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## Table of Contents

<b>Foreword Ramon Medriano Jr.</b> .....	5
<b>Research Articles</b>	
<b>Lalu Suhirman</b> .....	9
<i>Building Professional Development for Peer Coaching and Collaborating to Plan Research Lesson: Case of Japanese Lesson Study Approach</i>	
<b>Jennibelle R. Ella, Marvin C. Casalan and Rochelle Irene G. Lucas</b> .....	33
<i>Examining the Morphological Processing of Inflected and Derived words by Students in Grades 7, 8, and 9</i>	
<b>Lei Angelic F. Patoc and Ronald Candy S. Lasaten</b> .....	57
<i>Grammatical Errors Reflected in the Narrative Compositions of Grade 7 Students: Bases in the Development of a Learning Support Material in English Grammar</i>	
<b>Joshlen C. Baclayon</b> .....	88
<i>Positive Approach: Learning Style Preferences and Teaching Styles</i>	
<b>Yeonsuk Bae</b> .....	117
<i>Teaching and Raising Awareness of Linguistic Politeness for Appropriateness in EFL Context</i>	
<b>Yuni Budi Lestari</b> .....	139
<i>Teacher Agency and Localisation of English Language Teaching in Indonesia</i>	
<b>Kismullah Abdul Muthalib, Syamsul Bahri Ys and Faisal Mustafa</b> .....	166
<i>Why are you different? Investigating reasons of success by high achieving EFL students</i>	
<b>Annie Mae C. Berowa</b> .....	183
<i>President Rodrigo Roa Duterte in the Spotlight: The Pragmatic Factors and Functions of Swearing in Public Discourse</i>	
<b>Ronda B. Tullay</b> .....	205
<i>Exploring Research Areas in Language Education Dissertations</i>	
<b>Romel Ramiro Costales</b> .....	226
<i>English Lexical Knowledge of Pre-service Teachers: Basis for Teacher Education Language Program Enrichment</i>	
<b>Marites Q. Catabay</b> .....	252
<i>Linguistic Landscape of Higher Education Institutions</i>	

<b>Sarah S. Taupan</b> .....	285
<i>Cultural and Linguistic Competence among Community Nurses in Zamboanga Peninsula</i>	
<b>Laureana M. Lingan</b> .....	306
<i>Prospective Teachers' Level of Communicative Competence as Basis for English Program Enhancement</i>	
<b>Leila D. Benito</b> .....	315
<i>Role of Language in Quality Care among Selected Clients of Rural Health Centers in the Zamboanga Peninsula</i>	
<b>Vicenta T. Escobar</b> .....	333
<i>Overcoming Linguistic Barriers in the Delivery of Health Care Services: Nurses' Perspective</i>	
<b>Ian Roger Mabazza - Francisco</b> .....	355
<i>Probing Students' Abilities in Writing the 'Hook' Using the 'Funneling Style'</i>	

## Foreword

The fourth issue of Asian EFL Journal's March Edition presents studies in linguistics, writing techniques, professional development and language education.

It is believed that peer coaching and collaboration in the classroom can effectively trigger participation from students. Suhirman found out that professional development through peer coaching and collaboration is a vehicle for the improvement of instructional practice in research lesson planning.

Ella, Casalan and Lucas' paper follows Deacon, Campbell, Tamming and Kirby's attempt to establish a direct comparison of relational knowledge of inflected and derived words through priming method. The researchers agree that it is imperative to develop morphological processing among young learners to improve their skills in understanding word meaning and grammar functions.

Grammar is a dreaded part of language learning. Patoc and Lasaten's study is a guide in identifying grammatical errors reflected in narrative compositions of students. It was noted that the output of the research could be used as a supplementary material to address grammatical difficulties of students.

Baclayon investigated the effectiveness of inductive and deductive teaching method in stimulating improvement on the reading comprehension skills of college students. The study shows that despite of methodical incongruences in the teaching and learning process in the

classroom, both sequential and global learners were able to learn from their Literature class using the methods.

Communication is breaking barriers of countries that speak different languages. In this world where English is being considered the “lingua franca”, it is important to discover how we can integrate culture in our communication. Yeonsuk Bae investigated students’ perceived effectiveness of explicit instruction in linguistic politeness and was found to have improved their communicative competence.

Indonesian education policy has recommended that English teachers integrate local texts into English language teaching. Lestari analysed teachers’ responses to the Indonesian national education policy on localization.

Muthalib, Syamsul Bahri and Mustafa investigated the reasons for the success of high achieving EFL students through thorough analysis of their reflection in studying English. It was found that watching English movies and listening to English songs were the best ways on how to learn the language with ease.

The main purpose of swearing is to express frustration and anger. Berowa examined the use of swear words by the Philippine president in his public speeches to discover pragmatic factors and functions of his swearing behavior.

Tullay investigated the overall view of the language areas that are explored in the dissertations of Ph.D. in Language Education students of a Philippine university. The study is set to provide a baseline data as a guide for future students to expand research topics and explore unpopulated research topics.

Teachers are the facilitators of learning and they are expected at all times to possess excellent communication skills in English. Costales explored the English lexical knowledge of pre-service teachers to provide basis in improving current teacher education language program in Isabela State University in the Philippines.

Catabay described the linguistic landscape of HEIs through their display mechanisms. It was found that the most dominant illocutionary acts used are assertives and the researcher further suggested that display mechanisms can be used as a pedagogical resource in English language teaching.

Effective communication through linguistic competence remains a crucial factor in the advancement of interpersonal relationships and Taupan explored the critical issues in delivering culturally and linguistically competent care to patients. The research aimed to contribute awareness in recognizing the barriers and facilitators of nurse-patient communication in multicultural diversity to provide improved healthcare.

Lingan determined the level of communicative competence of students across different disciplines and sought to find their competence in the area of, Knowledge of Mechanical Rules of the language, knowledge of Meaning System of the language, Appropriacy on Settings and Relationship Oral Language.

The research conducted by Benito was designed to explore participants' experiences during visits and the role of language in quality care among selected patient clients in Rural Health Center (RHC) of Zamboanga Peninsula. The study further provides insight on how patients perceive the importance of language in the effective communication of medical information to patients.

Escobar, on the other hand, investigated on nurses' experience with language barriers in a multilingual and multicultural setting. The researcher described how "trust" can be given by patients whose first language is different from the nurses and suggested the benefits of having "bilingual" nurses.

Mabazza – Francisco looked at how students composed their library research paper's introductory paragraph using the "Funneling" style. It was further revealed that the use of this style is effective and acceptable in writing the 'hooks' or introductory paragraphs.

Ramon S. Medriano, Jr.

Associate Production Editor

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## **Teacher Agency and Localisation of English Language Teaching in Indonesia**

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### **Bio-Profile:**

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### **Abstract**

Indonesian education policy has recommended that English teachers integrate local texts into English language teaching. This localisation policy has received both theoretical and empirical support because local culture provides language learners with familiar content knowledge that serves as a foundation for language learning. However, it is not known how the localisation policy is being enacted by English teachers in English language classrooms, particularly in rural areas of Indonesia given the lack of learning resources and teaching models available to guide English teachers to use localised materials. Based on data obtained from ethnographic classroom observations in a rural Indonesian school in Lombok, West Nusa Tenggara, Indonesia, this paper will analyse teachers' responses to the national education policy which is mediated by the conditions of the school and the community. The analysis leads to problematising the concept of "local" in relation to the "local" texts, as there are interactions between multiple dimensions of localness including nationally-local, provincially-local and

locally-local. The paper will illustrate how teachers used these different “locals” in strategic ways to respond to the national policy, in the form of dedication, accommodation, or resistance.

**Keywords:** teacher agency, localisation policy, local texts

## 1. Introduction

The need to integrate local texts in English Language Teaching (ELT) classrooms in Indonesia has been suggested in the National Act of Education No. 20/2003 that the aim of Indonesian national education is to develop a sense of national and cultural identity in order to smarten the life of the people covering spiritual, moral, knowledge and skill dimensions. The need for the integration of local texts into ELT classroom is also emphasised in the ministerial regulation no. 68/2013 about the basic framework and structure of curriculum at Junior high school levels. It proposes cultural heritage should be learned through observation, listening and reading cultural materials to develop students’ ability to think rationally and gain academic excellence (Kemendiknas, 2013). Local cultural text integration in ELT has also been reiterated so strongly in policy documents at operational levels (see Lestari, Y. B forthcoming) that the students need to use for the attainment of expected learning outcomes covering spiritual, moral, knowledge and skill dimensions (Yusra & Lestari, 2018).

This localisation policy with regard to English has received both theoretical and empirical supports. A sociocultural theory highlights the rationale for building on local culture in ELT practices important for students’ second language development. Moll (2013; 2015), building on Vigotskian theory, for example, refers to local knowledge as “funds of knowledge”, while Bourdieu (1991) refers to it as ‘habitus’. This knowledge includes experiences, among others, “in farming, construction, gardening, household maintenance, or entrepreneurial activities” (Moll, 2015, p. 114) acquired through socialization in their family and communities. If this local knowledge is brought to EFL classes, the students, at least, do not have to learn from the scratch, i.e. learning the language and contents at the same time. As students work on this content knowledge in learning, what they only need to do next is learning the target language through which they can talk about this content. In fact, some studies (e.g. Fredericks, 2007; Luke, 2012) have reported that the use of local culture-related learning materials considerably contributed to students’ greater enthusiasm in learning English.

As the Indonesia's new curriculum strongly recommends local culture integration into English language teaching, this curriculum would facilitate EFL learning. Its achievement, however, will depend on teachers' ability and experience in addition to the availability of learning materials and facilities. While these teaching-related aspects have been identified as some of the causes of learning English problems in Indonesia (Lamb and Coleman, 2008; Yusra, 2015), government has spent over IDR 2.49 trillion for infrastructure, teacher training, teaching videos, electronic books for both teachers and students, and printed books with government fixed price in relation to the introduction of Indonesia's 2013 curriculum (Kompas, 2013/02/11). This suggests that the problems with regard to poor teaching quality, limited access to English textbooks and materials, and other facility-related matters have to a great extent been dealt with.

But, in practice, the new curriculum, as Khadijah, Chairperson of the Advisory Council of the United Federation of Indonesian Teachers, said, has been strongly criticized due to its slow distribution of government published textbooks as the core learning materials to schools, low quality of the textbooks and limited amount of time given for teachers to have practical teaching training (Kompas, 2014/01/02). Moreover, the reduced time English lesson in junior high schools (4 hours/week) and senior high schools (2 hours/week) under the 2013 curriculum offers more challenges to parents, students and schools. Parents and schools have to provide financial and educational assistance to students with out-of-school-hour services for private English courses and more extracurricular English practices. As Hamid et al (2009) have rightly predicted, these actions are motivated by the belief that English is the main means through which individuals can benefit from global economy. This implies that only learners with English rich environment will have more opportunities to participate in global market. In other words, students in rural areas usually characterized with disadvantaged socio-economic background and poor English language learning resources would be excluded direct or indirectly from global economy.

Such inequalities, however, have apparently been addressed by the strong recommendation of using local texts in teaching English. Greater access for rural students to learn English could possibly be achieved considering the fact that local texts such as stories, procedural texts and cultural practices are readily available in the students' environment. However, none of those materials, if any, are available in English language. They are written or spoken in local

language or the students' mother tongue, so teachers would translate them first into English if they are to be used as English language learning materials. Moreover, instructional strategies for using such learning materials are yet available to guide English classroom teachers, thereby calling for individual teacher's agency to make the students engaged in English language learning.

Although in the end the policy may be justified in the nation's needs, priorities and interests, it is not clear how this policy is being enacted. Information from local school conditions is therefore necessary for successful education policy implementation. So far, as far I am concerned, there are limited studies, if any, on this issue. The present study will fill the gap by (1) identifying local cultural texts used by English teachers in Indonesian rural schools (2) examining the way the teachers use the local texts as strategic responses to the localisation policy.

## **2. Teacher Agency in ELT Practices**

Teacher agency in ELT practices like any other disciplined practices is situated and interactively emergent in nature. However, the practice of agency by the teachers, as Ollerhead and Burns (2013) have argued, depends on the socio-cultural and professional backgrounds of the ELT teachers and the culture of the institution where they are in. For the enactment of the agency, the ELT teachers should have strong beliefs in themselves that they have the personal capacity and previous trainings and experiences in overcoming situations at hand. When teachers believe that they have the necessary capacities to enact agentive roles, they will passionately look for options in their repertoire to solve the problems at hand. Renshaw (2016) has convincingly argued that teachers, and students, enact agency when they believe that they have knowledge, skills, required personal characteristics and ownership of the institution.

In literature, teacher agency in ELT practices has been widely discussed at micro levels as if it does not exist at macro levels. Baldauf (2006: 148-9), for example, has noted that language and language teaching policies are mostly undertaken by the government through its authoritative bodies which can exercise agency at macro level in the form of regulations, rules and policy statements. The authoritative bodies consist of only people who have, as Zhao and Baldauf (2012: 6) have suggested,

*expertise* (i.e. mostly linguists, applied linguists, language enthusiasts), *influence* (i.e. scholars, distinguished writers, priests, business leaders, and celebrities) and *power* (i.e. national leaders). Several studies (e.g. Ali's (2013), Zakarias's (2013) have reported the limited agency that teachers can play at macro level planning of language. This limited agency particularly results in limited contributions of language teachers to ELT policy planning. Hamid and Nguyen (2016: 36) labelled the practice as "policy dumping" implying that teachers are imposed to implement the macro policy at micro level language classrooms regardless resources and means to implement it. In Indonesia teachers through their representatives are actually involved in language planning, their contribution to the policy, however, is rather limited as their real time teaching experience has never been essential parts of the theory-based language policies. The teachers, therefore, need to exercise their agency at micro language classrooms by responding to the policy according to their local situations.

There are numerous relevant studies on teacher agency at micro level of ELT classrooms. Ng and Boucher-Yip (2017), and Harris (2017) have investigated how language teachers in various settings are committed to transforming language education policies to students. Other studies (see Glasgow, 2015; Nguyen and Bui, 2016; Ramanathan, 2005) have reviewed policy enactment by teachers by resisting the imposed policy through accommodating fully students' voices and cultural norms and practices. In Indonesia EFL context a study by Prastiwi (2013) has shown that teachers use local folklore as a strategic response to Indonesia education policy on educating students with Indonesian cultural values.

Ali and Hamid's (2016) framework on three agentic strategies in ELT practices (i.e. *Dedication*, *Accommodation* and *Resistance*) is therefore very relevant and useful to be used in investigating how teachers respond to ELT policy. *Dedication* is when teachers as transformative professionals (see Kumaravadivelu, 2003) and socio-political agents (see Alhamdan et al, 2014) devotedly adopting the policy, assisting students to obtain the expected learning outcomes (see Lin, 1999). *Resistance* is rejection of policy by teachers. *Accommodation* is when the teachers partly adopting the policy to suit students' situations and conditions at hand. The present study

employed this framework to explicate LPP situations in Indonesia, particularly on how teachers integrate local texts as a strategic response to the national ELT policy.

In Indonesian contexts, teachers has been granted teaching autonomy since the implementation of the 2006 school-based curriculum in which local cultural-related learning materials and strategies are to be taught in ELT classrooms. The introduction of the 2013 curriculum, however, has slightly taken away the autonomy by imposing teachers to use materials in the nationally published textbooks with fixed teaching procedures known as 5 M (i.e. observing, questioning, experimenting, associating, and networking). The 2016 version of the 2013 curriculum, however, has returned the autonomy and granted teachers partial and tentative freedom to enact the policy creatively in accordance with the situations at hand. Limited accessibility to the imposed textbooks and low students' motivation and English proficiency are mostly likely the factors motivating teachers to partly implement the policy.

### **3. Methodology**

#### **3.1. Research Design**

This article is based on ethnographic classroom observations of teachers teaching English at a government junior high school in a rural area in West Lombok Indonesia. Ethnographic approach is the most suitable option to investigate policy enactment in local setting, according to Hammersley (1990a, p. 598), by making a lot of direct and focused observations of classroom interactions in the research site in order to provide a thick description of the process and the systems that produce them. The ethnography of Language Planning and Policy (LPP) approach in classroom as developed by McCarty (2015), Hornberger (2009) and Hornberger & Johnson (2007) was adopted to observe how teachers use local texts and cultural practices as strategic responses to the ELT policy in a real time classroom practice.

#### **3.2. Research Site And Participants**

The study was conducted at a government junior high school, one of the government schools located in a remote area in West Lombok. Though it is close to the internationally famous beach where the students' access to English is expected to be high, being located at the foot of a mountain provides good reasons for the community to stay away from the culturally undesirable life in the tourism-center beach. The school is also located within a Moslem

community which holds strong tradition and Islamic values preventing the school from being close to the cosmopolitan life style. Being a government school, the school has to implement the national policy. Unlike schools in the city center of Mataram which is usually crowded with more than 40 students each class, the school had only limited number of students with 20, 31 and 32 students of respectively year 7, 8 and 9 and there were only one class of students for each grade. This is as Lamb's (2012) claim that small class sizes in rural areas are due to students' low motivation to learn.

There were only two English teachers, one male (Mr. Rh) and one female (Mrs.Hs), at the school and they were purposively selected as the participants of the study. Mr.Rh taught students of grade 7, while Mrs. Hs taught those at grade 8 and 9. They graduated and earned their BA in English education from the local university and they have more than 10 year teaching experience. Born locally and being local persons, they were required to explain the rationales for the choice of learning materials and activities over many others. For ethical reasons, the identities of the schools and the teachers remain anonymous and pseudo names are provided for further reference in data analysis and discussion.

### **3.3. Data Collection**

Data were collected from video-recordings and ethnographic notes of real-time teaching practices as well as various teaching-related documents that the teachers had used in the teaching process. Seven sessions (around 45 hours of lesson) at each class were observed and recorded. Five (5) teacher-made lesson plans from each grade in which the goals, steps and materials of learning were explicitly provided were collected. Altogether, 15 lesson plans were able to be collected. The lesson plans and the learning materials mostly came in electronic forms and historical information about the data was obtained through informal face-to-face conversational interviews to the teachers. A total of 45 hour video recordings, 15 lesson plans and the learning materials accompanying them constituted the corpus of data for the study.

### **3.4. Data Analysis**

Lesson plans, materials and activities as well as textbooks as documents were analysed using Bowen's (2009) document analysis. This involves selection of policy themes, sampling of learning materials and activities to analyse, coding relevant information, tabulating data,

checking and rechecking validity and reliability, cross-tabulating information, and reporting results. Content analysis was also used to analyse the data from the transcribed video and interview recordings on how the teachers use local texts and cultural practices. The data will also be analysed at two levels. At macro level, the general overview of the teacher roles was examined in instructional sense, while at micro level the teachers' responses to the national ELT policy were analysed. At macro level of analysis, the recorded observations of classroom practices were examined by following Hymes' (1972) SPEAKING dimensions which has been integrated into analysis of policy enactment in classrooms by LPP scholars such as Hornberger (2015) and McCarty (2015). The results of the analysis of these dimensions were then linked with teacher agency at micro level. At micro level, teacher agency was analysed through identifying in the transcribed data evidence of teachers exercising agency, classifying the evidence following Ali and Hamid's (2016) categories of agentive strategies (i.e. dedication, resistance and accommodation), describing the categories by providing definition and examples for each category, and explaining by providing a rationale for the use of certain strategies.

#### **4. Finding and Discussion**

Instead of relying on the materials and activities in imposed textbooks, the observed teachers used their own materials and activities that they have developed individually or collaboratively with other teachers in the local teachers' network. According to the teachers, the textbook contents were far beyond the grasp of the students at the researched school which mostly made the students get bored with the lessons and this appeared to bring problems to the students. The teachers' adaptation of the texts and the materials in the textbooks was their response to the problems. They did this by integrating local cultural materials into their actual lessons. In so doing they motivated the students while at the same time accommodating the content of the nationally recommended textbooks content as part of the ELT policy. The nature of local texts used in the real-time language classrooms and how teachers used them as strategic responses to the national policy highlighting the need for spiritual, moral, knowledge and skill dimension in learning is presented below.



#### 4.1. The Nature of Local Cultural Texts

Surveying the lesson plans and the observed lessons, I was able to identify the use of local cultural texts in the local ELT classrooms. While Prastiwi (2013) identified local cultural texts as the nationally local texts, my study could further categorised local cultural texts into nationally- local, provincially local and locally local cultural texts. Nationally local texts cover different types of texts with contexts outside West Nusa Tenggara, provincially local texts representing cultures of groups of people residing in West Nusa Tenggara that is the people on Lombok Island (i.e. Sasak Culture) and Sumbawa island (i.e. Sumbawa and Mbojo cultures). Locally-local texts include the ones containing the students' immediate local culture. As shown in table 1, locally local texts comprises 42.02% of all the texts, which is the highest percentage, followed by the internationally texts with 21.01% and the nationally texts 20.17%.

Table 1. Types of texts as learning materials

No	Types of Texts	f	%
1.	Local		
	Nationally-Local	24	25.53
	Provincially-Local	20	21.28
	Locally-Local	50	53,19
	<b>Total</b>	<b>94</b>	<b>100</b>

Note, however, text here is defined as comprising reading texts and sentences and words associated with them. From the observed lessons the nationally- local texts are mostly used as reading texts either for reading comprehension, for analysis of the generic structure and linguistic features of the texts or for information gap activities. Info-gap activities were activities to learn integrated language skills as the teachers or one student read a complete reading text and for other students to listen to in order to complete the incomplete reading text provided for them.

However, as shown in the table 2 below, none of the uses of the nationally-local text, however, was intended for speaking and writing activities. The nationally local texts observed in the lessons were *Roro Jongrang* (i.e. for year 7) and *The Crying Stone* (i.e. for year 9), a

famous folklore respectively from Central Java and Sumatra. *Making Lamb Sate* was a procedure text representing the culture of the Madura people for year 8.

Table 2. Use of Nationally Local Texts in ELT Practices

No	Teaching points	F	
1	Grammar	8	3.33
2	Vocabulary	6	
3	Reading Texts and Comprehension	5	0.83
4	Integrated Language Skills	3	5
5	Model Reading Text for Analysis	2	3
6	Independent Speaking Skill	0	0
7	Independent Writing Skill	0	
<b>Total</b>		<b>24</b>	

Provincially-local texts constituting 21.28% of classroom activities appeared in the lessons which were unavailable in the nationally-published textbook. As shown in table 3 below, these types of texts were used for *integrated language skill*, *independent speaking skills*, *reading texts and comprehension* and *model texts for analysis*.

Table 3. Use of Provincially Local Texts in ELT Practices

No	Teaching Points	F	%
1	Integrated Language Skills	8	40.00
2	Independent Speaking Skill	7	35.00
3	Reading Texts and Comprehension	3	15.00
4	Model Text for Analysis	2	10.00
5	Grammar	0	0.00
6	Vocabulary	0	0.00
7	Independent Writing Skill	0	0.00

<b>Total</b>	<b>20</b>
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The provincially-local texts were found in the observed lessons in the forms of a procedure text of how to make *plecing*, a spicy water dish made from Lombok island (Year 7) and how to and how to plant eggplants, important ingredients for ‘beberuq’, another local dish (Year 7), a narrative text about a local legend called ‘Princess Mandalika’ (Year 8), a recount monolog about student’s experience in the local cultural event called ‘bau nyale” [Worm Catching Festival], and a descriptive text about the current governor of West Nusa Tenggara (Year 9). Unlike the nationally-local texts which was not intended for developing students’ independent speaking skills, the provincially local texts were used for this purpose. An example for this can be seen in a follow up activity after “Princes Mandalika” reading comprehension activity. In follow up activity the students were individually assigned to prepare a monologue recount about their experience in “Bau Nyale”, a local festival of catching worms as reincarnated forms of Princess Mandalika. Provincially local texts however were not found to be used to teach specific grammar and vocabulary while nationally local texts were used to teach these language points.

Locally local texts were found as many as 50 instances in the observed lessons which can be seen in table 4. They covers different forms of materials in different forms: Narrative texts about the history of the village (e.g. *the History of Tato*, *the Legend of Sail Stone*, and *the History of Nangklok Cave*), procedure texts of, for example, how to make *Cincao* cocktail (i.e. local iced fruit cocktail) and *Sate Pusut* (i.e. beef coconut satay), recount texts (e.g. retelling experience in the village Cat-Bathing Ceremony), and descriptive texts (e.g. describing family members and local leaders).

Table 4. The Use of Locally Local Texts in ELT Practices

<b>No</b>	<b>Teaching Points</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
1	Integrated Language Skills	20	40.00
2	Reading Texts and Comprehension	9	18.00
3	Vocabulary	7	14.00

4	Independent Writing Skill	7	14.00
5	Independent Speaking Skill	3	6.00
6	Model Text For Analysis	2	4.00
7	Grammar	2	4.00
<b>Total</b>		<b>50</b>	

Locally local texts appeared to be used to teach the most number of purposes in compared to the nationally and the provincially local texts. The locally local texts were observed to be used for seven teaching points: integrated language skills, reading texts and comprehension, vocabulary, Independent writing skills, independent speaking skill, model text for analysis and grammar. While locally local texts were used in similar steps of teaching language points, skills, and textual analysis with the nationally and provincially local texts, the use of the former appeared to bring more enthusiasms for the students. This was seen, for example, when they read the texts and translated them before the teachers asked them to do so. They also look highly motivated when assigned independently with the locally local procedural texts, showing off their skill in front of the class and such behaviour did not appear when other types of texts were used. This is important because independent production of language is the final expected learning outcome, and freer language production like this has hardly been achieved in traditional Indonesian ELT approach. One possible explanation for this positive outcome is probably because the students had been familiar with the content of the texts and thus the language learning has been simplified (Moll, 2015).

As the types of local texts and how they were used as pedagogical tools in the local ELT classrooms have been described, let us discuss the teachers' strategies in integrating the local texts as local response to the nationally-dumped educational policies.

#### **4.2. Teacher Strategies in Integration of Local Texts**

Indonesian ELT policy (i.e. Ministerial Regulations No 20 to 24 Year 2016) does not actually specify what texts to use in every day teaching episode. They are free to choose whatever texts to choose as far as they have assigned dimensions in attitudes (i.e. spiritual and moral attitudes), in knowledge (i.e. text types, generic structure, social functions, relevant linguistic features) and skills (i.e. oral and written texts production). However, the 2013

curriculum has come with it nationally imposed textbooks which on the one hand have relieved teachers from tasks of designing lesson plans and materials but other hand have enforced teachers to use nationally-local texts. As the 2013 curriculum is part of policy document, teachers' using the nationally local materials as presented in the textbooks was identified as dedication strategies. Accommodation strategies were identified when teachers used the provincially-local texts as a way of accommodating the students' need at local level to the expectation of national level. The use of locally-local texts therefore could be seen as teachers' resisting the hegemony of the national texts in their classes. Below is how teachers in the corpus had used the texts a means of exercising agency is analysed.

#### **4.2.1. Dedication Strategies in Local texts**

Teachers' dedication strategies referring to teachers' devotedly adoption of the policy (Ali and Hamid, 2016) in the observed classrooms were identified when nationally-local texts were used to teach nationally-imposed attitude, knowledge and skills particularly at Year 7. As seen in Extract 1, the teacher (Mr.Rh) was observed to use a nationally local recount text of a Balinese village on the island of Sumatra (i.e. *Kampung Bali*, Stepping More, Firmansyah Diyata, 2005, Bogor: Regina, p. 142). Assigning the students to read the text, the teacher also discussed with the students moral values implied from the text such as cleanliness, discipline and mutual cooperation. As guided in the textbook, the students were given a task to write their personal experiences of visiting "a tourism village". In this way, the teacher dedicated to the national imposition of teaching skills on producing written language, even though the students eventually negotiated the possibility of writing their own village due to no experiences of visiting such a tourism village.

#### **Extract 1: The Balinese Village (TO 7.1 LN 234-243)**

(1) Ningsih: When I was a child I lived in a small village.

(2) Teacher: Ya, Bagus. Lanjut. Oke, sudah semua ya. Tolong yang masih ngadat-ngadat membacanya

*Yes. Good. Go on. OK. Are you all done? Please, those with unsmooth reading*

(3) yang pak guru perbaiki tadi tolong belajar lagi. Nah sekarang tolong bikinkan pak Guru

- That I corrected just now please learn more. And now please make me*
- (4) yang seperti ini kalimatnya karangan yang bernuansa kampung wisata. Bisa  
misalnya  
*texts with sentences like these talking about a tourism village. You can for  
example*
- (5) tentang kampung T#n#h E#be#. Bahasa Indonesia dulu, bahasa Indonesia dulu  
baru  
*write about Slippery Land. In Indonesian first. Indonesian first then*
- (6) nanti pak Guru mengarahkan pake Bahasa Inggris supaya kalian bisa  
mengarang. Nah  
*I will assist you to use English so that they can write in English. OK*
- (7) misalnya eeee, T#n#h E#be#, kebanyakan orang yang ada di sana hidupnya  
rukun,  
*for example about Slippery Land, most people there live in peace*
- (8) damai dengan kampung sebelah. Di sana orang-orang bergotong royong  
membersihkan,  
*in peace with neighboring villages. There people work together to clean*
- (9) ya, selokan, seperti itu. Satu paragraph aja. Kampung T#n#h E#be# aja bilang  
atau  
*Yes, schools. Just like that. Only one paragraph. Just write "Kampung T#n#h  
E#be#"*
- (10) kampung Lendang Bajur.  
*The village of Lendang Bajur*
- (11) Selomita: kampung ite aja Pak  
*Why not our village, sir?*

It was also a common practice for the teacher to use nationally-local texts to convey knowledge in vocabulary, grammar, generic structure, and social function. Extract 2 showed that the teacher (Mrs. Hs) used a folklore from island of Sumatra, *Malin Kundang* to teach relevant verbs, adjectives and the simple past tense before she worked with the students

identifying the generic structure of narrative texts (i.e. orientation, complication and re-orientation) in the model text.

**Extract 2: The Balinese Village (TO 9.1 LN 288-299)**

- (1) Teacher: Generic structurenya adalah (looking at her note and back to the board)  
*the generic structure is*
- (2) Students: rientation
- (3) Teacher: ada (writing on the board) orientationnya/*there is orientation*
- (4) Students: orientation
- (5) Teacher: terus apa? /*Then what?*
- (6) Students: complication
- (7) Teacher: (writing on the board) comp...
- (8) Students: complication
- (9) Teacher: .....lication
- (10) Students: complication
- (11) Teacher: terus? /*Then?*
- (12) Students: re-orientation

Though according to the teacher the students were not ready for real linguistic analysis, she encouraged students to mention the generic structure. She further explained that this was actually intended to get students memorize the structure and getting more prepared for the national examination questions than for actual language production. In fact, the students' real language production was questionable due to their insufficient linguistic capacity.

**4.2.2. Accommodation Strategies in Local Texts**

As Kumaravadivelu (2003), Alhamdan et al (2014), and Lin (1999) had shown, teachers need to accommodate the student conditions and the classroom situations when deciding which strategies to use in ELT classrooms to help students obtain their ultimate goals of learning. Accommodation strategies employed by the teachers can be found in the corpus when they created local contexts for students' learning vocabulary, grammar, reading aloud and collaborative analysis of Sasak-based model texts, and collaborative construction of oral or

written Sasak-based texts. As the students in rural areas are known to have low motivation and linguistic skills the teachers' use of local contexts was to accommodate the students' conditions and the achievement of the national expectation. For example, as in Extract 3, the teachers used the local contexts, local knowledge and local language to accommodate the students' inability to express ideas in the target language.

### **Extract 3: Prompting for Expression**

- (1) Teacher: iya, new student
- (2) Students: new student
- (3) Teacher: Kalian bisa nanya pake Bahasa Inggris. Perkenalan dulu  
*You can ask him in English. Personal introduction first .....*
- (4) *(The new student was shy and teacher convinced him)*
- (5) Teacher: sekarang nanya (gesturing to the students to ask)/*Now, ask!*
- (6) Students: what is your name?
- (7) Teacher: siapa namanya, tanya, my name is... /*What is his name, ask, my name is .....*
- (8) New Student: name is ..... (the student was ashamed)
- (9) New student: endak bisa bu/*I can't Mom*
- (10) Teacher: belajar (tapping on his shoulder). Ayo coba, my name is.../*Let us try*
- (11) New student: name is
- (12) Students: h@h@h@ (laughters)
- (13) Teacher: sssst, stop, jangan nertawain temannya (clapping her hands to attract noisy students' attention)/stop. Don't laugh at your friend
- (14) Teacher: my name is...
- (15) New Student: my name [nama] is....
- (16) Teacher: siapa namamu? /*what is your name?*
- (17) New student: Herman Maulana, Bu.
- (18) Teacher: Oh Herman Maulana, Jadinya, *My name is Herman Maulana*
- (19) New Student: *My name is Herman Maulana*
- (20) Teacher: Bagus, Good.



Teachers' accommodating nationally-dumped ELT policy with the students' condition and local cultures can also be seen in when locally-known texts were used for collaborative analysis of the generic structure of the texts. Extract 4 showed that after asking one student (Ayu) told a story of Princess Mandalika, the teacher (Mrs. Hatysam), using leading questions, asked the students to collectively and collaboratively analyse the generic structure of the text. In this way the more able learners can help the less able one with their learning.

**Extract 4: Princess Mandalika (TO 9.4. LN89-120)**

- (1) Teacher and students: (giving applause to Ayu as she finished telling the story).
- (2) Teacher: That's good ya. Thank you, Ayu. Nah itu tadi temennya sudah menceritakan tentang  
*OK that was your friend telling you a story about*
- (3) Puteri Mandalika ya? Ingat structure text narrative ya? Apa aja?  
*Princess Mandalika? Remember the generic structure of narrative texts? What are they?*
- (4) Students: Orientation, complication, resolution and reorientation.
- (5) Teacher: Iya. Kalau Oreintationnya tadi yang bagian mana ya? Ditemukan dimana?  
*Yes. So, where was the orientation, at which section? Where (did you) find them?*
- (6) Students [Arya, Saputra, Herdiyanti, Ayu]: Di paragraph pertama/at *the first paragraph.*
- (7) Teacher: Di paragraph pertama, dia menceritakan apa di sana?  
*At first paragraph? What did she talk about?*
- (8) Students [Saputra, Munawir, Arya]: Tentang kerajaan/*about a kingdom*
- (9) Teacher: Terus apalagi? /*and then wwhat?*
- (10) Munawir: Ayahnya dan putrinya Putri Mandalika/*her father and Princess Mandalika*
- (11) Teacher: Oke. Terus structure yang kedua tentang?/*OK, then the second structure?*
- (12) Ayu: Complication

- (13) Students [Arya, Munawir Saputra]:      Complication
- (14) Teacher:                Apa Complication? /*What is complication?*
- (15) Students:               Masalah yang dihadapi dalam cerita tadi apa? /*the problem faced in the story*
- (16) Arya:                     Puteri Mandalika.../Princess Mandalika
- (17) Herdiyanti:             Puteri Mandalika diperebutkan/Princess Mandalika's love was seized
- (18) Teacher:                Ya, diperebutkan oleh Pangeran, Terus apa? /  
*Yes, seized by many princes. Then she became what?*
- (19) Munawir:               Jadi Nyale/*she became sea worm*
- (20) Saputra:                Jadi Puteri Nyale/*she became a sea worm princess*
- (21) Teacher:                Ya, yang kedua setelah konflik apa? /*yes, the second after complication, what?*
- (22) Students:               Resolution
- (23) Teacher:                Apa resolutuin itu?/*what is resolution?*
- (24) Students:               Cara mengatasi masalah/*the way to resolve problems*
- (25) Teacher:                Mengatasi masalah. Bagaimana cara mengatasi masalah di cerita itu?  
*Resolving the problem. How did she resolve the problem in the story?*
- (26) Arya:                    Dia lompat/*she jumped*
- (27) Munawir:               Lompat ke sungai/*she jumped to the river*
- (28) Saputra:                ke Laut/*to the sea*
- (29) Teacher:                Iya dia lompat ke air laut terus menjadi? /*she jumped to the sea and she became a ....?*
- (30) Students:               Nyale/*sea worm*
- (31) Teacher:                Nyale atau bahasa sininya? /*a sea worm in local language here?*
- (32) Dani:                    Cacing/*worm*

Finally, the form of the teachers' accommodation strategy was seen as they assigned the students for collaborative construction of oral or written local texts while the national

curriculum expected individual oral or written language production. The teachers did so to build the students' confidence for the language production necessary for later independent production. As shown in Extract 5, the teacher (line 1) asked a pair of students to perform a dialogue in front of the class. This task was given after she provided enough time for students to collaboratively get prepared for the dialogue at their desk. A pair of students Yanto and Guntur were asked to come to the front to practice the learned dialogue on planting eggplants.

**Extract 5: Dialogue (TO 8.2. LN87-98)**

- (1) Teacher: Kalau sudah selesai ya maju. Ayo maju ke depan sekarang.  
*If you are done with the practice, come onto the front now*
- (2) Yanto: Ayok maeh/Oke, let's go (happily coming to the front with his partner, Guntur)
- (3) Guntur: Hi, Nila
- (4) Yanto: Hi, Andi
- (5) Guntur: What are you doing?
- (6) Yanto: Well, I'm planting eggplants now. Can you help me with the spade over there?
- (7) Guntur: Yes, of course.
- (8) Teacher: Ayo Tepuk tangan, Bagus-bagus/*let us give a big applause. Good. Good.*
- (10) Students: (clapping their hand to praise Yanto and Guntur).
- (12) Teacher: Ayok siapa lagi?/*Come on. Who else?*

In line (2), Yanto and Guntur felt very confident with their practice and enthusiastically went to the front to show off what they had got to the class (line 3 to 7). This pair work classroom dialogue performance might not be seen as a big thing for more able students in town, but for rural students such a performance was considered a significant achievement and the teacher's supervision on the students' collaborative pre-practicing it had brought them some confidence and enthusiasm. The same thing was also found with written texts where students were allowed to ask each other and their teachers for correction before submitting them to the teachers or presenting them in the classroom.

**4.2.3. Resistance Strategies in Local Texts**

Resistance strategies could be defined as teachers' rejecting to implement the imposed policy (Ali and Hamid, 2016). Teachers' resistance strategies were observable in the way the teachers presented vocabulary and grammar and in the texts dominantly used in teaching. Vocabulary and grammar were elicited from the students using prompts based on the students' immediate contexts (e.g. things and activities around their classroom, the school and the community). The examples of words or sentences unrelated to the contexts were limited. The examples were then drilled to the students through word or sentence translation drill where the translation was from English into the Indonesian or Sasak language or vice versa. Drilling was also conducted as part of reading activity where the students were individually or in chorus read the texts aloud in reading drills before answering the reading comprehension questions. Such drills was motivated by the need to enhance the students' learning motivation and understanding the contents of the texts. Students' comprehension of the texts was also ensured through classical translation of the texts. To make sure if the students had understood the taught lesson, the teachers used students' language. The teachers' use of drilling technique, reading aloud, extensive translation and locally local vocabulary, grammar and reading texts is discouraged by the national curriculum. Besides, using them was outdated since the communicative language teaching method was nationally approved to guide the English language teaching in Indonesia, including in rural areas. The teachers' reuse of the so-called outdated techniques and the locally local texts, therefore, represents their resistance to the nationally-imposed curriculum and textbooks. Despite the resistance, the teachers implemented teaching materials and techniques practical and suitable for their students, reflecting practicality and possibility dimensions of English language teaching in local contexts (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). Extract 6 below described how teacher-made locally local contexts were used for vocabulary and grammar presentation and translation drills.

### **Extract 6: Translation Drills**

- (1) Teacher: Ayo, waktunya belajar, saatnya bukunya dikeluarkan. He, contoh kata sifat, kalau kita  
*Let us, time to learn, time to take out your books. Hi, examples of adjectives. If we*
- (2) bilang "Bagus"?/say "good"?
- (3) Students: Good

- (4) Teacher: Jelek?/*bad*?
- (5) Students: Bad
- (6) Teacher: Pinter?/*smart*
- (7) Students: Clever (showing her thumb up)
- (8) Teacher: kalau kebalikannya (showing her thumb down)/*the opposite*?
- (9) Students: Stupid
- (10) Teacher: kalau besar (showing her thumb indicating “big”)/*if it is “big”*?
- (11) Students: Big

Besides using drill and word or sentence translation to present vocabulary and grammar, the teachers also dominantly used locally-local texts. This type of texts is dominantly used in this local setting. Before introducing the texts, the teachers usually started by contrasting international or nationally-local texts that the students might have already known before. This lead-in activities would have made the students mentally ready to learn and built their sense of cultural identity as well as their pride of their culture. In fact, being introduced the locally-local texts, the students looked enthusiastic for and actively engaged in discussing the contents and doing the comprehension questions before the teachers asked them to do so. As can be seen in Extract 7, after drilling a reading text describing Nangklok cave and helping students with translating the texts, the teacher asked them to do the comprehension questions. The students, however, had already done the task when translating the text (line 1), as a result, they, including the quietest student in the class, Jihad (line 15), asked for the chance to write their answers on the classroom white board. To have such classroom learning engagement was quite uncommon for students in rural areas known to have low motivation and insufficient English language capacity. This, therefore, has shown that the use of locally-local texts enhanced students’ motivation to participate in learning.

**Extract 7: Reading Comprehension (TO 9.2. LN108-124)**

- (1) Students: Sudah kita kerjain Bu sambil diskusi mentranslatekan bacaan tadi.
- (2) Teacher: Pinter. Cepet ya?. Kalo gitu, ayok siapa yang mau maju ke depan tulis jawabannya di papan tulis.
- (3)

- (4) Students: (All students, except Nada and Sajili i, raised their hands up and said, “Saya Bu)
- (5) Arya: Aku nomer telu Bu
- (6) Herdiaynti: Aku nomer telu
- (7) Saputra: (coming to the WB writing his answer for number one “story”).
- (8) Herdiyanti: Saya nomer tiga ya Bu?
- (9) Teacher: Iya, mana mana boleh.
- (10) Piana: (coming to the WB writing her answer for number two “season”).
- (11) Herdiyanti: (coming to the WB writing her answer for number three “drink”).
- (12) Dedik and Ahmad: (rushing to the WB to be the first to write the answer for number four).
- (13) Dedik: (writing his answer for number four “cried”)
- (14) Arya: (writing his answer for number five “meditation”).
- (15) Jihad: Saya maeh coba yang nomer enam ya Bu?
- (16) Teacher: Boleh, silahkan
- (17) Jihad: (writing his answer for number six “passed by”).

Though unusual and not recommended by the national curriculum and textbooks, making use of locally-local texts that the students have been familiar with in their language and culture was the most effective way to help the students learn. Even though this practice could be seen as resistance to the nationally-dumbed policy, the teachers always made an attempt to accommodate the local students’ learning needs and the national expectations of learning outcome. As a result, no wonder if they oftentimes reminded the students to compare the locally-local texts with the international or nationally-local texts allowing the students to be able to find the universal similarities among these types of texts in terms of generic structure, linguistic features and social functions.

## **5. Conclusion and Implication**

### **5.1. Conclusion**

This chapter has discussed the nature of local texts that teachers in local ELT classrooms used and how they used the texts as a response to the national education policy given the

conditions of the community, the school, the teachers and the students. It had identified various types of local texts used in the textbooks, lesson plans, observed lessons and how they have been employed as a means of teacher's exercising agency. Three different types of local texts had been identified: Nationally-local, provincially local and locally-local texts. While the nationally-approved textbooks dominantly contained nationally-local texts, locally-local texts were mostly used in the teachers-made lesson plan and the observed lessons. The chapter had also illustrated how the nationally-local texts had been used as dedication strategies in educating the learners with attitude, knowledge and skills. The use of the provincially-local texts was for accommodating the students' learning needs and the national learning expectations. This was done by contextualizing vocabulary and grammatical points, using the provincially-local texts for reading comprehension and collaborative analysis of generic structures of the texts, and for collaborative construction of oral or written texts. The use of locally-local texts represented teachers' resistance to the use of nationally-local texts as the national curriculum and textbooks recommended. This was conducted by introducing locally-local contexts for vocabulary, grammar and texts. The use of locally-local texts was the best option to enhance motivation of the rural students to actively participate in learning English. Though the locally-local texts were dominantly used, which indicated teachers' resistance strategy, the study has shown that the teachers devotedly implemented the Indonesian education policy in local ELT practice by educating the students with spiritual and moral values and by motivating them to learn English.

## **5.2 IMPLICATION**

The study has shown that local language and culture play an important role to play in English language teaching. Instead of using authentic English texts as they had been assumed to be the ideal means of learning English (see Brown, 1994), the teachers in the present study dominantly used local texts in their ELT classrooms. The use of local texts by the teachers in the study was found to be effective in facilitating students' English learning. Local texts, should therefore be incorporated in English language curriculum. Teachers should also be given more freedom to use local textual resources in their ELT practices. As English language teaching is localized, there will be no ELT practices equally the same across contexts, and local English

teachers will be advantageous over non-local ones due to their local cultural knowledge and skills.

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