulu. Jika **pembaca** atau managernya adalah **orang Indonesia**, saya **tetap menggunakan** format Bahasa Indonesia. Namun, jika **target pembacanya** orang bertutur **bahasa Inggris**, saya akan menggunakan **format Bahasa Inggris**.
>
> [I just came to know that there is **a slight difference** between **Indonesian** job application letters and **English** job application letters. This difference shows **cultural values**. If asked to write a job application letter, I will **consider who** will read the letter. If **the reader** is an Indonesian employer or manager, I **will follow** an Indonesian job application style. But, if **the reader** is speakers of English other than Indonesians, I will follow an **English application letter style**]

This student participant emphasized cultural values when composing the application letter to a prospective employer. This finding shows that an understanding of moves of job application letters not only provides students with information on how this text is organized or structured but also how this conveys particular cultural values. In the Indonesian context,

personal information should be included in the cover letter to show your identities and build a closer personal relationship with the reader. Personal information is not the issue of privacy, rather a matter of intimacy.

On the other hand, another student (WEN) argued that "Saya **tetap menggunakan** format Bahasa Inggris **tanpa perduli siapa itu pembacanya** karena saya disuruh menuliskan surat lamaran **berbahasa Inggris**. Mungkin saja, manager ingin **mengetahui seberapa paham** kita bisa menulis bahasa Inggris dengan konteks internasional" [I **will follow** an **English job application letter style regardless of who the reader** is because I am asked to write this letter in English. Perhaps, a prospective employer or manager would **like to know whether** we are aware of writing an English job application letter **internationally**]. This participant argument is based on the use of English. This empirical evidence indicates that the use of English has a bearing on the adoption of moves. Regarding the use of SFL genre analysis, most of the students had positive attitudes towards this analysis because it helped the students frame their cover letter coherently and cohesively (clarity of information). In addition, the analysis aimed to raise student awareness of three meta-functional meanings of the cover letter (ideational, interpersonal, and textual).

Instead of assigning particular jobs or posts related to students' vocational competencies, the students were given autonomy to think of and navigate a relevant post. After a text joint construction activity with the teacher, the students were allowed to draft and revise in the recursive writing cycle in a series of lessons. To provide instructional scaffolding within the process approach, the teacher also placed an emphasis on genre knowledge and encouraged the students to see the guidelines for job application letter writing previously discussed. These guidelines as semiotic mediation helped the students draft their letter. The students jointly worked on this task.

Figure 6.20 *Guidelines for Application Letter Writing*

Paragraph	Details
1. Purpose of your letter	If replying to an ad, include the job title and reference/job number (if known). You can state how you found out about the job. Sound enthusiastic about wanting the job to capture the employer's attention. Writing a letter of enquiry (sometimes known as cold contact letters), you should target organisations that you are interested to work for. Briefly include your current career or study circumstances and any specialised professional abilities. Be specific about the type of job you are interested in being considered for.
2. Why you want this job	Explain how your qualification and career plan match the job. The details you provide should show that you have done your research and understand what the job entail, what the company and industry are looking for. Do not copy sentences from their website.
3. Your specialist skills that are relevant to the job	Identify employer needs and the value you can bring to the organisation with the skills you can offer. Describe your specialist skills - relevant qualifications, experiences, achievements and skills as your selling point. Give examples to support your claims. Briefly describe your course (if not finished include your finishing date), majors or specialisations and results if they are strong.
4. Your general skills that are relevant to the job	List your general skills such as communication and interpersonal skills, teamwork, initiative and enterprise, problem solving, planning and organising, self-management, technology. Give examples from all your experiences - team projects, paid work, voluntary work, community activities or sport to provide evidence.
5. Closing	Refer to your resume and any attachments. Say you are interested in an interview and when you are available. For cold contact letters, say when you will call to follow up. Finish on a positive note and thank the employer for their time.

(Taken from http://www.monash.edu.au/careers/students-grads/apply-for-a-job/cover-letters.html)

As students wrote their first drafts, the teachers looked at the drafts in terms of flows of ideas and cohesion. After the students were done with the first drafts, they had a conference with their peers and teachers. This conference mediated peer sharing. Overall, the job application writing letter writing differs from the previous approach, form or mechanically oriented writing exercises that the teachers adopted before the project commenced. In the previous approach, writing looked like a test and was treated as a product. No writing prompts and instructional scaffolding was provided to help students develop their writing ability. In the present task, the teachers engaged the students in a process genre writing task, in which the teachers assisted the students to familiarize themselves with job application letters as a professional and promotional genre. These letters were viewed as texts denoting a social practice of securing an interview for a job and in turn landing the job.

In the writing conference, the teachers did not create rubrics for students' application letter assessment because they focused on text based assessment. In some literature, rubrics are criticized to "fail to provide specific, concrete, genre/register-sensitive criteria that will

enable the teacher to render a more objective and valid judgment. As such, rubrics give the teacher little insights into what exactly makes a text more or less effective/valued and are marginally useful for informing writing instruction" (Fang & Wang, 2011, p. 149). In addition, rubric-based assessment or feedback is too technically oriented, which simplifies writing processes and which is not grounded in social theory of language. This type of assessment does not recognize "the writer's personal voice and experience" (Osborne & Walker, 2014, p. 41). Wilson (2006) contends that "we should teach students to look for the meaning and purpose behind different readers' differing perspectives" (p. 65). Broad (2003) also suggests commenting on students' writing beyond rubrics. Textual analysis is recommended as a powerful tool for assessing the students' work. For this reason, an SFL genre analysis was used to provide feedback on students' writings using the following guide for evaluating students' job application letters.

Table 6.16 *A Guide to Evaluating Application Letters*

Writing Components	Evaluation Questions	Functional Language Analysis Strategies
Content	* What is going on in this text? * What does the author tell us?	* Analyse transitivity patterns (e.g., participants, processes, circumstances)
Organisation	* How does the author organise this text? * Is the text well organised? * By what logic is the text produced?	* Analyse Themes/Rheme patterns * Analyse cohesion patterns * Analyse clause types and clause combining strategies
Style/Tone/Voice	* How does the author of this text interact with the reader? * What is the author's perspective? * What is the tone of the text?	* Analyse mood * Analyse modality * Analyse word choices and other appraisal resources

(Fang & Wang, 2011, p. 154)

This guide helped the teachers and the students focus on their analysis in order to "evaluate texts and their effectiveness in meaning making" (Fang & Wang, 2011, p. 150). The teachers and the students commented on students' drafts based on these basic writing components: content (experiential and logical meanings), text organization (textual moves, cohesion, and coherence), and style and voice (interpersonal meanings). Fang and Wang (2011) suggest that these components are based on a functional language analysis in order to ensure discursive quality and functionality.

The students were positive about text based writing assessment. They argued that the SFL genre analysis helped them become aware of how language was used in their application letter writing. They could differentiate how the actual use of language was realized in different moves of the application letter. YUL (accounting student, 4 March, 2012) wrote:

> Writing a job application letter encouraged me to position myself as an **applicant** who is able to **convince** my prospective employer (manager) to accept me as **an employee**. This experience made me **realize** what competencies I had to possess in order to have a good chance of being invited for an interview and in turn being accepted as an **employee** in the target firm. Functional language analysis assisted me to frame what experience I had include. In addition, I had to **carefully consider** word choice because wording represents my own identities and language style.

Using text based feedback informed by an SFL genre framework, the students argued that the teachers catered to their needs for developing their writing and language abilities alike. They felt empowered through teacher scaffolding; the teachers guided the students in (a) identifying the most salient and relevant linguistic features for evaluating a job application letter, (b) using lexico-grammatical resources that back-up their arguments in the text, and (c) recognizing a need for drafting a convincing job application letter as a promotional or persuasive genre. Three representatives of students from different majors further wrote:

Reflective Diary Entries (15 February 2013)

> **AGU**
>
> Writing a cover letter was **fun** and **challenging** for me. I did **enjoy working** on this because it is **good to know** how to write this letter **in English although** my Bahasa Indonesia teacher taught me how to write the letter **in Bahasa Indonesia**. This helped me **understand any similarities and differences** between a cover letter written in Bahasa Indonesia and the one written in English. Writing this letter was a challenge because I have to write this letter **convincingly** based on **facts**.
>
> **IFA**
>
> I felt glad that in writing a job application letter was included in the lesson unit. I realized that being **able to** write this letter was **important** because as a job seeker, I would have **to convince my prospective employer** about **my vocational qualification**. I had **to sell** myself **professionally**. I think that this job application letter is **a passport** to **land a job** based on **my vocational competency**.
>
> **LIND**
>
> When writing a job application letter, I had to **carefully** think of **what to include**. The challenge is to include **details**, which were **relevant to** a particular post. Another challenge was that I had to know **a profile of a company**. Sometimes, I thought how **reliable the source of a job vacancy advertisement** was.

These reflective diary data indicate students' positive responses to job application letter writing along with SFL genre analysis. They were aware of social purposes of the text, audience, and context. They also realized that important information needed to be included

in this professional and promotional text. For example, the use of these words, *convincingly* (***dengan meyakinkan***), *convince* (***meyakinkan***), and *relevant* (*berkaitan*) demonstrates students' awareness of a social purpose of a job application letter. Taken together, the students learned how to write a job application letter as a professional and promotional genre from a functional perspective. Because job application letters contain fixed textual mode and expressions, the students were able to follow the conventions of job application letters. This can be seen in the following application letter written by one of the participating students.

Figure 6.21 *Sample Application Letter Written by Students*

3 Maret 2013

Mr. Kano Fraser
Personal Manager
FeeOFW
Australia

SYSTEMS SUPPORT ENGINEER-ANALYST PROGRAMMER

I was interested to see your advertisement in http://au.gigajob.com and would like to be considered for this post.

I am a fresh graduate of the [redacted] majoring in software engineering. I have acquainted myself with a range of skills that would allow me to blend with your firm.I am proficient in programer language and know how to use various computer software. Being attentive to details. I am able to work with people in any levels.

From your advertisement, I can see you are looking for candidates who have excellent programer skills. I am well versed in PHP and Database procesing.

A copy of my curriculum vitae is enclosed with copies of previous testimonials.

I have attached my resume for your review and this should give you some idea of my educational qualifications and experience. However, I look forward to an opportunity to meet with you and further discuss my qualification.

Very truly yours,

LP

Ideationally, the student gave information on the source of the job advertisement, her qualifications and skills, company's expectations. She was aware of important supporting documents such as testimonials and a resume or a CV in order to provide evidence on her propositions or statements in the letter. These artifacts were used to strengthen the application letter. In terms of transitivity patterns, the participant was an applicant or a job seeker in almost all the clauses except *a copy of my curriculum vitae…* and *this should give you…* These two clauses were used to depict more information, which detailed applicant's qualifications, so the participants were non-human agency. Most of the process types were mental and relational processes except *attach* and *give* categorized as a material or doing process. In most of the job application letters, mental and relational processes were used to

give a good impression on a prospective employer. The student participant positioned herself as a competent applicant by using these lexical choices: *ranges of skills*, *proficient*, *able to*, *being attentive*, *excellent*, *educational qualifications*, and *experience*. Interpersonally, this evidence demonstrates that the student was aware of persuasive or promotional tone of the job application letter. It also indicates that she knew her position as a prospective employee who interacted with a prospective employer. In terms of textually, this letter represents an applicant herself by using personal pronoun, *I*, as self-voice. The use of *acquaint*, *proficient*, *able*, *excellent*, and *well versed*, demonstrates the judgment of the applicant in relation to social esteem discourse—how dependable? (tenacity), how special? (normality), how capable? (capacity) (see Martin & White, 2005). Thus, the student was able to write a job application letter using different ideational, interpersonal, and textual resources. This is also evident in other students' job application letters. Trained to use SFL genre analysis, the students could demonstrate their students' discursive competence when writing job application letters.

6.4 Exploring Lexico-grammatical and Appraisal Resources, Genres, and Use of Digital Dictionaries, Corpus, and Translators as Semiotic Tools

From a prescriptive or traditional perspective, factors such as vocabulary knowledge, background knowledge, knowledge of grammar, metacognitive awareness, syntactic knowledge, and learning strategies are important in understanding texts. For this study, grounded in SFL, vocabulary knowledge, knowledge of grammar, and syntactic knowledge are termed as lexico-grammatical repertoires or resources. Background knowledge and metacognitive awareness are called as genre knowledge, meta-language ability, and language appraisal ability. Learning strategies are termed as meaning making practices. To enable students to learn all these, they need to engage in activities or tasks, which address how language works in texts. Fontaine (2013) argues that "understanding how language works means understanding how grammar works" (p. 1). Learning to analyze lexico-grammar in a functional framework requires a good understanding of the relationship between function and structure, between choice and meaning, and between function and context.

Secondary years are a time when students are "potentially very aware of language, and receptive to new ways of exploring and exploiting it" (Halliday, 2007b, p. 62). Using a

functional language analysis or SFL meta-language analysis, the students simultaneously learned through language and about language. They engaged with how language was used to present content and organize vocational texts. This analysis assisted the students to recognize language patterns typical in their vocational areas. They could raise their awareness of the varied ways language constructs knowledge in vocational areas. For this study, language is viewed as:

- system: a resource for communicating meanings in particular sociocultural contexts;
- social practice: a semiotic tool for doing things or participating in social discourses or activities;
- text: an instance of language in use; and
- discourse: a tool for conveying ideological or cultural values or attitudes.

Over a period of two semesters, the students explored different lexico-grammar, genres, and language appraisal in different texts they experienced or engaged with. The exploration of texts came out of lesson activities or tasks (see vocationally oriented extensive reading, guided reading comprehension, and literature circles in the previous sections), in which the students engaged as discussed in the previous sections. To scaffold this functional meta-language analysis, the students were provided with a guide sheet along with joint text deconstruction.

Table 6.17 *A Guide Sheet of Functional Meta-Language Analysis*

Types of Meaning	Purposes	Functional Meta-Language Analysis
Experiential meaning	Representing experience	Analyze transitivity patterns, such as participants (themes), processes, and circumstances
Textual meaning	Organizing language	• Analyze thematic progression • Analyze nominalization • Analyze cohesive devices or markers (reference, ellipsis, substitution, lexical cohesion)
Interpersonal meaning	Orienting language	• Analyze mood • Analyze modality (usuality, probability, obligation, and inclination) • Analyze language appraisal (attitude, engagement, and graduation)

(Adapted from Fang & Schleppegrell, 2008; Fontaine, 2013; Unsworth, 1999)

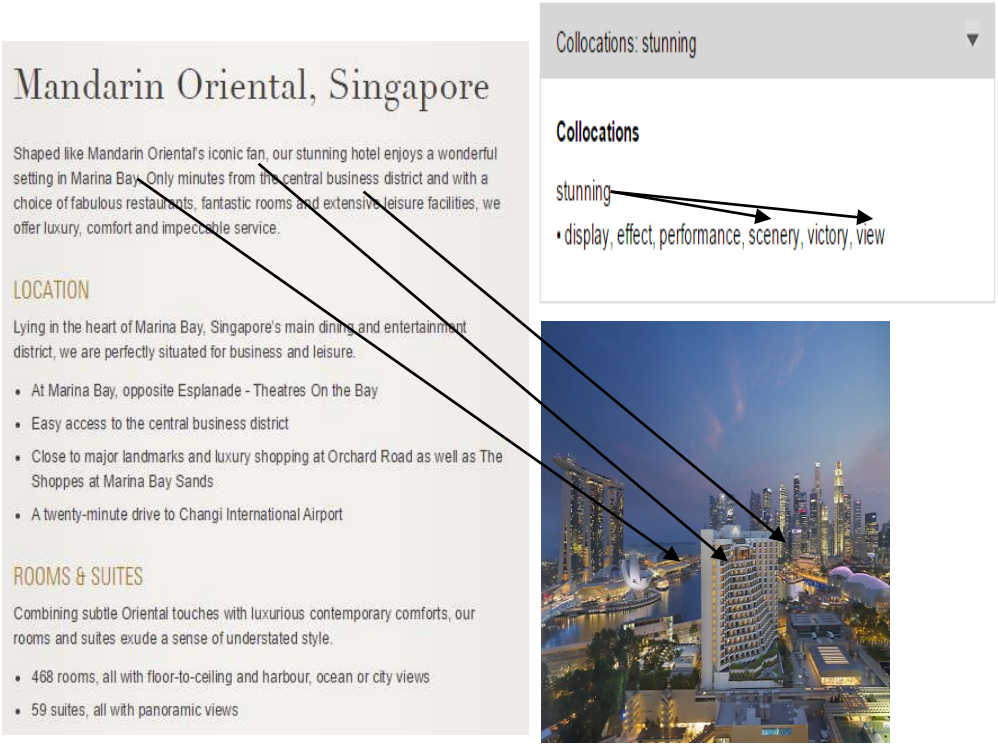
For focused functional meta-language analysis, the students engaged in three main activities: (1) joint text deconstruction with the teachers, (2) independent or collaborative text construction (with peers), and (3) presenting and discussing the outcome of the analysis. Before the students did independent or collaborative text analysis, the teachers guided the students how to analyze a text that they read or experienced in each of the lesson units, of literature circles, of writing sessions, and of oral reports on extensive reading in order to familiarize the students with this analysis. This analysis was based on the text. The following is an example of how the teachers scaffolded hotel management and hospitality majors in understanding a hotel front webpage text using functional meta-language analysis (see Figure 6.22). To begin with, the teachers focused on ideational meaning. The students were directed to identify participants, processes, and circumstances. In pairs, they analyzed patterns of transitivity. Each of the participants, processes, and circumstances were analyzed in terms of functional roles of them. For example, the roles of the participants were to describe the hotel (*our stunning hotel enjoys a wonderful setting*) and to explain what the hotel (*we are perfectively situated…*) could do for prospective guests. The circumstance of place, *in Marinay Bay*, supported the relational process, *enjoy*, and the participant, *a wonderful setting*. Here is an example of transitivity analysis.

Table 6.18 *Transitivity Analysis of Hotel Front Webpage Text*

Participant (non-human actor)	Process (relational)	Participant (goal)	Circumstance (place)
our stunning hotel	*enjoys*	*a wonderful setting*	*in Marina Bay*

The students were also asked to identify types of verb processes, such as relational (*enjoys*, *are*, *exude*) and doing or materials (*offer*). Another transitivity analysis could be done by analyzing lexical choices. The first clause contains a number of noun groups such as *a wonderful setting*, *only minutes from the central business district*, *a choice of fabulous restaurants*, *fantastic rooms*, *extensive leisure facilities*, *luxury*, *comfort*, and *impeccable.* These words were used to portray the hotel as a strategic venue. These words also demonstrate a promotional tone of the text.

Figure 6.22 *Functional Analysis of Hotel Front Webpage Text*



Textually, the use of noun groups and first pronouns, *our stunning hotel*, *we* (referring to hotel management), and *our room and suites*, indicates constant thematic progression. This also indicates interpersonal meaning: The use of *we* and *our* referring hotel management attempts to interact with prospective customers. In the text, the students were also directed to analyze nominalization or noun groups, such as *Mandarin Oriental's iconic fan*, *a wonderful setting*, *a choice of fabulous restaurants*, and *a sense of understated style*. The use of nominalization was used to compact or distil information. Language appraisal resources were analyzed through identification of adjectives and noun groups, such as *stunning*, *wonderful*, *iconic*, *fabulous*, *fantastic*, *extensive*, *comfort*, *luxury*, *impeccable*, *perfectly situated*, *easy access*, *subtle*, *sense of understated style*, and *panoramic*. These words show positive image or valuation of the hotel. Furthermore, the teachers drew students' attention to social purpose and form of the text (a hotel webpage as a promotional genre, hybrid text type: descriptive and persuasive, and a hotel webpage as a hypertext).

As observed, in this joint text deconstruction, most of the students found unfamiliar words, such as *stunning*, *impeccable*, *iconic*, *subtle*, and *understated*. For this reason, the teacher asked the students to look them up in reliable dictionaries, such as *Macmillan*. The teacher also asked the students to check which words collocated with *stunning*, for example, as

shown in Figure 6.22. Visually, the teachers directed the students to connect any visuals to verbal information because most of the hotel webpages contain visuals, which reinforce or elaborate information. These multi-semiotic resources facilitated meaning making in context. In joint text construction, both the teachers and the students used an analytical tool to explore language choices and meanings of texts. The teachers focused on how experiential, interpersonal, and textual meanings were constructed in the grammatical patterns of language. By assisting the students to see how such meanings were presented through language in their vocational texts, the students could be independent readers who cannot merely comprehend but also reflect on what they read critically.

Drawing on observation and reflective diary data, as the students engaged in meaning making activities (e.g., vocationally oriented extensive reading and literature circles), they analyzed a variety of texts they read and shared the outcome of the analysis with their peers. The students had autonomy in making a decision on particular lexico-grammatical resources they needed to learn more or discuss with their peers in pair, small group, and whole class discussions. As reported in students' reflective diaries, the students explored different lexico-grammatical resources, language appraisal, and genres by working with texts as unit of analysis. They shared, negotiated, and discussed ideational, interpersonal, and textual meanings of texts. They explored linguistic aspects of the content they learned, such as accounting, hotel management and hospitality, and computer engineering to make meaning of vocational knowledge, information, and experience. With this mind, the students recognized language as a means of doing vocation and of building vocational understandings. Using a functional meta-language analysis, the students engaged in how language works in their vocational texts. This meaning making engagement allowed them to understand and interpret texts in new and varied ways (Hodgson-Drysdale, 2014) so that the relationship between content and language was evident. Thus, understanding how language works in text provided the students with a critical way to understand content knowledge (e.g., vocational concepts and terms) and vocational practices. For example, one group of accounting students explored and discussed lexico-grammatical resources in a portion of the textbook, *Financial Accounting: Concepts and Applications*.

Table 6.19 *Students' Engagement in How Lexico-grammar Works in a Text*

Turns	Actors	Contributions	Mood
21	S14	Coba lihat halaman dua lima ((*Look at Page 25*))…This give us errr definition about financial statements…Let us analyze…each of the clauses closely umm let me analyze clause one	Statement and Imperative
22	S15	I will analyze clause number two (.) how about number three ((pointing to S16))	Statement
23	S16	Ok	Agreement
24	S17	My job number four	Statement
25	S18	I will work on the last clause	Statement
26	S14	See clause number one… "The financial statements prepared by companies **yield** the same **benefits** as the financial disclosures provided by mortgage applicants" ((*reading this clause*)) I just knew the meaning of **yield benefits**…	Imperative and Statement
27	S17	meaning?	Interrogative
28	S14	***memberi manfat*** ((*in Bahasa Indonesia*))	Statement
29	S17	I see	Statement
30	S16	In Macmillan…the word *yield* also go with *results* ((*accessing online Macmillan Dictionary on mobile phone*))	Statement
31	S17	Thanks for your info\	Thanking
32	S14	*Ada* ((there is)) equal comparison between financial statements and financial disclosure. See this conjunction *the same…as*	Statement and Imperative
33	S16	So financial statements and financial disclosures the same same?	Statement
34	S14	Yes (.) but both different…Companies usually prepare the financial statements (.) but mortgage applicants err prepare the financial disclosure	Statement
35	S16	I see…how about clause number two?	Invitation to talk
36	S15	It tells us the purpose of the financial statements err "a reliable basis for evaluating the past performance and future prospects of a company" ((*reading the clause*))	Statement
37	S14	We can say umm financial statements are a tool for evaluation (.) of accounting performance	Statement
38	S17	I think so…	Opinion
39	S16	Please look at clause number three umm two passive clauses here (.) give more	Imperative

Turns	Actors	Contributions	Mood
		information about the purpose of the financial statements…	
40	S17	Agree. (.) now my turn…clause number four tells us three major types of financial statements (.) I think it is important to note…	Statement
41	S18	The last sentence emphasizes the purpose of **the balance sheet**, **the income statement**, and **the statement of cash flows** ((*reading the note*))	Statement
42	S14	Can we conclude?	Invitation to talk
43	S16	The thematic progression linear like *the financial statement*s, *financial statement information*, *financial statements*, *they* (reference: pronoun), and *t*hese statements ((reading the text)) so this text gives more definition about financial statements…	Statement
44	S18	The doing process shows what financial statements can do (.) I mean the value of financial statements for lenders and investors and (.) The relational process gives more information on financial statements like types of financial statements	Statement
45	S16	And the tone of the text is informative. Is that right?	
46	S17	Perfect! What a great discussion	Praising
47	S14	((*name student*)) did you take note of our discussion?	Interrogative
48	S15	Yes for an oral report to the class	Confirmation
49	S14	Great	Praising

The snapshot in Table 6.19 demonstrates how the students talked about what constitutes *financial statements*. They initiated the dialog by raising a topic, the financial statements. Thus, a content topic was the point of departure for meaning making. Ideationally, the students discussed and shared their interpretations with each other. For instance, they tried to make a comparison between two concepts, *financial statements* and *financial disclosure*. They, then, differentiated the two accounting documents from the perspective of creators. They also talked about sub-genres of financial statements, such as *the balance sheet*, *the income statement*, and *a cash flow statement*. They also talked about social purposes of these sub-genres. Textually, they focused on lexico-grammatical resources, which contributed to better understanding of the concept discussed, the *financial statements*. This was evident when the students discussed the use of lexical choices, such as *the same…as*

(indicating equal comparison), *yield benefits* (collocations), verb processes (*doing* and *relational*), passive construction, and thematic progression (to show the role of the participant—non human agency). Using appraisal resources, the students could identify the voice of the text. Interpersonally, for example, the students took the floor, signaled agreement and praise, invited each other to talk, asked for confirmation, and did questioning, for example. Taken together, while discussing the text, the students used a functional language analysis to construe what counts financial statements. Each of the students engaged in the meaning making of the text. In this respect, "language is a resource for making meaning and thus provides a principled account of how forms and meanings (i.e. language and content) are related in [text] as discourse" (Huang & Morgan, 2003, p. 236). This dialog showcases how a systemic functional approach interweaves content and language.

Generally speaking, the students engaged in a series of lesson tasks, which allowed them to explore different lexico-grammatical resources, language appraisal resources, and genres. In particular, as part of vocationally oriented extensive reading (VOER), the students also created vocabulary and grammar logs in order to keep track of what lexico-grammatical resources they learned. Drawing on student engagement in joint construction of vocational texts and in functional meta-language analysis, all the students found these activities useful. They viewed both vocabulary and grammar as tools for meaning making. YUL (Accounting, 24 March 2013) wrote:

> Before I learned a functional meta-language analysis, I had perception that vocabulary and grammar were **separable** from texts. Now, I realize that both are **the architecture of texts**. They are important dimensions of text construction. Equally important, lexical and grammatical choices also have a **particular impact** on meaning.

This evidence demonstrates change in student beliefs of vocabulary and grammar. Another student (REN) reported that "I have learned grammar in use. I used grammar for reading and understanding vocational texts. Now, I understand that vocabulary is always integral to grammar. Grammar is a tool for organizing and representing knowledge." These data accentuates the role of grammar in knowledge building, organization, and representation. Three groups of students recognized the social roles of vocabulary and grammar because they are always embedded in texts. They found learning language through texts engaging and enjoyable. They were also familiar with the concept of genres as a rhetorical tool for

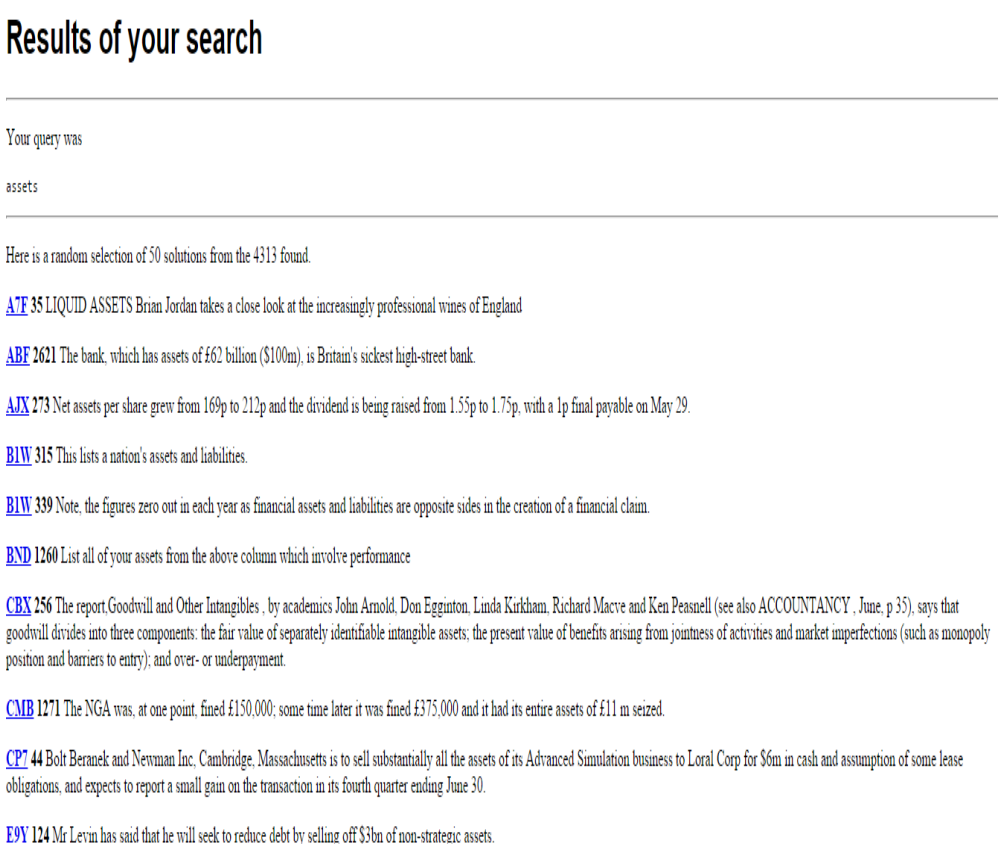
constructing vocational knowledge or information. Moreover, the majority of the students perceived genres as functional moves, which serve to organize texts. They also argued that genres determine what is conventionally acceptable in vocational domains or registers. Thus, the student participants were positive about the learning of language and genre through the exploration of myriad vocational texts. To summarize, the students viewed the language as a tool for understanding and constructing knowledge. They also contended that learning English becomes more meaningful because they talk about knowledge through language, not about the language in a discrete way. The students perceived the language not as a stand-alone skill, but as integral to content knowledge or information.

In addition to exploring different lexico-grammatical resources, genres, and appraisal resources, the students used digital dictionaries, corpus, and translators. Conventionally, these tools enabled the students to develop their vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension in another language, such as English. This claim is supported by empirical findings (see Grabe, 2009; Wang, 2012). From a functional perspective, e-dictionaries, corpus, and digital translators as semiotic mediation facilitated a meaning making process. At the outset (six class periods), the students frequently looked up while doing both intensive reading and extensive reading. Most of the students struggled with word meanings in context although they learned English from primary school and continued to senior high school. One of the contributing factors was that they usually studied English for examinations.

The student participants remarked that they deployed different types of e-dictionaries (Macmillan and Cambridge), corpus (British National Corpus), and digital translators (Franklin Electronic) for different purposes. It is important to report on how these students used these semiotic tools under certain circumstances and for particular purposes. Most of the students used digital dictionaries and translators to confirm the exact meanings of the words identified or found in texts. They preferred using bilingual dictionaries or digital translators to translate explanations of words. Some of the students acknowledged that digital dictionaries were used to deepen their understanding of words. The students explored a range of word use using a corpus. For example, YUL looked up the word, *assets*, in a dictionary. She found that this word had two meanings: general and specific. In a general sense, *assets,* means a major benefit, but in financial accounting, this terms means an economic resource both tangible and intangible (money and properties that a

person or a company owns). In addition to using English only dictionaries, this participant used bilingual dictionaries (English-Bahasa Indonesia and Bahasa Indonesia-English dictionaries) in order to make sure the exact meaning of the term in Bahasa Indonesia (*aset* or *aktiva*). In Bahasa Indonesia, the word, *assets*, can be translated into two different words, *aset* (borrowed from English) and *aktiva* (borrowed from Dutch, *activa*). It is important to note that Bahasa Indonesian words are mostly borrowed from both English and Dutch. The two words are widely used in accounting books written in Bahasa Indonesia. For more use of this word in context, the teachers guided the students not to rely upon dictionaries because definitions may be short, abstract, or generally written in dense text. In dictionaries, no concrete examples may also be presented. The teachers guided the students how to use a corpus deliberately. For instance, YUL used British National Corpus (BNC), and she reported that this corpus showed a range of word use in the accounting context as shown in the following figure.

Figure 6.23 *The Use of British National Corpus as a Semiotic Tool*



Results of your search

Your query was

assets

Here is a random selection of 30 solutions from the 4313 found.

A7F **35** LIQUID ASSETS Brian Jordan takes a close look at the increasingly professional wines of England

ABF **2621** The bank, which has assets of £62 billion ($100m), is Britain's sickest high-street bank.

AJX **273** Net assets per share grew from 169p to 212p and the dividend is being raised from 1.55p to 1.75p, with a 1p final payable on May 29.

B1W **315** This lists a nation's assets and liabilities.

B1W **339** Note, the figures zero out in each year as financial assets and liabilities are opposite sides in the creation of a financial claim.

BND **1260** List all of your assets from the above column which involve performance

CBX **256** The report,Goodwill and Other Intangibles , by academics John Arnold, Don Egginton, Linda Kirkham, Richard Macve and Ken Peasnell (see also ACCOUNTANCY , June, p 35), says that goodwill divides into three components: the fair value of separately identifiable intangible assets; the present value of benefits arising from jointness of activities and market imperfections (such as monopoly position and barriers to entry); and over- or underpayment.

CMB **1271** The NGA was, at one point, fined £150,000; some time later it was fined £375,000 and it had its entire assets of £11 m seized.

CP7 **44** Bolt Beranek and Newman Inc, Cambridge, Massachusetts is to sell substantially all the assets of its Advanced Simulation business to Loral Corp for $6m in cash and assumption of some lease obligations, and expects to report a small gain on the transaction in its fourth quarter ending June 30.

E9Y **124** Mr Levin has said that he will seek to reduce debt by selling off $3bn of non-strategic assets.

This evidence shows that the student needed to know vocabulary knowledge of both general and specific words (Rhoder & Heurster, 2002). This incidental learning could develop students' repertoire of vocabulary. Working with texts, YUL figured out a word's

meaning by identifying context clues, by looking up dictionary definitions, by using translators to know meanings of explanations, and by using a corpus for a range of word use in context. Most of the students did these strategies. FIT (Reflective Journal, 12 October 2012) wrote:

> Penggunaan korpus ini **sangat berguna** untuk mengetahui **penggunaan kata tertentu** yang saya **tidak ketahui**. Menurut saya, kamus bagus dalam memberi definisi, namun **terbatas dalam pemberian contoh** penggunaan kata tertentu dalam konteks. Dengan demikian, saya ingin mengetahui lebih banyak lagi bagaimana penggunaan kata tertentu dalam **beragam konteks**. Penggunaan korpus ini pengalaman bagi saya karena saya tertarik untuk **memahami makna kata** tertentu dalam teks yang tersedia di korpus. Media ini sangat berguna sekali untuk **memperdalam** makna kata dan penggunaannya. Penggunaan kamus dan korpus dalam bersamaan membantu **memperdalam pengayaan kosakata** saya.
>
> [The use of a corpus **enables** me to know **under what context unfamiliar words** are used. In my view, dictionaries can offer definitions along with **limited examples** of word use in context. For this reason, I want to **know more** about the use of such words in **different contexts**. Using the corpus is **a new experience** for me. I am interested in understanding **particular words in texts** available on the corpus. This tool allowed me to **know more** about **word use and meaning**. The use of both dictionary and corpus alike **enrich** my vocabulary resources]

These data show that the participant acknowledged the benefits of using a corpus. In addition, she argued that a corpus could complement the use of a dictionary. She suggested that the use of both a dictionary and a corpus enhance vocabulary repertoire. In other words, both dictionaries and corpora are useful tools for locating the meanings of words in context and understanding how such words are used in context. Taken together, digital dictionaries, corpus, and translators assisted the students with meaning making of texts. The students found the use of these tools useful. In particular, these tools helped them develop students' language repertoire because the students engaged with authentic texts, and they used these tools purposively; that is to communicate meanings, to participate in social practices, to understand and construct vocational knowledge, and to get things done. The students highlighted that the roles of dictionaries, corpora, and translators as semiotic mediation supported their Vocational English learning. Thanks to the Internet, laptop, and mobile technology, the students could access different dictionary, corpus, and translator resources.

CHAPTER 7

Engaging English Teachers in VE Materials Development: Change in English Teachers' Knowledge and Practice

The aim of this chapter is to report on change in English teachers' knowledge and practice as a result of their engagement in participatory language materials development. The data including ethnographic field notes, reflective journals along with photovoice, and interviews, yielded key findings in relation to English teachers' insights into the value of participating in vocational English (VE) materials development. These findings include teacher understanding of school-based language materials development, teacher knowledge and beliefs about the materials development, and their knowledge of this development as pedagogical innovation. These findings demonstrate the impact of school-based language materials development on teacher professional learning and students' language learning.

7.1 The Value of School-Based Professional Development

Previous research (Concannon-Gibney & Murphy, 2012) indicates that in-school professional development enhances both student learning and teacher professional learning. This study aimed to extend this scholarship. The English teachers welcomed VE materials development as a platform for professional development (PD) at a school level. Specifically, the teachers recounted the process of designing VE materials. For example, WID (Reflective Journal, 6 May 2013) reported that

> This language materials development project reflected school-based curriculum development because we formulated instructional goals based on our students' needs, we created our own syllabi, we designed our own materials, and we provide the students the opportunity to navigate, talk about, and share a variety of vocational texts in English. I learned that these activities had a lot to do with my professional learning because I learned something that I did not experience in my professional training and routines.

ANI (Reflective Journal, 6 May 2013) added that

> Language materials development was locally implemented and negotiated between the teachers, the teachers, the vocational teachers, and the school administrators. This enterprise was what I never did before. It also made me realize the importance of school-based professional development through a collaborative professional enterprise like language materials development. Participating in news ways to teach informed by SFL along with demonstrations and opportunities for practice

> built on my knowledge and understanding of teaching English whose goal was to engage students in meaning making through working with texts.

These two teachers' reflections show that locally-based language materials development is one important feature of school-based professional development, which enabled the teachers to gain new knowledge, understandings, and skills, which built upon and enhanced teachers' previous knowledge and refined their understandings of language and language learning theories and practices in relation to language materials development. For instance, WID spelled out that her engagement in needs analysis, goal formulation, syllabus design, and materials design typifies school-based professional development. ANI argued that her new learning to teach was strengthened by demonstrations and opportunities. This aligns with Wilson, Grisham, and Smetana (2009, p. 709) that "theory, demonstration, and opportunities for practice" (Wilson, Grisham, & Smetana, 2009, p. 709) optimize teacher professional learning. The English teachers had the opportunity to grow professionally through 12-month long mentorship. The English teachers were positive about modeling and demonstration in classrooms. One of the teachers (KES, 6 May 2013) commented:

> My colleagues and I observed **the way** the researcher designed and used VE materials we never learned before. He **modeled** how to select and adapt vocational texts. We were also trained **how to** create reading questions and other classroom activities based on SFL theory. This mentorship provided me the opportunity **to learn to write** materials. With this mentorship, I built **my confidence** as a **materials writer**.

The comments indicate how this teacher gained benefits from mentor modeling. The teachers also learned from team teaching where I became the co-teacher and demonstrated teaching. They also admitted that both demonstration and modeling by the researcher offered practical guidance. They contended that the demonstration and modeling enabled them to learn from the researcher as a resource for learning through action. By engaging in meaningful curriculum and pedagogic practices, the teachers became actively involved in discussions and actions that made a difference to the learning community of practice (Lassonde & Israel, 2010).

When further asked about collegial training and mentoring, six English teachers (Informal Interview, 6 May 2013) found both training and mentorship useful and comprehensive. They learned about the applications of SFL theory to content-based language instruction and text-based language instruction. In other words, this professional training and mentorship oriented the teachers towards the design and use of VE materials from a social semiotic

perspective. This orientation built teacher motivation to engage in and collaborate with me as the researcher because they had learned SFL theory and concepts, which informed their teaching practices. One of the English teachers (JEK, Informal Interview, 6 May 2013) commented that "I realized that VE materials development involves needs analysis, text selection and adaptation, materials writing, and materials implementation." Another teacher (ANI, Informal Interview, 6 May 2013) added that "collegial training and mentorship gave me more knowledge about the process of materials development and theories underpinning this development." Others in their reflective journals wrote:

> I **learned** a lot from training and mentorship in language materials development. I felt blessed to have such an **opportunity to work** closely with the researcher as an expert. Previously, I had attended a lot of professional training in language curriculum and methodology in ELT. But this training **did not address** how to design language curriculum and materials practically. **What I knew** was contextual teaching and learning (CTL) and communicative language teaching (CLT) but **just at a surface level**. The teacher trainers and educators **did not explain** the origins of these methods and **did not show** the actual application of these methods to real-life language classrooms. In this training and mentorship, I **learned** new theory and concepts, which provided **new ways** to design materials and to teach (KES, 6 May 2013).

> I found both training and mentorship useful. I was **glad to learn** from other teachers and the researcher as a team. I learned something new in this project because this **language** materials development was **relevant to** our teaching context, **vocational education**. In particular, when I taught English in junior high school, I **learned** a genre based approach, but **I did not know** that this approach was informed by **SFL**. In addition, I thought that a genre based approach **could be applied** only to junior high school and general senior high school. Now, I **see the potential** of this approach to English teaching for vocational secondary schools. The coverage of training and mentorship was also **comprehensive** (WID, 6 May 2013).

The comments indicate teachers' positive response to collegial training and mentorship. The teachers claimed that school-based training and mentorship provided a platform for learning from each other. They gained an informed understanding of meaning making-based instructional practices. This understanding contributes to teacher willingness to engage in and commit to the project. Because of both training and mentorship, the teacher participants also enjoyed learning new ways to teach, and they commented that the training and mentorship broadened their knowledge of pedagogy. The English teachers contended that SBPD through the VE materials development project contained an optimal combination of theoretically-oriented and practical activities. In order to extend the teachers' knowledge,

they were also provided with professional literature, such as articles and books in relation to SFL, content based instruction, and text based instruction. The teachers reported that they found these professional resources helpful because access to these resources built their self-confidence in experimenting with SFL theory. All of the teachers acknowledged that their initial or pre-service education was not enough to become a professional teacher in a constantly changing vocational landscape of professional knowledge. SBPD is another avenue of learning and experimenting with theory, which is relevant to their teaching practices.

The teachers raised another issue, that of professional dialogue. For example when the English teachers, the vocational teachers, and I designed lesson units for three majors, we discussed and negotiated what to include in the units along with rationale behind this inclusion. Here is one of the professional dialogues during the fieldwork:

Table 7.1 A *Professional Dialogue between the English Teachers, Vocational Teachers, and the Researcher*

Turns	Participants	Contributions	Mood
1	T1 (KES)	Let's discuss the design of lesson units (.) we have consulted themes with the vocational teachers…we now need to decide learning activities.	Statement
2	T2 (ANI)	I suggest we start with vocabulary building because our students need to know more vocabulary	Suggestion
3	T3 (RES)	In particular computer engineering most of the students are still lack of technical vocabulary (.) when I teach them (.) they have difficulties understanding technical terms	Addressing a concern
4	T4 (WID)	We also need to include reading comprehension (.) this helps students read critically…not just answer questions but create their own questions.	Suggestion
5	T5 (POL)	We can ask them to read extensively then	Suggestion
6	T6 (NIK)	Our library got a number of vocational collections written in English (.) We can use these books for extensive reading	Statement and Suggestion
7	T7 (ROH	The lesson units and other materials should encourage our students to use English to understand vocational knowledge…In the hotel hospitality industry students should be able to communicate in English	Suggestion
8	The	All the ideas are great…we can design	Praising and

Turns	Participants	Contributions	Mood
	Researchers	lesson units to help our students develop their English and vocational knowledge (.) This is the core of vocational English that I talked in our training	Suggestion
9	T8 (JEK)	I agree on this idea…um um we should create activities which encourage our students to learn English outside the classrooms.	Agreement and Suggestion
10	The Researcher	That's why we created learning logs to keep track of what they learned.	Reinforcement
11	T3 (RES)	This is what we are expecting.	Expectation
12	T4 (WID)	We have to decide more detailed work schedules and share responsibilities	Imperative
13	T8 (JEK)	Agree…	Agreement

The snapshot in Table 7.1 shows the engagement of the teachers in making pedagogical decisions on the design of the materials based on the context analysis. This professional dialogue took place both formally and informally. The teachers and I had sustained discussions and sharing of ideas. Sometimes, we spoke when there was time outside the school day (e.g., school breaks and public holidays). Throughout the school year, we met as discussion groups to reflect on what we did in the classroom to accommodate students' expectations in order to invigorate our practices. Through professional dialogue, the English teachers took the view that they had a good opportunity to discuss and share ideas as well as reflect collaboratively on their pedagogical practices. The English teachers also commented that the opportunity to reflect and discuss the implementation of VE materials development allowed them to understand both theory and concepts together with members of the learning community. The discussion groups also provided a forum for the expression of learning needs. In professional dialogue, the teachers also shared their concerns, including matters such as materials writing, understanding vocational terms, understanding SFL-related terms, and guiding the students to engage with functional language analysis. They also viewed the videos together and talked about what happened in the classroom. This video viewing enabled the teachers to reflect on what happened in the classroom. Both professional dialog and sustained reflections were pivotal to the entire design and implementation of the materials.

The English teachers also changed their understanding of language materials development. Prior to this project, they argued that they were not legitimate researchers, but they were

just practitioners who waited for recipes from theorists and expert researchers. Borg (2010) suggests that “teachers should be critical consumers of educational research, using it to inform their instructional decisions” (p. 410). Through participatory action research (PAR), all the English teachers acknowledged that this enterprise as a way to explore different pedagogical practices (e.g., dialogic reading and extensive reading), apply SFL theory to practice, and sustain their motivation to enhance their own professional learning and their students’ learning. The teachers also realized that PAR was a tool for becoming reflective practitioners as they engaged in a series of pedagogical actions in order to enact the new materials. This is because the teachers were involved in sustained reflection (e.g. discussing and sharing experience, writing a reflective journal, and watching lesson videos). On a monthly basis, both the teachers and I jointly reflected on our pedagogical practices. This reflection serves as the basis for cycles of change because in action research, reflection along with professional dialoque and collegial collaboration is a contributing factor in making an informed decision on such change (Lane, McMaster, Adnum, & Cavanagh, 2014). “Through reflections, teachers have the opportunity to question and evaluate their own practices either individually or within a community of peers” (Dajani, 2015, p. 129). Thus, in the present study, reflective practice facilitated a fuller understanding of both theory and practice as a continuum in cycles of research: the context analysis, the design of materials, the use of materials, and reflection on the design and use of the materials.

By engaging in PAR, the teachers also realized their potential for becoming practitioner researchers who understood their own teaching contexts: a school, classrooms, curriculum, students, and resources. They were also aware that much educational research carried out by those in the academy was irrelevant to their professional lives in schools. In some cases, recommendations drawing from educational research undertaken by academics were hard to implement because of differing contexts. This project helped the teachers recognize their role as teacher researchers committed to using relevant theory to foreground their pedagogical practices and exploring different practices to refine their theory. The teachers’ engagement with the PAR changed their beliefs about their roles as mere practitioners. The teachers realized that teaching could be a platform for researching their own classrooms.

Throughout the project, the English teachers also acknowledged an important advantage of having continued support from the school and the researcher as a facilitator. The English teachers pointed out that the school administrators encouraged a culture of collaboration so

that between the teachers and the researcher they could learn from each other. Institutional support and supportive organizational culture was a driver of teacher engagement, commitment, and collaboration. Without this support, this school-based PD would not have happened (see Tavakoli & Howard, 2012). Teachers' positive responses to collaboration impacted on the productive implementation of VE materials development as collaboration could increase teachers' willingness to implement new practices in their own classrooms. Moreover, the teachers took the opportunity to learn from the researcher. This collaboration helped the English teachers recognize mutual support and empowerment through the development of teamwork. This awareness of collaboration resulted from teachers' initiatives to engage with the project from the outset.

In sum, the English teachers were enthusiastic about locally-based VE materials development as an avenue of their professional learning and development through partnership, collaboration, experience and knowledge sharing, commitment, and reflection (Ezell, Klein, & Lee, 2010). By working as a team with other teachers, the students, and the researcher, the teachers engaged with different kinds of knowledge, practices, and experience. They viewed the project as a needs-based form of SBPD because the project involved school community members whose goals were shared. SBPD provided the teachers the space for enhancing their pedagogical content expertise and language expertise. SBPD typifies a collaborative learning community and a community of practice (Wenger, 1998). The school community members and the researcher became members of a language materials development group held together by common pursuit of a shared learning experience.

7.2 Teacher Knowledge and Beliefs about VE Materials Development

Teacher knowledge and beliefs refer to what teachers know, understand, believe and do, accumulated through their experience as students, pre-service teachers, and in-service teachers. In the study, the English teachers' knowledge and beliefs about VE materials were described in Chapter 4. This then served as the basis for the design and use of VE materials. The findings showed that the English teachers did not have sufficient knowledge, understanding, or experience with VE materials development. For this reason, they received collegial training and mentorship in VE materials development, along with theories and concepts in SFL, content based instruction, and text based instruction. Teacher knowledge

and understanding were important components of the language materials development. Here it is important to report on the changes the English teachers made in their knowledge and beliefs in VE materials development. These changes came from the active involvement of the teachers in the design and use of VE materials development.

The English teachers found the design of VE materials rewarding. They learned from engaging in a series of actions, including needs analysis, the adoption of relevant theories and concepts to materials design, the identification of core competencies, goal formulation, topic identification, text navigation and selection, text adaptation (deletion, addition, and change), materials writing, and materials use. One of the teachers (JEK) wrote:

> We had several meetings **to discuss** the design of materials. We had to **look at** school curriculum, students' needs, teachers' needs, textbooks, and other materials, which supported students' learning. Though **time-consuming**, this process **enabled** us to design the materials **that met students' expectations**. So far, we framed the materials based on our expectations and institutional curriculum. We **never listened to** students' voices.

This teacher believed that language materials development requires a dialogue between teachers and students. He also emphasized the close analysis of relevant curriculum documents as well as students' needs so that the materials could meet the students' needs. The participant concludes that accommodating students' voices is important in the design of ELT materials. ANI (another teacher participant) added:

> So far, I have written materials, but I **did not base** this materials writing on particular theory. I did this based on what I believed useful. Initially, I thought that theory was unimportant. I needed **something more practical**. After participating in this project, I recognized **the importance of theory**, which underpinned the design of materials. **Both theory and practice** should go hand in hand. Theory provides **a guide** to this design, and practice **tells** if the theory works.

This participant acknowledges that even though she has been involved in materials writing, this writing is not based on theory because she used to think that theory had nothing to do with practice. Now, she recognizes the importance of both theory and practice. Another teacher (WID) commented that "to design vocational English materials, we needed to understand vocational topics that students learn. Collaborating with vocational teachers helps identify these topics and also select texts. Through this collaboration, I learned a lot from the vocational teachers." WID points out that topics or themes are a central component

of materials design. She also stressed the role of vocational teachers as collaborators in identifying vocational topics and selecting vocational texts.

Another teacher, KES, explained that "Now I realized that we had to understand **vocational content**. Like general English, if we teach conversational English, we need to know conversational topics in our materials." This teacher participant pinpoints the integration of content and language. Another emerging finding from reflective journals shows that before participating in this project, she had a compartmentalized understanding of language and content. Moreover, the English teachers argued that themes and authentic texts play central roles in knowledge building and language development. WID wrote:

> I observed that **authentic texts** are **always challenging**. Our students could learn the **actual use of vocabulary and grammar**. For example, when the students talked about room reservation from hotel websites, they learned vocabulary, which is **important to** get room booking done. They also **experienced** how to book a room online. I argued that learning vocational English should **move beyond** learning a list of vocational vocabulary and memorization of grammar.

WID values the use of authentic texts in ELT materials. She also stresses that vocabulary and grammar are always integrated. These resources are tools for getting things done (for example, online hotel room booking). This comment confirms the view that language resources mediate social practice. Other teachers also recognized that language is integral to content. Two English teachers provided further comments:

> Language is **a tool for** communicating content. Because the students learned vocational content, they not only **developed** their knowledge, but also **developed** their language. When I observed the students presented accounting topics, I saw how particular vocabulary **builds on** certain accounting concepts. I mean vocabulary **represents** language, and concepts represent content. I also observed that the students **learned** a lot from text based learning activities (ANI)

> After participating in this project, I argued that learning English through texts was **meaningful** because the texts **always contain** information or knowledge and language. Language **shapes** the construction of information or knowledge. So, **without language**, we cannot talk about knowledge. Without knowledge, there is no language in action. The integration of language and content into texts made the learning of English useful (JEK)

In summary, after participating in the school-based VE materials development project, the English teachers re-constructed their knowledge and beliefs in VE materials development in terms of design, approach, topics, texts, and activities. They developed their knowledge of pedagogy in VE materials development through sustained practice spanning 13 months. In

the literature of teacher professional learning, Richardson (1996) concluded that sources of teachers' beliefs about pedagogical content include their personal experience as learners, their experience with school and instruction, and their experience with formal knowledge both subject (content) and pedagogical. The data emerging from an analysis of teachers' knowledge and beliefs in VE materials development confirm the importance of both knowledge and informed understanding of language materials development as a whole.

7.3 VE Materials Development as Pedagogical Innovation

The English teachers agreed that SFL-informed VE materials development was viewed as pedagogical innovation in terms of approach, topics, texts, and activities. The English teachers wrote:

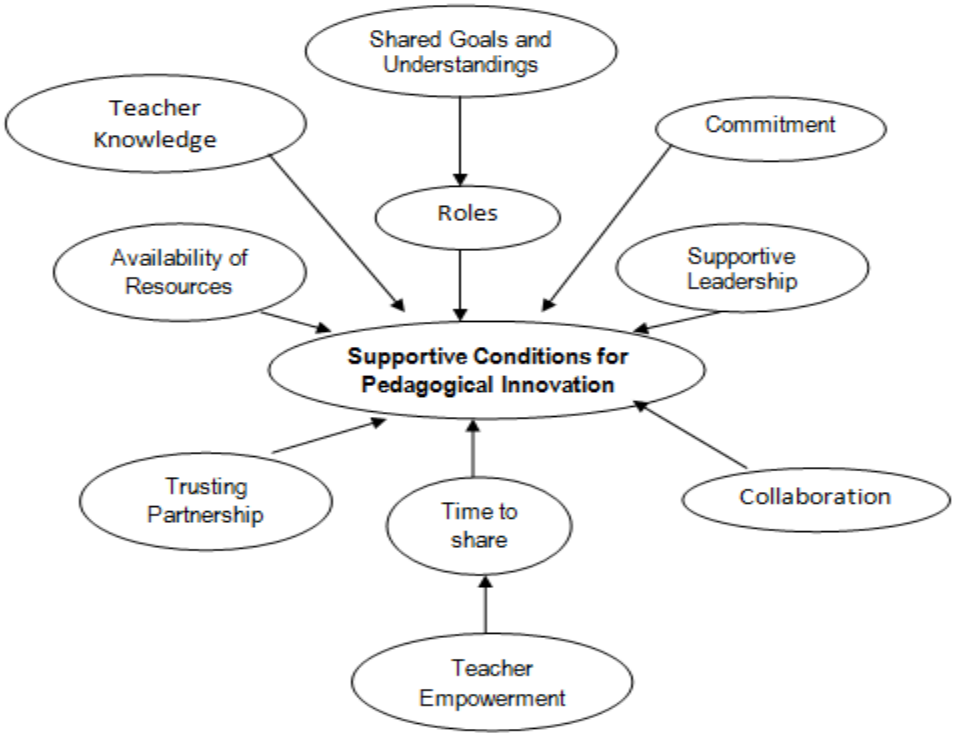
> Initially, I thought that CLT and CTL were the best approaches to English instruction because they addressed context and communication. Now, I **gained new understanding** that SFL is **more comprehensive** because it **touches upon** text, language, context, meaning, choice, and impact. SFL could be applied to all language skills and language components, which lead to **meaning making**. We created learning activities, which were more engaging and meaningful (KES).
>
> The design and use of vocational materials was **a new program** in the school. We used textbooks called English for Vocational High Schools, but these textbooks **do not reflect** vocational English. The topics are **too general**, and lesson units are presented based on **speech functions** and **prescribed language components**. The textbooks directed us as teachers towards preparing our students for school and national **examinations** (JEK).
>
> Texts and activities that the students did inside and outside classrooms were **beyond** textbooks. Through texts, the students **explored** different dimensions of knowledge I mean concepts, language resources, and genres. Although at the beginning, the students had difficulty, for me, that is normal because they learned **something new**. The students really **engaged** in learning to mean and learning to learn (WID)

The teachers' responses to SFL-informed language materials development stress the value of theoretically-informed language materials development. The teachers pinpointed that meaningful learning activities provided the students with new experiences. Furthermore, they viewed the VE materials development as an innovative enterprise because the students deployed a variety of digital or online resources. The students engaged with these resources, such as the use of corpora, online dictionaries, and digital translators. They commented that they learned from the researcher and the students about the use of technological tools and resources. These could provide students with more opportunities to

learn English (e.g., the use of the British National Corpus for vocabulary learning in context) and also could enrich their teaching resources (the use of authentic texts—hotel webpages). These comments show that the teachers acknowledge the importance of technological content knowledge (how to select and use appropriate technological tools and resources) and technological and pedagogical knowledge (how to integrate such tools and resources into ELT materials). This knowledge about technology in pedagogy plays a crucial role in VE language materials development and pedagogical practices in general (see Liu & Kleinsasser, 2015).

Based on focus group discussions, six English teachers agreed that the pedagogical innovations at a school level should be sustained upon the completion of the project. These pedagogical innovations include SFL-based language materials development, SFL-informed content based language instruction, and SFL-inspired text based language instruction. Furthermore, when asked about what factors facilitated useful school-level pedagogical innovation, they argued that there were a number of supportive conditions for such innovation. These supportive conditions for optimal VE materials development as school-level pedagogical innovation should be taken into account. These conditions can be represented diagrammatically as an inextricably intertwined and connected web, as in the following figure.

Figure 7.1 *Necessary Conditions for Invigorating Language Materials Development as Pedagogical Innovation*



1. Shared goals and understandings: The teachers reported that goals were shared so that each of the individual school community members could understand how much they valued such goals and talk about ways to accomplish goals.
2. Availability of resources: The English teachers could access vocational textbooks, professional books (SFL books), and technological tools (Laptop, the Internet, and LCD projectors) because these resources were a driver of successful pedagogical innovation.
3. Teacher knowledge: They acknowledged that they had to refine their knowledge and keep themselves up to date with theories and concepts, relevant to their pedagogical practices, such as designing language materials based on SFL.
4. Supportive leadership: The school administrators facilitated collaborative language materials development, which benefited students and allowed the teachers to engage in vibrant professional development in the school.
5. Roles: To make pedagogical innovation invigorating, the teachers believed that they played differing roles, such as curriculum makers and developers, materials designers and developers, collaborators, practitioners, negotiators, and researchers. These roles fully represent professional teachers who always explore and innovate their teaching practices.
6. Commitment: The teachers argued that they invested time, energy, and effort into pedagogical innovation. They put considerable effort into pedagogical innovations because they knew that this innovation was not merely part of the school agenda but also committed effort to meet students' needs.
7. Collaboration: The English teachers argued that involving different parties, such as other teachers, school administrators, students, and parents was important in providing input for pedagogical innovation because they are all school community members and stakeholders who could share the same vision and missions.
8. Trusting partnership: The English teachers believe that this partnership was built on trust and willingness to partner up with the researcher and other school community members who contributed to this pedagogical innovation. They put trust in each other in order to work as a team. They respected each other's resources and expertise.
9. Teacher empowerment: The teachers commented that they reaped benefits from training and mentorship. They felt empowered when given the opportunity to learn from more experienced educators or other teachers.

10. Time to share: The English teachers reported that they discussed, negotiated, and shared their experience, expertise, and resources, so that this innovation benefitted the school and the school community members. They supported each other by assuming responsibilities and by listening to each other's concerns. They put aside time for professional dialogue.

Taken together, this chapter has presented the findings of how the English teacher participants changed their knowledge and beliefs in language materials development locally situated in school along with the support of the school and the researcher expertise. It also provides an account of how this change facilitated teacher engagement in language materials renewal. Helping the English teachers understand the application of new theory (SFL) and concepts (content based instruction and text based instruction) through action is a catalyst for change in teacher knowledge and understanding of the language materials renewal. With this in mind, school-based professional development should be sustained.

CHAPTER 8
Discussion and Conclusions

The overarching aim of the study was to document the design and use of Vocational English (VE) materials in the Indonesian secondary vocational education sector where the school adopted a school-based curriculum. The study was guided by the following questions:

1. What were the conditions of English language teaching in the Indonesian secondary vocational high school context from policy and pedagogical curriculum perspectives?
2. What factors influenced participatory language materials development?
3. How did students work with the materials?
4. What changes were observed in English teachers' knowledge and practice in the design and use of the materials through a participatory action research (PAR) project?

This chapter summarizes and discusses the findings of the study drawing on these questions. The findings of the study provide fresh insights into how the materials were designed and used from a social semiotic perspective. This chapter also addresses the limitations of the study along with suggested directions for future studies.

8.1 Summaries of the Findings and Discussion

The first question aimed to paint a picture of language policy and classroom practices situated in the Indonesian vocational high school. To examine these ELT conditions from macro and micro perspectives, I conducted policy and curriculum document analyses along with non-participant observations, focus groups, and interviews. It was found that from a policy maker (macro) perspective, in a school-based curriculum (SBC), teachers had full autonomy to create their own classroom curriculum and materials. In particular, English language curricula were supposed to be tailored to students' vocational specializations. In the vocational secondary school under study, students were streamed into different specializations, such as accounting, hotel management and hospitality, and computer engineering based on their vocational interest. Additionally, the document analyses demonstrated that the national curriculum guidelines encouraged the teachers to exercise their autonomy to innovate and explore different pedagogical curriculum practices, including language materials development (The National Education System Act of 2003). Framed in SBC, teachers are supposed to spend more time and effort developing their materials than

they do with the textbooks (Paik, 2015). This suggested that teachers could exercise their role agency as classroom policy makers, curriculum makers, language materials developers, classroom innovators, and assessors. The analyses of the national language policy and curriculum documents opened up the potential for school based-language materials development, while taking into account possible constraints, including external (institutional policies and curricular standards), internal (teacher knowledge and beliefs), local needs (students' needs), and environmental constraints (schools and classrooms).

The first question was also designed to examine the actual language classroom practices through the analyses of textbooks and classroom observations. These analyses showed that the nature of ELT in the school under study was teacher-centered and knowledge transmission-based, in which students carried out decontextualized exercises (Appendix E). The textbooks, adopted here as external experts, determined what the teachers had to teach. This instructional model reflects the assumption that learning is best achieved through rehearsing preconceived content (rote learning). The textbooks were seen as the official curriculum, which "dictates objectives, content, pedagogy and evaluation" (Shawer, 2010b, p. 174). This dominant role of textbooks contributes to a curriculum transmission model, providing ready-made decisions about course goals, content, pedagogy, and assessment. Of the six English teachers in this study, two reported that they followed the textbooks in order to prepare their students for school and national examinations, and they believed that such teacher-centered instruction saved time and energy. These same findings were also reported in studies conducted by Paik (2015), Wang (2008), and Zhang and Liu (2014). These studies reported that textbook-based instruction hindered the teachers from tailoring their pedagogical practices to students' needs. In other words, what the teachers did in their classrooms was incongruent with their students' needs for development of their general English (GE) and vocational English (VE). The main reason for this incongruence is that the teachers were unfamiliar with the design and use of VE materials. The teachers relied upon the textbooks, which contained non-authentic and decontextualized texts and activities (see Chapter 4: Conceptualization of ELT from a Textbook Writers' Perspective). The textbook writers influenced teachers' knowledge and beliefs about the nature of ELT, which was high stakes examination-centered. In addition, the English teachers believed that the vocational teachers were responsible for the design and use of vocational English (VE). This personal belief was perpetuated because language and vocational teachers had not worked together in development of teaching resources

relevant to specific vocational subjects before the present project started. To understand meaningful materials development, the English teachers needed to have knowledge and understanding of materials development processes oriented towards vocational subjects. Previous research (Zhang & Liu, 2014) shows that teacher knowledge and beliefs are contributing factors in language curriculum renewal, including language materials development. Both knowledge and beliefs also contribute to teacher resistance to new pedagogical practices. Thus, the context analysis showed that the national language policy and curriculum guidelines, school culture, change in teacher knowledge and understanding, students' needs, and resources are key factors in fruitful language materials development.

To address the second question, Chapter 5 reports the findings of how the English teachers, the vocational teachers, the students, and the researcher as a facilitator designed the language materials collaboratively. This materials design also involved dialogue between the teachers and the students, the school administrators and the teachers, and the school community members and the researcher. Important findings from this design process are that the school showed supportive leadership. At a meso level, the role of the school is critical in facilitating pedagogical curriculum development. Good leadership and collaboration have positive impact on the successful implementation of pedagogical change at a school level, also reported by Adamson and Tong (2008). The findings demonstrated that the communal contribution to the materials development invigorated the process. The school administrators as agents of meso-level policy making worked closely with the teachers as actors in the pedagogical curriculum enactment. The support of the school administrators for school-based materials development entrusted the teachers to play a role as agents of pedagogical change.

The study concludes that the management of change plays a crucial role in creating the conditions for implementing materials development as pedagogical innovation. In addition to school leadership and support, collegial training and sustained mentorship enabled the English teachers to be introduced to learn SFL theory and new concepts (content based instruction and text based instruction), which informed the design and use of the materials. Opportunities for practice are facilitative of pedagogical change and innovation. This does not necessarily mean that textbooks are not important, but they need to be used critically; other materials are also required alongside the textbooks. Furthermore, solid collaboration between the teachers and the researcher through professional dialogue as reported in

Chapter 7 facilitated participatory language materials development. Interdisciplinary or cross-curricular collaboration between English teachers and content teachers also mediated the creation of meaningful language materials. This was also reported in other studies by Kong (2014), Lo (2015), and Martin-Beltran and Peercy (2014). The present study not only extends the current scholarship of interdisciplinary collaboration in language materials development but also demonstrates teacher-researcher collaboration in understanding the application of SFL through participatory action learning.

The third question was intended to investigate the process of the enacted materials jointly constructed by the teachers and the students. Chapter 6 presents the findings relating to how the teachers and the students engaged with various materials, texts and activities. It also paints a picture of learners' experiences and actions along with their interpretations of these experiences inside and outside the classroom. In this study, the thrust of the materials enactment is how the students learned to make meanings through varied texts and activities. The students worked on the texts and the activities beyond knowledge of the language (grammar and vocabulary) and skills in using the language (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). They learned both the knowledge of the language and the skills learned in an integrated way. They used the knowledge of the language to build vocational knowledge and perform language skills. Thus, the emphasis is placed on competence in language use. In the area of ELT methodology, methods, which have been widely used all over the world including Indonesia, are Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT) (see Butler, 2011) because both methods emphasize language use. In this study, ELT is conceptualized beyond CLT and TBLT. SFL, a language-based theory of learning (Halliday, 1993) broadens the conceptualization of ELT in terms of the use of language in context where meaning making activities are supported by the use of lexico-grammatical resources and language learning is always integrated with content learning. In addition, there is the shift from knowledge transmission to a social semiotic approach, underpinning the activities with which the students engaged. These activities include building and developing content (vocational) vocabulary; building and developing vocational knowledge; navigating authentic digital texts; learning to mean through dialogic reading; learning to write and writing to mean vocationally; and exploring lexico-grammatical resources, genres, evaluative language, and the use of digital dictionaries, corpora and translators as semiotic tools. These activities engaged the students in meaning making in context.

Drawing on the findings and SFL-informed literature, I generated meaning making models, such as dialogic reading, logico-semantically oriented vocabulary building, collaborative oral presentation, and functional meta-language analysis. Though the students encountered difficulties working on these activities in the beginning, they found the activities useful. These meaning making activities engaged the students in vocation-specific social practices, building and developing knowledge, and text-based discussions. The students found meaning making oriented activities rewarding in terms of enhancing knowledge building and their awareness of how language works in texts as well as developing their English ability. They commented that they learned English as a tool for communication, knowledge building, and social participation. Thus, Chapter 6 provides an empirical and practical account of content based language learning integrated with text based language learning. It also provides a practical contribution to the work of Peter Mickan's (2013a) language curriculum design and socialization. It also extends the scholarship of SFL-informed language learning and instruction (Halliday, 1993; Huang & Morgan, 2003; Schleppegrell, 2004).

As reported in Chapter 7, the last question of the study aimed to document change in teacher knowledge and beliefs about language materials development and pedagogical practices. The role and actions of teachers along with their personal and professional beliefs and values exert influence on pedagogical curriculum implementation. This suggests that teachers have the capacity to exercise curricular and pedagogical knowledge along with preparation, experience, and commitment. To do this, teachers need to have strong subject matter knowledge (vocational English) and develop pedagogical content knowledge (how to teach English). From the teacher perspective, this study demonstrates an instance of positive teacher agency; essentially the capacity to act on pedagogical curriculum practices. The teachers viewed language materials development as a platform for engaging in high-quality professional development. Chapter 7 describes how the active engagement of the teachers fosters change in their beliefs and practices that are closely connected to classroom-level materials development. The change is viewed as a learning process (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002). Several studies on teacher learning or professional development have shown the positive impact of engaging in-service teachers in collaborative inquiry built on their pedagogical routines (see Banegas, 2011; Hung & Yeh, 2013). The teachers felt empowered to take on the role of teacher researchers who put SFL theory into practice as they engaged in the construction of theory of practice. This

challenges the traditional roles of teachers “as technician, consumer, receiver, transmitter, and implementer of other people’s knowledge’’ (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999, p.16). In addition, the teachers engaged in the teaching scholarship informed by SFL theory. They found that the theory was applicable and worked in helping the students understand how language works in texts. The teachers deployed functional meta-language analysis as a tool for meaning making with texts. This suggests that SFL theory builds on pedagogical language knowledge (Bunch, 2013; Galguera, 2011). This knowledge is defined as understanding of how language operates within disciplinary/vocational knowledge and the capacity to put this understanding into practice. The teachers needed to have this knowledge to prepare them for teaching English across vocation or discipline because “language is a dynamic system of linguistic choices” (Gebhard & Willett, 2008, p. 43). With this in mind, there is need for explicit teaching of language through functional meta-language analysis (Achugar, Schleppegrell, & Oteíza, 2007). The implication of the findings is that pedagogical language knowledge needs to be included in teacher training and education.

Taken together, this study provides empirical evidence of how the school administrators, the teachers, and the students supported and engaged in the design and use of VE materials informed by social semiotic theory. Previous studies (e.g., Adamson & Tong, 2008; Tong, 2010; Wang & Zhang, 2014; Yuan & Lee, 2015) show that good school leadership, teacher understanding of curricular change, and solid teacher collaboration with other teachers and students are facilitative of pedagogical innovation, including language materials development. The findings of this study underline two important elements: the contributions of SFL theory to language materials development and participatory language materials development as curricular innovation through PAR.

8.2 The Contribution of SFL Theory to Language Materials Development

The study demonstrates how SFL theory contributes pedagogically to language materials development. First, the nature of language and language learning is conceptualized as meaning making and socialization. Language learning will be meaningful if students engage with texts and learn how to make sense of the texts (Mickan, 2013a). Language learning is a socialization process, in which students develop their language ability as they work with myriad texts and through different modes of learning: listening, speaking, reading, and

writing. This study also yields empirical evidence of how SFL theory informs the design of language materials, which integrate both content and language. There is the interlocking relationship between content and language, which is essential in ESP programs. The integration of content and language is viewed as a continuum because both are mutually constructed in texts. Content is mediated by language, and language depicts how content is presented in texts. Particularly in Vocational English (VE), topics or themes shape vocational content expressed in language. This suggests that students have the opportunity to learn the language through which the content 'means.' Making explicit the language of the vocation and how to use it to make meaning are crucial components of teaching multilingual students in the Indonesian context. It is therefore essential that teachers move beyond focusing on language as an isolated entity, but understand and use language as a resource for meaning making in context.

Drawing on the teachers' and students' use of VE materials, language is conceptualized as a tool for expressing and constructing vocational knowledge as content orally, in written form, and visually. This stresses the importance of learning content and language simultaneously to make meaning (Hodgson-Drysdale, 2014). SFL theory emphasizes the integration of language skills, such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing, in which lexico-grammar is a resource for mediating how the students perform such language skills. The teaching of language skills has a lot to do with meaning making potential. The use of dictionaries, corpora, and translators is part of semiotic mediation and enables students to engage with texts by making sense of these texts. The integration of language skills along with language-enriched meaning making tools provides students with multi-semiotic experience in language learning.

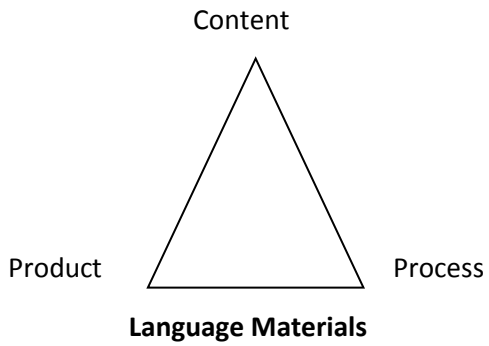
Furthermore, using the resources of SFL for meta-language analysis helps students enhance their awareness of how language works in texts. Texts are seen as units of analysis. Texts are a resource for learning and a platform for language in use. The students learn vocational knowledge, language (lexico-grammar), and how language is used to evaluate, and genres through texts. In ESP materials development, students learn beyond the rote learning of specialist vocabulary. The teaching of grammar should be integral to the teaching of vocabulary. Language in vocation involves not only new vocabulary or technical language, but also different ways of using language to make meaning (see Fang & Schleppegrell, 2008). SFL-informed language analysis also assists students to use

language beyond the constraints of accuracy and fluency but based on meaning, choice, impact, and context. The study shows how instructional goals can be formulated based on the applicatsion of SFL theory. For example, in the Indonesian context, the Bloom's Taxonomy (Mambu, 2009; Sunggingwati & Nguyen, 2013) with its cognitive psychological orientation, has gained popularity in orienting educational goals. Though many textbooks claim that they adopt a genre-based approach, they seem to formulate instructional goals based on Bloom's taxonomy. There is an inconsistency between theory and practice. In the vocational education context, the design of speaking, reading, writing, and lexico-grammatical tasks needs to be tailored to the principles of learning to learn and learning to mean vocationally. To respond to this need, an SFL approach is applicable to ESP materials development and contributes to the reconceptualization of ESP materials development in particular and ESP instruction in general.

8.3 Participatory Language Materials Development as Curricular Innovation through PAR

Language materials are seen as a critical issue in the literature on quality of ELT, considered as content, as process, and as product. As content, language materials have to do with what teachers teach and what students learn. They provide students with the resources for learning language. As process, teachers use language materials to engage students with texts and activities in authentic social contexts. As product, language materials are instructional guides or artifacts, which shape what and how the teachers teach and the students learn. Throughout this study, the teachers and the students experience language materials as content, as process, and as product represented in Figure 8.1.

Figure 8.1 *Roles of Materials: Content, Process, and Product*



Through PAR, the materials development as part of curriculum enactment is participatory because it involves all school community members in the materials design process. The involvement of the school administrators demonstrates school leadership and entrusts teachers as agents of change to proceed with pedagogical innovation. The participation of English teachers and vocational teachers builds a teacher design team. Additionally, the involvement of students in materials development recognizes their capacity to make decisions about what to learn. This closes a glaring gap between instruction and learning. In this study, both instruction and learning are mutually complementary because both teachers and students engage in explicit, ongoing negotiations regarding course content (Wette, 2011a, 2011b). In other words, the success of VE materials development rests on the shoulders of teachers and students because they experience or engage with the materials in classrooms as learning environments.

From a teacher perspective, the teachers feel that their knowledge about new ideas and their involvement from the early stages of materials design foster ownership of the school-based materials development project, in which they fulfill the designer role. Inviting vocational teachers to collaborate as a team during the design process leads to participatory language materials development because collaboration creates opportunities to exchange experiences and expertise. No teacher-student resistance took place in the materials development. Arguably, the teachers were willing to change how to design and use the materials because this enterprise caters to their professional learning needs as well as the students' needs. The teachers do not feel wary of re-constructing their well-established professional and instructional patterns because they have sufficient knowledge or skills required to enact the change successfully. Their motivation to engage with the materials development is heightened by school endorsement. The school administrators allowed both the teachers and the students to work on what they feel as a need. School leadership plays a role in facilitating and supporting the materials development. It also contributes to the reduction of teacher resistance to change. This leadership also increases teacher autonomy—the capacity to make an informed decision and to act professionally. The teachers also enable students to exercise their agency through various activities by modeling, demonstrating, and mentoring. Both have goals and clear vision about the importance of the materials and make decisions in relation to their goals for the school, teacher learning, and student learning. Through PAR, both teachers and students are

involved in negotiated language materials development. Thus, PAR serves as a platform for participatory language materials development.

8.4 Implications of the Findings for ESP Materials Development

The findings emerging from this ESP materials development process provide some implications for future ESP materials design. Firstly, there is a need for ESP teachers to understand how language functions to build meaning in content or vocational areas in order to help students to use vocation-specific language to make meaning. Secondly, when helping students build their ESP vocabulary, teachers need to realize that this vocabulary is not merely technical words, but also it represents concepts in vocational areas. This suggests that vocabulary is seen as a linguistic resource integral to a grammar resource called lexico-grammar, which serves as a mediating tool for understanding and constructing vocational knowledge derived from with social practices and the texts of social practices. Thirdly, knowledge building in context is essential in the teaching of ESP. In order to assist students with this knowledge building, students are afforded the opportunity to experience and engage with a multitude of vocational texts so that they can learn or become critically aware of how language works in different texts.

Further, drawing on teachers' understandings of using an SFL analysis, text analysis can be incorporated into teacher training teaching them how to analyze texts from a functional semantic or SFL approach. This training would help the teachers gain sufficient knowledge about language and of tools for analyzing the language. This also would enable them to understand the demands of vocational English, for example, in order to support their students' language development and to critically use the texts. Language learning in general and vocational English learning in particular is a process of semiotic mediation, in which language mediates the representation, orientation, and organization of knowledge. With this in mind, ESP teachers should recognize that language learning moves beyond language acquisition, and see this learning as language development, which is "*an expansion of the meaning making resources*" (Achugar, Schleppegrell, & Oteíza, 2007, p. 12). Language learners' linguistic resources in other languages should be viewed tools to enable semiotic mediation between their social worlds and English. When teaching grammar in the ESP context, students have the opportunity to engage with a close but selective analysis of texts so that students learn about the ways language is used in their vocation and also about the values embedded in these linguistic choices. This suggests that teachers perceive language

not as a stand-alone or discrete skill but as integral to content. Teacher modeling and demonstration through joint deconstruction and construction of text are the ways of familiarizing students with learning how to mean.

8.5 Limitations of the Present Study and Directions for Future Studies

Even though the present study offers findings in relation to language materials development, it is not without limitations. To begin with, when the students worked outside the classroom, they were asked to write reflective diaries, which depicted what they learned and how this learning took place. The students did not share their diaries optimally. It would be useful if they could share their diaries through blogging or Facebook and post their reflections on these social networking media so that they could learn from each other. Additionally, when the students delivered oral presentations, the teachers recorded their presentation performances. The students did not have opportunities to look at their videos. In future studies, students should have the opportunity to reflect on their speaking videos to allow them to self-assess their own performance. During the design of the language materials, all the discussions were recorded using field notes and reflective journals. Important issues may have gone unnoticed. For this reason, the use of audio or video digital recording is suggested. This brings to the surface the ethical issue of whether participants feel comfortable with the presence of recording technologies. This would require negotiation between the participants and the researcher, which itself is related to the level of researcher involvement in the fieldwork.

To extend the scholarship of the study, in other ESP contexts, more future ethnographic case studies and action research could investigate:

1. How reflective tools, such as journals, diaries, and digital recordings assist students to self-asses their own learning and see their language development longitudinally.
2. In what ways teachers and students use materials in the classroom and reflect on their experience with the materials on a daily basis.
3. The design and use of other ESP materials informed by SFL.
4. The impact of SFL-informed materials on students' language awareness and development.
5. SFL-informed formal assessment of students' language development as a result of their engagement in the use of locally designed language materials.

6. The use of PAR as a methodological tool for transforming language-based theory of learning or SFL into pedagogical practices, such as content based instruction and text based instruction.

Taken together, the present study has documented unique experiences of the participants. Methodologically speaking, it demonstrates how PAR engages both the participants and the researchers in making sense of their experiences. Theoretically, the application of SFL to language materials development contributes to what learning means from a social semiotic perspective. Pedagogically, this application stresses the importance of content based language instruction and text based instruction in ESP programs. Therefore, this study opens up the possibilities of adopting SFL-informed content based instruction and text based instruction in other ESP contexts in Indonesia and beyond.

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Appendix A: Ethics Approval

THE UNIVERSITY of ADELAIDE

RESEARCH BRANCH
RESEARCH ETHICS AND COMPLIANCE UNIT

BEVERLEY DOBBS
EXECUTIVE OFFICER
LOW RISK HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW GROUP (FACULTY OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES AND FACULTY OF THE PROFESSIONS)
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CRICOS Provider Number 00123M

3 April 2012

Dr P Mickan
Discipline of Linguistics

Dear Dr Mickan

ETHICS APPROVAL No: **HP-2012-006**
PROJECT TITLE: **Developing English materials for content and language integrated pedagogy: a blended principled framework**

I write to advise you that the Low Risk Human Research Ethics Review Group (Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences and Faculty of the Professions) has approved the above project. Please refer to the following approval sheet for further details and conditions that may apply to this approval.

Ethics approval is granted for a period of three years subject to satisfactory annual progress reporting. The ethics expiry date for this project is **31 March 2015**. Ethics approval may be extended subject to submission of a satisfactory ethics renewal report prior to the project approval expiry date.

Participants in the study are to be given a copy of the Information Sheet and the signed Consent Form to retain. Please note that any changes to the project which might affect its continued ethical acceptability will invalidate the project's approval and an amended protocol must be submitted to the committee for approval.

It is also a condition of approval that you **immediately report** anything which might warrant review of ethical approval including:

- serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants
- proposed changes in the protocol; and
- unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project.

It is also a condition of approval that you advise in writing, giving reasons, if the project is discontinued before the expected date of completion.

A reporting form titled *Project Status Report* is to be used when reporting annual progress, project completion and ethics renewal and can be downloaded at http://www.adelaide.edu.au/ethics/human/guidelines/reporting.

Yours sincerely

ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR PAUL BABIE
Convenor
Low Risk Human Research Ethics Review Group (Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences and Faculty of the Professions)

Ethics Approval: Continued

THE UNIVERSITY of ADELAIDE

RESEARCH BRANCH
RESEARCH ETHICS AND COMPLIANCE UNIT

BEVERLEY DODDS
EXECUTIVE OFFICER,
LOW RISK HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW GROUP (FACULTY OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES AND FACULTY OF THE PROFESSIONS)
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Applicant: Dr P Mickan

School: Discipline of Linguistics

Application/RM No: 13209

Project Title: **Developing English materials for content and language integrated pedagogy: a blended principled framework**

Low Risk Human Research Ethics Review Group (Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences and Faculty of the Professions)

ETHICS APPROVAL No: HP-2012-006

APPROVED for the period until: 31 March 2015

This study is to be conducted by Mr Handoyo Puji Widodo, PhD Candidate

ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR PAUL BABIE
Convenor
Low Risk Human Research Ethics Review Group (Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences and Faculty of the Professions)

Appendix B: Sample Consent Form

1. I have read the attached Information Sheet and agree to take part in the following research project:

Title:	Developing English Materials for Content and Language Integrated Pedagogy: A Blended Principled Framework
Ethics Approval Number:	**HP-2012-006**

2. I have had the project, so far as it affects me, fully explained to my satisfaction by the research worker. My consent is given freely.

3. Although I understand the purpose of the research project, it has also been explained that involvement may be of any benefit to me.

4. I have been informed that, while information gained during the study may be published, I will not be identified and my personal results will not be divulged.

5. I understand that I am free to withdraw from the project at any time.

6. I agree to the interview being audio recorded. Yes ☐ No ☐

7. I am aware that I should keep a copy of this Consent Form, when completed, and the attached Information Sheet.

Participant to complete:

Name: _____Signature:_____Date:_____

Researcher/Witness to complete:

I have described the nature of the research to_____

(print name of participant)

and in my opinion she/he understood the explanation.

Signature: _____Position:_____ Date: _____

Appendix C: Sample Participant Information Sheet

You are invited to participate in this research project as a research participant. The following information is provided in order to help you make an informed decision whether to participate in the research project.

Research Project

Developing English Materials for Content and Language Integrated Pedagogy: A Blended Principled Framework

Research Project Approval

This project has been approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC), University of Adelaide, Australia.

Research Project Duration

Data Collection: 23 April 2012 – 20 April 2013

Dissertation Completion: 21 April 2013 – 29 November 2014

Aims and Benefits of the Research Study

The aims of the study are to explore how English materials for Content and Language Integrated Pedagogy (CLIP) are developed at a micro level. Specifically, the study examines the conditions and needs of your students for learning English for CLIP and to develop a framework for these English materials. The study will also investigate your experiences of developing and using such materials and your students' experience of learning such materials. The benefits of the study are to develop English materials whose goals are to help your students acquire English as the ability to grasp and communicate vocational content and other information (e.g., accounting) written in English and to train you how to develop English materials using a blended principled framework. This framework will be explained in detail in the needs analysis session.

Nature of Participation

Your participation in this research project is completely voluntary to respect your autonomy. You are free to decide not to participate in this research project or to withdraw at any time without adversely affecting your relationship with me or your personal reputation. If you may withdraw at any time during the fieldwork, please notify me ahead. Upon your request to withdraw, all information supplied by you or on your personal identity will be completely removed or deleted.

Negotiated Participation

Because your involvement in this research project is voluntary, I will ask you to read and grasp a written informed consent form (attached). Once you have agreed to participate and signed the consent form, I will collect a copy of your written form, and give you a copy of the completed form.

Phases of Research Projects

This research project will involve four main activities, such as: (1) students' needs analysis, (2) English materials design, (3) English materials trials, and (4) materials evaluation and revision. I will provide you with detailed research timetables.

Levels of Involvement/Role

At the needs analysis stage, I will observe your class and video record in-class interactions with your consent. In this respect, I will play a role as a participant observer without any obtrusiveness. Please bear in mind that I will not evaluate your teaching performance, but keen on looking at how your students and you as well as your students and their peers interact with one another in the classroom. Also, after your class is over, I may ask you some questions regarding what I have observed. In addition, I will need to ask you for syllabi, lesson plans, sample students' work copies, and any teaching materials that you have to enrich needs analysis data. In the second phase, I will explain you a blended principled framework for developing English materials before you and I jointly design such materials. We will play roles as co-designers and partners; there is no rigid practitioner-researcher relationship. We are learning from each other as we go through the process of designing English materials. In this materials design, we will involve vocational subject teachers who are well versed in identifying content information. At the third stage, you will be asked to trial our developed materials, and I will observe and vide record your class to know how the materials shape classroom interactions, students learn the materials, and you implement the materials in the classroom. Please bear in mind that I will not asses your teaching performance, but examine classroom interactions as a whole. In the final phase, I will have a focus group interview session with you to know what experiences you construct or gain from designing and implementing English materials using a blended principled framework.

Data Confidentiality and Anonymity

All empirical data will be kept confidential and remain anonymous. Nobody except my supervisors and me will have access to the data. Your identity will also not be disclosed at any time. The data will be accessed by the appointed debriefer or critical peer without disclosing your identity. Please also be advised of the limitation that where the sample size is very small, it may be impossible to guarantee anonymity/confidentiality of your identity, but data confidentiality and anonymity are of top priority in compliance with moral and ethical principles for doing research with human participants.

Data Storage and Retrieval

All empirical data provided by you will be placed in a secure location within the school and university. All the electronic data will be stored on password locked computers (both laptop and desktop) so that access to the data is denied to anyone except my supervisors and me. All the empirical data will also be stored in a password locked external disk and drop box in case laptop and desktop are out of order. If the data are retrieved, these data are used for research data analysis purposes. All the data will be kept for 5-7 years in case there is any data clarification, or other researchers would like to use the data. In the case of the latter, I will inform you whether you give permission to access the data.

Data Use and Dissemination

All the empirical data from you will be used for the completion of my dissertation. If I make use of the data partly for empirical research dissemination through journal article publications, your identity remains unknown. Also, upon your request, I will provide you with all the data in case you may use the data for teaching purposes.

Risks

There will be no any risks for participating in this project inasmuch as your identity remains anonymous and is kept confidential. There will also be no adverse consequences for failure to participate in the project. Your participation will contribute to sound English materials development locally situated within your school. This materials development will strengthen your school program so as to meet students' needs for learning English and help them get prepared for English medium instruction.

Communication

If you have any questions and concerns regarding this research project, please do not hesitate to contact me at handoyopw@yahoo.com or 081249928350. Also, kindly feel free to contact one of my supervisors or the HREC (See attached sheet) regarding any concerns or complaints.

I would really appreciate your willingness to participate in the research project. I look forward to working with you and hope that you find this research project useful.

Supervisors' Details

1. **Principal Supervisor**

Name:	**Dr. Peter Mickan**
Phone:	+6183133405
Email:	peter.mickan@adelaide.edu.au

2. **Co-Supervisor**

Name:	**Dr. John Walsh**
Phone:	+6183135196
Email:	john.walsh@adelaide.edu.au

Appendix D: Research Instruments

1. Classroom Observation Template

Fieldwork Stage/Type : Needs Analysis/Materials Trials

Data Identity

- Code & Number :
- Date :
- Duration :
- Site/Venue :
- Observer :
- Role of Observer :
- The Observed :

Observational Goal

To examine the conditions of classroom interactions

Interactional Sketch

Opening a Lesson

In-Class Interaction

- Teacher and Materials
- Teacher and Students
- Students and Peers
- Students and Materials

Closing a Lesson

Observational Details

Turn	Participants/Actors	Contributions/Talks	Mood

2. Document Analysis Template

Fieldwork Stage/Type : Needs Analysis/Post Materials Trials

Data Identity

- Type of Document : Syllabus/Lesson Plans/Sample student Work
- Year :
- Copyright :
- Written in (Language) :
- Written by :
- Purposes :
- Retrieved by/from:

Content Analysis Goals

To examine beliefs, values, perceptions, attitudes, expectations, meanings, ideologies, and agendas embedded in curriculum documents

Information/Details

Portions of Texts	Key Issues	Critical Analysis

3. Interview Questions for Students' Needs Analysis

Fieldwork Stage/Type : Needs Analysis

Data Identity

- Code & Number :
- Date :
- Duration :
- Site/Venue :
- Interviewer :
- Role of Interviewer:
- Interviewees :

Focus Group Interview Goals

Investigate the conditions and needs of students' needs for learning English

Type of Focus Group Interview

Semi-structured and open ended

Interactional Sketch

This map will detail (a) a seating arrangement; (b) positions of audio recorders, researcher, and participants; and (c) interactions between a researcher and participants.

Language Used

Bahasa Indonesia

Nature of Interview Questions

The following questions can be elaborated depending on students' responses.

Interview Questions

Backgrounds

1. Please tell me about yourself. Do feel free to describe yourself.
2. How long have you learned English?
3. What types of English have you learned? Say 'English for Conversation' or 'English as part of your school subjects.
4. Where did you learn English for general purposes and specific purposes (e.g., English for conversations)?
5. What English skills did your English teachers teach you?
6. How much did your teachers use English in the classroom?
7. What English skills did you learn much?
8. What English skills did you learn?
9. Why did you learn English?
10. Did you learn English in an informal training setting?

11. What learning resources (e.g., materials and media) did you use to learn English inside and outside the classroom?
12. What kind of English are you learning now?
13. What English skills are you learning?
14. What learning resources do you use in learning English?
15. What social networking do you use in English?
16. How often do you use English?
17. With whom do you use English?
18. Under what context do you use English outside the classroom?
19. How do you improve your English?
20. What languages do you speak other than English?

Current Needs

21. What difficulties do you encounter when you learn content information in English?
22. How often is English used in your content area or subject?
23. What learning tasks do you perform when learning content subjects in English?
24. What English skills do you feel lacking to understand content area information?
25. What content information or text do you have in English?
26. Have you attended any training on English that suits your content area needs?
27. How much does your English teacher introduce this type of English?
28. What kinds of text do you have in your content area written in English?

Future Needs

29. Will you use English in the future?
30. Under what context will you English in the future?

4. Interview Questions for Teachers' Reactions to the Design and Use of Language Materials

Fieldwork Stage/Type : Post Materials Trials

Data Identity

- Code & Number :
- Date :
- Duration :
- Site/Venue :
- Interviewer :
- Role of Interviewer:
- Interviewees :

Focus Group Interview Goals

Examine how English students construct their experiences of interacting with a teacher and students using English materials locally developed in the research project

Type of Focus Group Interview

Semi-structured and open ended

Interactional Sketch

This map will detail (a) a seating arrangement; (b) positions of audio recorders, researcher, and participants; and (c) interactions between a researcher and participants.

Language Used

Bahasa Indonesia

Nature of Interview Questions

The following questions can be elaborated depending on students' responses.

Interview Questions

1) Tell me about your learning experience with the materials.
2) What did work best for you?
3) What did not work for you?
4) What did you enjoy learning English in the classroom?
5) Any difficulties in learning English materials in the classroom?
6) What did you do or learn in the classroom
7) What learning tasks did you enjoy performing in the classroom?
8) What learning tasks did you find difficult in the classroom?
9) How did you solve your learning difficulties?
10) How did you perceive these learning difficulties?
11) How did you interact with your teacher, peers, and the materials generally?

5. Interview Questions for Teachers' Reactions to the Design and Use of Language Materials

Fieldwork Stage/Type : Post Materials Trials

Data Identity

- Code & Number :
- Date :
- Duration :
- Site/Venue :
- Interviewer :
- Role of Interviewer:
- Interviewees :

Focus Group Interview Goals

Examine how English teachers construct their experiences of designing and implementing English materials locally developed in the research project

Type of Focus Group Interview

Semi-structured and open ended

Interactional Sketch

This map will detail (a) a seating arrangement; (b) positions of audio recorders, researcher, and participants; and (c) interactions between a researcher and participants.

Language Used

English and/or Bahasa Indonesia

Nature of Interview Questions

The following questions can be elaborated depending on teachers' responses.

Interview Questions

Delivery of English materials

1. Tell me about your teaching.
2. What did work best for you?
3. What did not work for you?
4. What did you enjoy teaching in the classroom?
5. Any difficulties in delivering English materials in the classroom?
6. What did you students do or learn in the classroom
7. What learning tasks did your students enjoy performing in the classroom?
8. What learning tasks did your students find difficult in the classroom?
9. How did you help your students solve their learning difficulties?
10. What instructional resources could you add to enhance materials delivery in the classroom?

11. How did you manage the classroom as a whole?

Major challenges of designing and implementing the SBC oriented ELT syllabi and materials?

1) How do you challenge yourself as a materials designer using an SFL framework in terms of your involvement in planning, designing, and implementing these materials?
2) What difficulties did you encounter in designing the ELT materials?
3) How did you solve these difficulties?
4) Any other challenges when designing the English materials?
5) What difficulties did you encounter in implementing the ELT materials?
6) How did you solve these difficulties?
7) Any other challenges when implementing the English materials?

Major successes of designing and implementing the SBC oriented ELT syllabi and materials?

1) How do you perceive yourself as an engaged materials designer using an SFL framework in terms of your involvement in planning, designing, and implementing these materials?
2) What successes did you achieve in designing the ELT materials?
3) Any other successes when designing the English materials?
4) What successes did you achieve in implementing the ELT materials?
5) Any other successes when implementing the English materials?

6. Interview Questions for School Administrators

Fieldwork Stage/Type : Pre-Study Interview Session

Data Identity

- Code & Number :
- Date :
- Duration :
- Site/Venue :
- Interviewer :
- Role of Interviewer:
- Interviewees : School Leaders

Interview Goal

To know research site settings in a policy dimension

Type of Interview

Semi-structured and open ended

Interactional Sketch

This map will detail (a) a seating arrangement; (b) positions of audio recorders, researcher, and participants; and (c) interactions between a researcher and participants.

Language Used

Bahasa Indonesia

Nature of Interview Questions

The following questions can be elaborated depending on school leaders' responses.

Interview Questions

1. Tell me about English medium and bilingual programs in your school.
2. When did you start these programs?
3. Tell me the goals of implementing English medium and bilingual programs in your school.
4. What learning resources are available for these programs?
5. How do English teachers support these programs?
6. How do vocational subject schools feel about the implementation of English medium and bilingual programs in your school?
7. What challenges do you have as school leaders in implementing English medium and bilingual programs in your school?
8. How do you overcome these challenges?
9. What kinds of actions or programs do you take or envision in order to enhance these programs?
10. What do you think of the design and implementation of English materials development as part of your school curriculum programs so far?

7. Field Note Template

Fieldwork Stage/Type : Pre-Study Interview Session

Data Identity

- Code & Number :
- Date :
- Duration :
- Site/Venue :
- Peoples Observed :

Field Note Goal

To know research site settings in a policy dimension

Details

Events	
Artefacts	
Temporality	
Goals	
Affect	

8. Reflective Journal or Diary Template

Critical Incidents/Phenomena (Reporting and Responding)

Reasons for Addressing These Incidents/Phenomena

Lessons Learned

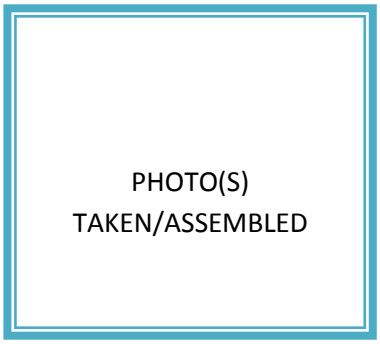
Perspective/Value

Understanding

Struggles and Successes

Follow-Up Actions (Transforming the Lessons Learners into New Situations)

9. Photovoice Template



Orientation Elicitation (People, Events, Temporality, Situations)

Lessons Learned

Perspective/Value

Understanding

Struggles and Successes

Appendix E: Sample Official Textbook Texts

NOTE:
This appendix is included on pages 288 - 302 of the print copy of the thesis held in the University of Adelaide Library.

Appendix F: List of Vocational Competencies

Accounting

Core Competencies	
1.	Understanding Principles of Professional Conduct (Code of Ethics for Professional Accountant
2.	Recognizing Ethics in Business Communication
3..	Understanding Environmental/Occupational Health and Safety (EOHS)
Vocational/Content Competencies	
1.	Recording Transaction Notes
2.	Recording Petty Cash Vouchers
3.	Recording Bank Cash Notes
4.	Preparing for Journal Entries
5.	Preparing for a Ledger
6.	Documenting Accounts Receivable
7.	Documenting Inventories
8.	Managing Fixed Assets
9.	Documenting Accounts Payable
10.	Reporting Cost of Production
11.	Writing Financial Statements
12.	Preparing for Tax Notification Letters
13.	Operating Spreadsheets
14.	Operating Computer for Accounting
15	Understanding the Accounting Cycle for Service Providing Firms
16	Understanding the Accounting Cycle for Merchandising Enterprises
17	Understanding the Accounting Cycle for Manufacturing Corporations
Elective Subjects	
1	Applying Accounting to Cooperatives
2	Applying Accounting to Banking

Hotel Management and Hospitality

Core Competencies	
1.	Understanding Principles of Collaboration with Colleagues and Guests
2.	Understanding Intercultural Communication
3.	Understanding Environmental/Occupational Health and Safety
4.	Handling Guests' Conflicts
5.	Updating Information on the Tourism Industry
Vocational/Content Competencies	
1.	Making Telephone Calls
2.	Providing Porter Services
3.	Handling Reservations
4.	Providing Hotel Reception Services
5.	Managing Financial Statements
6.	Recording Financial Transactions
7.	Understanding Clerical Procedures
8.	Performing Janitorial Tasks
9.	Providing Function Room/Hall Services
10.	Preparing Guest Rooms
11.	Providing Housekeeping Services for Guests
12.	Handling Linen and Providing Guests Laundry Services
13.	Handling Valet
Elective Subjects	
1.	Understanding Table Manners
2.	Providing Restaurant Services
3.	Developing Knowledge on Tourism Geography
4.	Understanding Tourist Guiding

Computer Engineering: Hardware Engineering

Core Competencies	
1.	Assembling Desktop Personal Computers
2.	Installing Basic Operating Systems
3.	Understanding Environmental/Occupational Health and Safety
Vocational/Content Competencies	
1.	Understanding Analog Electronics and Digital Electronics
2.	Understanding Basic and Advanced Algorithmic Programming
4.	Creating Databases
5.	Understanding Database Applications
6.	Understanding Desktop Based Visual Programming
7.	Building Application Software
8.	Operating Network Operating Systems
9.	Applying Basic Structured Query Language (SQL)
10.	Applying Advanced Structured Query Language (SQL)
11.	Understanding the Fundamentals of Basic Static Web Design
12.	Creating Basic Dynamic Webpages
13.	Creating Advanced Dynamic Webpages
14.	Designing Text Applications and Object Based Desktops
15.	Understanding Object Oriented Programming (OOP)
16.	Designing Object Oriented Web Applications
17.	Creating Databases using SQL
18.	Integrating Databases with Web
19.	Creating Database Programs
20.	Designing JSP (Java Server Page) Based Web
Elective Subjects	
1	Operating Graphic Design Software
2	Operating 2-D Animation Software
3	Managing Server Networks

Computer Engineering: Software Engineering

Core Competencies	
1.	Assembling Desktop Personal Computers
2.	Installing Basic Operating Systems
3.	Understanding Environmental/Occupational Health and Safety
Vocational/Content Competencies	
1.	Understanding Analog Electronics and Digital Electronics
2.	Applying Peripheral Functions and Personal Computer (PC) Installation
3.	Diagnosing PC and Peripheral Operation Problems
4.	Repairing and Resetting Personal Computers
5.	Repairing Peripherals
6.	Maintaining Personal Computers
7.	Installing Operating Systems: Graphical User Interfaces (GUI) and Command-Line Interfaces (CLI)
8.	Installing Software
9.	Installing Local Area Networks (LANs)
10.	Diagnosing Network Connected PC Operation Problems
11.	Repairing and Resetting Network Connections
12.	Installing GUI and Text Based Operating Systems
13.	Installing Wide Area Networks (WANs)
14.	Diagnosing WAN Connection Problems
15.	Designing Network Safety Systems
16.	Repairing/Resetting WANs
17.	Administering Server Networks
18.	Designing and Analyzing WANs
19.	Designing Database Web for Content Server
Elective Subjects	
1.	Understanding Basic Programming
2.	Understanding Interface Techniques

Appendix G: Lesson Units Developed by the English Teachers and the Researcher

Accounting English

UNIT 2: The Recording Process

INSTRUCTIONAL GOALS

Students will be able to:

- make meaning of text talking about the recording process in accounting
- recognize lexico-grammatical items which relate to the recording process
- recognize lexico-grammatical features of information report and procedure texts which describe the recording process
- recognize linguistic and informational features of two text forms: a general journal and a ledger
- write a coherent and well developed information report paragraph describing a general journal or a ledger using appropriate lexico-grammatical items
- make use of online dictionaries and corpora as lexico-grammatical resources
- become aware of continued reflective learning

PERSONAL EXPERIENCE ELICITATION TASKS

Task 1

Take turns asking and answering the following questions to your fellows. Share personal experience in the recording process with each other.

1. Have you ever done any transaction or economic event in daily life?
2. If so, what sort of transaction did you do?
3. List some business documents which relate to the transaction in daily life?
4. Did you ever record such transaction documents?
5. Why did you record the transaction documents?
6. If so, how did you record them?
7. What information did you record in a journal?

Task 2

List some business documents which can be used for the recording process.

1. Sales slips
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

5. _____

Task 3

Which the following lexical items are related to the recording process such as in a journal or a ledger? Tick (√) your response: **Yes** or **No**. Give a reason for your response

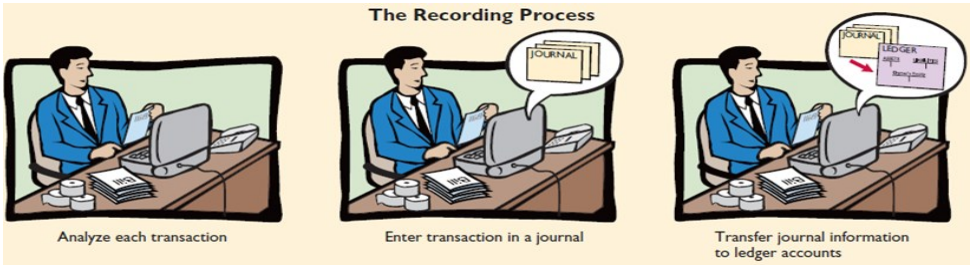
Lexical Items	Yes	No	Justification
analyze			
announcing			
examine			
exchange			
diary			
journalizing			
journal entry			
launching			
ledger accounts			
pay notice			
pay checks			
posting			
record			
retrieve			
taxes			
transaction			

TEXT EXPLOITATION TASKS

Task 4

Read the following text aloud. Take turn reading aloud with your fellow and discuss the text. If you find unfamiliar words in the text, consult them with your fellow(s) or look these words up in a dictionary.

The recording process in accounting is a way to record any business documents. In practically every business, there are three basic steps in the recording process: (1) analyze each transaction for its effects on the accounts, (2) enter the transaction information in a journal (book of original entry, and (3) transfer the journal information to the appropriate accounts in the ledger (book of accounts). Although it is possible to enter transaction information directly into the accounts without using a journal, few businesses do so. The sequence of events in the recording process begins with the transaction called economic events. Evidence of the transaction is provided by a business document, such as a sales slip, a check, a bill, or a cash register tape. This evidence is analyzed to determine the effects of the transaction on specific accounts. The transaction is then entered in the journal. Finally, the journal entry is transferred to the designated accounts in the ledger. The sequence of events in the recording process is shown in the figure below.



Task 5

Work in groups and discuss the following questions with your group member(s).

1. What is the appropriate title of the text?

   _____

2. Where do you find this type of text?

   _____

3. What is the type of the text?

   _____

4. What does the text talk about?

   _____

5. List three main points of the text.

   _____

   _____

   _____

6. What is the function of the visuals in text?

   _____

   _____

7. Identify the following features of the text

Features of the Text	Evidence
Tone	
Mood	
Style	

8. Identify a topic sentence, major supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence in the text.

A Topic Sentence	Major Supporting Sentences	A Concluding Sentence

9. What is the relationship between the writer and the reader?

_____

10. Is the text commonly written or spoken?

_____

11. Summarize the text up to 20-50 words long.

Task 6

Work in pairs. Read each sentence of the text above, and identify lexico-grammatical features of each sentence in the text.

Features	Examples
Topic (Theme)	
Comment (Rheme)	
Tense	
Modality	
Mood (e.g., declarative, interrogative, and imperative)	
Polarity (e.g., positive and negative)	
Active-Passive Forms	
Connectors	
Referents	
Types of Sentences (e.g., Simple, Compound, Complex, and Compund-Complex)	

TEXT COLLECTION AND PRESENTATION TASK

Task 7

Work in groups, and follow the instructions below.

- Find out one best sample general journal and one best ledger online.
- Learn these two financial documents and identify distinct informational and language features of the two documents.
- Share the documents you got with another group through poster or PowerPoint presentation. If presented through a poster, within the group, some members of the group play a role as a host, and the rest play a role as a visitor. The host is responsible for presenting texts and responding to any questions asked by the visitor. The visitor has responsibility for reading the texts, jotting down some key words and grammatical points, and asking questions to the host.
- Do an information gap activity by discussing questions based on the two texts.

TEXT CONSTRUCTION TASK

Task 8

Writing Prompt

Write an information report describing a general journal or a ledger based on your experience with the activity of noticing the two documents. In this writing activity, follow the steps below.

1. Write sentences introducing background information or attention getter and a topic sentence respectively.
2. Write a topic sentence clearly.
3. Develop the topic sentence into a complete paragraph.
4. Make sure that your paragraph consists of sufficient and coherent major and minor supporting sentences.
5. Write a concluding sentence by restating the topic sentence or summarizing the main points of the paragraph.
6. Your information report paragraph should be between 100 and 200 words long.

GENERAL JOURNAL — J1

Date	Account Titles and Explanation	Ref.	Debit	Credit
2008 Sept. 1	Cash		15,000	
	Common Stock			15,000
	(Issued shares of stock for cash)			
1	Computer Equipment		7,000	
	Cash			7,000
	(Purchased equipment for cash)			

LANGUAGE ENRICHMENT TASKS

Task 9

Notice how particular words based on the text given and the one you wrote are used in context. In doing so, you can explore the use of these words in a dictionary and a corpus. Create a lexis-grammar notebook based on this template.

Words	Word Classes	Meaning	Use in Context

Here are some links for lexico-grammatical resources:

1. http://www.macmillandictionary.com/
2. http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/
3. http://corpus.byu.edu/coca/
4. http://thesaurus.com/
5. *http://www.howjsay.com/*
6. http://www.ventureline.com/accounting-glossary/. *This site offers a large number of technical terms in accounting.*

REFLECTIVE TASK

Task 10

On a separate sheet of paper, write down (a) what I have learned from each task in this unit, (b) what I need to improve, and (c) what I have not understood yet. Share your reflective account with your fellows. Use the following template:

Reflective Points	**Details**
What I have learned from each task in this unit	
What I need to improve	

What I have not understood yet	

NOTE

The reading text in this unit was taken from **Hospitality Financial Accounting** by Jerry J. Weygandt, Donald E. Kieso, Paul D. Kimmel, and Agness L. DeFranco (John Willey and Sons, New Jersey, 2009).

English for Hotel Management and Hospitality

UNIT 2: International Hotel Websites

INSTRUCTIONAL GOALS

Students will be able to:

- make meaning of text talking about international hotel websites
- recognize lexico-grammatical features of information reports, which describe features of international hotel websites
- recognize linguistic and informational features of a digital genre: International hotel websites
- write a coherent and well developed information report paragraph describing features of international hotel websites
- make use of online dictionaries and corpora as lexico-grammatical resources
- become aware of continued reflective learning

PERSONAL EXPERIENCE ELICITATION TASKS

Task 1

Take turns asking and answering the following questions to your fellows. Share personal experience in a international hotel website survey with each other.

1. Have you ever read international hotel websites?
2. If so, what information did you seek for on the website?
3. In general what information does hotel websites tell readers?
4. Is verbal information on hotel websites presented with visuals?
5. Under what conditions are visuals used on hotel websites?

Task 2

Which the following information is posted on hotel websites? Check (√) your response: ***Yes*** *or* ***No****.* Give a reason for your response.

Information	Yes	No	Justification/Reason
activities or things to do			
amenities and services			
contact information			
dining and entertainment			
fitness, recreation, and spa			

hotel description or overview			
hotel policies			
local area (destination information and transportation			
map and directions (location)			
Management			
meetings and events			
Reviews			
room rates			
room reservation (booking)			
special offers			
types of rooms			
Any other information?			

Task 3

Classify the following words, phrases, or sentences into appropriate categories: (a) room types, (2) reservations, (3) amenities and services, (4) offers, and (5) meetings and events. Work on this task in pairs.

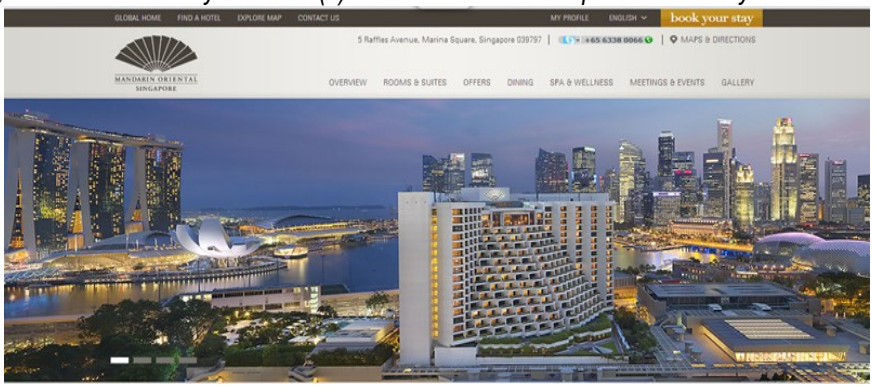
1. airport arrival transfer (____3/4____)
2. banquet rooms (_____)
3. check in and check out (_____)
4. deluxe (_____)
5. express check-in and check-out (_____)
6. executive (_____)
7. grand social functions (_____)
8. hotel policies (_____)
9. late check-out (_____)
10. laundry and valet service (_____)
11. pastry shop (_____)
12. private event spaces (_____)
13. room rates and availability (_____)
14. stay longer for less (_____)

15. superior (_____)

TEXT EXPLOITATION TASKS

Task 4

Read the following text aloud. Take turn reading aloud with your fellow. If you find unfamiliar words in the text, consult them with your fellow(s) or look these words up in a dictionary.



The Internet has rapidly changed the way enterprises and organizations operate and communicate. In the hospitality industry particularly, the advent of the Internet has revolutionized how hoteliers promote their hotels to customers. The number of Internet users increases, and so does the number of visitors to hotel websites. Many hotels nowadays make use of the Internet for two main purposes. Firstly, hoteliers make use of a website to interact with their customers in that many customers easily get information on hotels online by visiting a hotel website. Thus, a hotel website serves as a digital or online channel for disseminating information about services and products or a hotel profile so that customers are well informed of a hotel they will stay. Secondly, hoteliers create their own websites as an electronic platform for profitability. Well-designed hotel websites with useful information and extra benefits available to customers can help increase sales volume and improve the reputation of a hotel. In other words, a well-crafted hotel website can be a medium of promoting a hotel to attract more customers to opt for the hotel to stay. In conclusion, a hotel website serves not only as a digital platform for communicating services and products to customers, but also as an electronic medium of earning more money.

(213 words)

Task 5

Work in groups and discuss the following questions with your group member(s).

1. What is the appropriate title of the text?

   _____

2. What is the type of the text?

   _____

3. Where do you find this type of text?

_____

4. What does the text talk about?

_____

5. List two main points of the text.

_____

_____

6. Identify the following features of the text

Features of the Text	Evidence
Tone	
Mood	
Style	

7. Identify a topic sentence, major supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence in the text.

A Topic Sentence	Major Supporting Sentences	A Concluding Sentence

8. What is the relationship between the writer and the reader?

   _____

9. Is the text commonly written or spoken?

   _____

10. If you were an international hotel manager or director, what information would you post on a hotel website to attract as many customers as possible? Please list five main types of information based on degree of importance.
    1. _____
    2. _____
    3. _____
    4. _____
    5. _____

Task 6

Work in pairs. Read each sentence of the text above, and identify lexico-grammatical features of each sentence in the text.

Features	Examples
Topic (Theme)	
Comment (Rheme)	
Tense	
Modality	
Mood (e.g., declarative, interrogative, and imperative)	

Polarity (e.g., positive and negative)	
Active-Passive Forms	
Connectors	
Referents	
Types of Sentences (e.g., Simple, Compound, Complex, and Compund-Complex)	

TEXT COLLECTION AND PRESENTATION TASK

Task 7

Work in groups, and follow the prompts below.

- Visit one of the following international hotel websites: Hilton Hotel, Hyatt Hotel, Mandarin Oriental Hotel, Marriot Hotel, Shangri-la Hotel, or Sheraton Hotel.
- Read an overview or short description of the hotel and room types available for guests on the website.
- Analyze informational and language features of the two website texts.
- Share what you have learned through poster or PowerPoint presentation. If presented through a poster, within the group, some members of the group play a role as a host, and the rest play a role as a visitor. The host is responsible for presenting texts and responding to any questions asked by the visitor. The visitor has responsibility for reading the texts, jotting down some key words and grammatical points, and asking questions to the host.
- Do an information gap activity by discussing questions based on the texts.

TEXT CONSTRUCTION TASK

Task 8

Writing Prompt

Write an information report paragraph describing a short profile of a hotel based on your experience with the online survey. In this writing activity, follow the steps below.

1. Write sentences introducing background information or attention getter and a topic sentence respectively.
2. Write a topic sentence clearly.
3. Develop the topic sentence into a complete paragraph.
4. Make sure that your paragraph consists of sufficient and coherent major and minor supporting sentences.
5. Write a concluding sentence by restating the topic sentence or summarizing the main points of the paragraph.
6. Your information report paragraph should be between 100 and 200 words long.

LANGUAGE ENRICHMENT TASKS

Task 9

Notice how particular words based on the text given and the one you wrote are used in context. In doing so, you can explore the use of these words in a dictionary and a corpus. Create a lexis-grammar notebook based on this template.

Words	Word Classes	Meaning	Use in Context

Here are some links for lexico-grammatical resources:

1. http://www.macmillandictionary.com/
2. http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/
3. http://corpus.byu.edu/coca/
4. http://thesaurus.com/
5. *http://www.howjsay.com/*

REFLECTIVE TASK

Task 10

On a separate sheet of paper, write down (a) what I have learned from each task in this unit, (b) what I need to improve, and (c) what I have not understood yet. Share your reflective account with your fellows. Use the following template:

Reflective Points	Details
What I have learned from each task in this unit	
What I need to improve	
What I have not understood yet	

NOTE

The screen shot of the website was taken from: http://www.mandarinoriental.com/Singapore/

English for Computer Engineering

UNIT 2: Website Design

INSTRUCTIONAL GOALS

Students will be able to:

- make meaning of text talking about Website design
- recognize lexico-grammatical items which relate to Website design
- recognize lexico-grammatical features of information report and procedure texts which describe Website design
- recognize linguistic and informational features of Websites
- write a coherent and well developed information report paragraph describing a Website
- make use of online dictionaries and corpora as lexico-grammatical resources
- become aware of continued reflective learning

PERSONAL EXPERIENCE ELICITATION TASKS

Task 1

Take turns asking and answering the following questions to your fellows. Share personal experience in Website design with each other.

1. Have you ever surveyed different Websites?
2. If so, what kinds of Websites did you survey?
3. What information did you find on such Websites?
4. Are visuals always posted on Websites?
5. Tell some parts of Websites?

Task 2

List some criteria for good Website design.

1. Presentation
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____

7. _____

Task 3

Which the following lexical items are related to the recording process such as in a journal or a ledger? Tick (√) your response: **Yes** or **No**. Give a reason for your response.

Lexical Items	Yes	No	Justification/Reason
browse			
content area			
content information			
convenience			
create			
ease of access			
invent			
look for			
manufacturing			
maintenance			
navigate			
page layout			
page format			
production			
repair			
survey			
usability			
usefulness			

TEXT EXPLOITATION TASKS

Task 4

Read the following text aloud. Take turn reading aloud with your fellow and discuss the text. If you find unfamiliar words in the text, consult them with your fellow(s) or look these words up in a dictionary.

Website or Web design involves creating and maintaining Websites. Good Websites should have six main features: typography, page layout, high quality content, visual design, user experience design (ease of use), and speed and frequency of updating. Typographically, good websites make use of a few similar styles of typefaces and fonts. Most browsers recognize particular typefaces and fonts to enhance screen resolutions. Secondly, well-crafted websites should be well laid out to allow for easy navigation for users. For this reason, a webpage layout should be the same on different pages and looks aesthetically pleasing and eye-friendly. Thirdly, visual design affects how websites are favorably portrayed. The use of visuals not only makes Websites visually attractive, but also helps describe verbal information posted on Websites. Certainly, visuals should be chosen based on types of Websites, groups of audiences, and target markets. In addition, user experience design typifies good Websites. This design relates to layout, clear instructions, and labelling on a Website. User experience design assists users in becoming familiar with how they interact via a Website. The user experience design also influences the usefulness of websites from a user perspective. Lastly, websites should be regularly updated to attract more visitors to read information posted on Websites. A regular update on certain information definitely enhances Website credibility. Thus, well-designed websites must have such features as: typefaces and fonts, webpage layout, useful information, the use of appropriate visuals, ease of use or navigation, and a regular information update.

(246 words)

Task 5

Work in groups and discuss the following questions with your group member(s).

1. What is the appropriate title of the text?

   _____

2. Where do you find this type of text?

   _____

3. What is the type of the text?

   _____

4. What does the text talk about?

   _____

5. List six main points of the text.

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

6. Identify the following features of the text

Features of the Text	Evidence
Tone	
Mood	
Style	

7. Identify a topic sentence, major supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence in the text.

A Topic Sentence	Major Supporting Sentences	A Concluding Sentence

8. What is the relationship between the writer and the reader?

   _____

9. Is the text commonly written or spoken?

   _____

10. Summarize the text up to 20-40 words long.

Task 6

Work in pairs. Read each sentence of the text above, and identify lexico-grammatical features of each sentence in the text.

Features	Examples
Topic (Theme)	
Comment (Rheme)	
Tense	

Modality	
Mood (e.g., declarative, interrogative, and imperative)	
Polarity (e.g., positive and negative)	
Active-Passive Forms	
Connectors	
Referents	
Types of Sentences (e.g., Simple, Compound, Complex, and Compund-Complex)	

TEXT COLLECTION AND PRESENTATION TASK

Task 7

Work in groups, and follow the instructions below.

- Find out one best sample Website.
- Learn any information posted on the chosen Website and analyze six features of the Website. You can take a look at these features in the previous text.
- Share the Website you got with another group through poster or PowerPoint presentation. If presented through a poster, within the group, some members of the group play a role as a host, and the rest play a role as a visitor. The host is responsible for presenting texts and responding to any questions asked by the visitor. The visitor has responsibility for reading the texts, jotting down some key words and grammatical points, and asking questions to the host.
- Do an information gap activity by asking and answering questions based on the text you found.

TEXT CONSTRUCTION TASK

Task 8

Writing Prompt

Write a paragraph critiquing the Website that you have visited and learned based on six main features as previously learned. In this writing activity, follow the steps below.

1. Write sentences introducing background information or attention getter and a topic sentence respectively.
2. Write a topic sentence clearly.
3. Develop the topic sentence into a complete paragraph.
4. Make sure that your paragraph consists of sufficient and coherent major and minor supporting sentences.
5. Write a concluding sentence by restating the topic sentence or summarizing the main points of the paragraph.
6. Your information report paragraph should be between 100 and 200 words long.

LANGUAGE ENRICHMENT TASKS

Task 9

Notice how particular words based on the text given and the one you wrote are used in context. In doing so, you can explore the use of these words in a dictionary and a corpus. Create a lexis-grammar notebook based on this template.

Words	Word Classes	Meaning	Use in Context

Here are some links for lexico-grammatical resources:

1. http://www.macmillandictionary.com/
2. http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/
3. http://corpus.byu.edu/coca/
4. http://thesaurus.com/

REFLECTIVE TASK

Task 10

On a separate sheet of paper, write down (a) what I have learned from each task in this unit, (b) what I need to improve, and (c) what I have not understood yet. Share your reflective account with your fellows. Use the following template:

Reflective Points	Details
What I have learned from each task in this unit	
What I need to improve	
What I have not understood yet	

Appendix H: Learning Logs

Reading Log

Reading Log
Sustained Content-Based Extensive Reading

Name . . .
ID . . .
Major . . .
Group . . .
Book Title . . .

Week/Date	Minutes	Pages (Chapter/Section /Paragraphs)	A Summary of Your Reading	Grammar Learned (Please include sample sentences you like)	Vocabulary Learned (Please include sample words you find unfamiliar)	Best Quotes (Please pick 5 favorite quotes you do enjoy reading)

Grammar Matrix: Form-Focused Analysis

Name :
ID :
Major :
Book Title :
Instructions :

- Pick sentences in the text you have read and complete the grammar log below.
- Identify appropriate grammatical features inherent in the identified sentences, including (1) Topic or Theme; (2) Comment or Rheme; (3) Tense; (4) Modality; (5) Mood: Declarative, Interrogative, or Imperative; (6) Polarity—Negative or Positive; (7) Active-Passive Construction; (8) Connectors; (9) Referents; and (10) Types of Sentences: Simple Sentence, Compound Sentence, Complex Sentence, or Compound-Complex Sentence.
- Bear in mind that each identified sentence may not comprise all the grammatical features.

No.	Sentence	Grammatical Form					Grammatical Features
		S	*Finite*	*Predictor*	*Complement*	*Adjunct*	

New Vocabulary Log

Name :
ID :
Book Title :
Instruction : Please pick words you are unfamiliar based on the text you have read and complete the new vocabulary log below.

No.	Word	Word Class				Source of Text	Meaning	Synonym
		Noun	*Verb*	*Adjective*	*Adverb*			