A STUDY OF INTRODUCTION TO COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHERS' BELIEFS IN THEIR TEACHING ROLES

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Abstract
The study investigated Introduction to College English's teachers' beliefs about their roles as teachers. The participants of the study were thirteen teachers. It used their reflection papers as the source of data and secondary data, as the reflections were not originally written for the purpose of this study. The study used thematic analysis of the secondary data and it produced four themes or categories regarding the teacher participants' beliefs about their roles. First, they believed they should design various activities that promoted learning. Secondly, they needed to monitor their students' progress and conduct appropriate assessments. They also believed that they should always have alternative plans whenever their original plans were not successful, and the last, they believed that they needed to show learners their attention and care. Based on the results of the study and the limitations, some suggestions for future studies are also presented.

Keywords: teachers' beliefs, Introduction to College English, teachers' roles, teachers' reflections, secondary data

Introduction

Many studies have suggested that what teachers do in class are heavily influenced by their pedagogical beliefs (see Borg, 1998; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Pajares, 1992). Furthermore, teachers' beliefs can determine how these teachers teach in class and the teaching strategies that they are likely to use (Gao & Watkins, 2010). Hence, these beliefs can indirectly affect how learners learn and obtain the desired learning outcomes (Gao & Watkins, 2010; Graves, 2000; Watkins & Biggs, 2001).

In Bauch's (1984) early study about teachers' beliefs, it was suggested that teachers' beliefs are formed through their personal experiences and interactions in daily life as well as interpretations of events around them. These beliefs, furthermore, can be transformed into attitudes, which deliver intentions. These intentions, in turn, become the source of decision which will the lead to action (Bauch, 1984). Bauch's (1984) statement was later supported by numerous other authors (see Borg, 1999; Graves, 2000; Horwitz, 1988; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Rios, 1996). Specific in educational context, Borg (1999), furthermore,

emphasised that these beliefs govern teaching behaviours. In line with that, Rios (1996) further stated that these beliefs affect numerous teachers' choices and practices in class such as determining objectives, designing tasks and activities, as well as performing assessments.

Even further, Horwitz (1988) asserted that teachers' beliefs do not only affect teachers' behaviours in class but also impose or pass their beliefs about learning on students. For example, teachers who believe that English should be learned through being engaged in communicative and meaningful tasks such as role plays, or presentations rather than teaching Grammar and forms, will likely design their activities that way. In turn, students who have been heavily exposed to such activities may then consider that learning English through communicative and meaningful tasks is better than learning English with high emphasis on Grammar.

Furthermore, Introduction to College English (ICE) program, the teachers of which became the participants of the current study, is a non-credited English program run by the Language Training Centre of Duta Wacana Christian University. It consists of three levels, namely ICE level 1, ICE level 2, and ICE level 3. This program is compulsory for all non-English majored students of the university. They have to complete all of the three levels, each of which can be completed in a semester, to take English for Specific Purposes (ESP) programs, which are mandatory and credited, in their respective study programs. In the university enrolment process, all prospective students are tested to place them in a certain level of ICE program. Thus, it is possible that new students can directly take ESP course without taking any ICE classes or that they have to take ICE level 1 and have to pass all of the three levels of ICE before being able to take ESP programs in their faculty.

In consideration that teachers' beliefs have very big influences on teachers' behaviours or their teaching in class (see Borg, 2001; Pajares, 1992; Richards & Rodgers, 2001), and the possibility of these beliefs being imposed to learners (see Horwitz, 1988), studies on teachers' beliefs become really important. Moreover, teachers' beliefs, in general, will affect learners' development (Richards & Lockhart, 1996; Williams & Burden, 1997). More importantly, as Borg (2009) and Johnson (1994) emphasised, in order to properly understand teachers and teaching, we should understand the beliefs that influence what they do.

Fifteen years ago, studies conducted in various educational contexts and practices focused mainly on observable teacher behaviours in class, but not the "engine" or what stood behind the behaviours (Freeman, 2002). Since then, there have been more studies investigating beliefs in language learning settings (E.g.: Farrell & Ives, 2015; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Ng & Farrell, 2003). However, little work has been conducted on in-service teachers' beliefs in a foreign language university setting. Kuzborska's (2011) study on teachers' beliefs in Reading class at university level was an example of the few studies in the field. In her study, she used semi-structured interviews to capture the beliefs of the teacher participants. While this study was helpful in paving the way of further studies on beliefs in foreign language university setting, other studies are still needed to investigate teachers' beliefs in classes emphasizing other skills such as speaking, listening, writing, or in integrated language classes.

In relation with that, investigating Duta Wacana Christian University's ICE teachers' beliefs is deemed necessary. First, speaking becomes the focus of instruction in ICE program, and as such the results of the study can pave the way to further investigate teachers' beliefs in relation to learners' spoken production. Secondly, more and more universities in Indonesia and abroad run ICE-like programs, regardless of the various names, for their new non-English-majored students to equip them with necessary English skills to cope with academic challenges at university or to compete in the working world upon graduation. Hence, to investigate the beliefs of teachers of such important language program become even more necessary given the crucial roles of beliefs on teachers' actual teaching practices in class.

In the light of the rationales mentioned above, this study seeks to answer the following research question: What are the Introduction to College English (ICE)'s teachers' beliefs about their teaching roles?

The first to realise in every study investigating teachers' beliefs is that the notion "beliefs" itself has been acknowledged by many experts as a construct that is quite difficult to define (see Pajares, 1992). Many experts gave different definitions. Even Borg labelled it as "personal pedagogical system" in one work (see Borg, 1998) and "personal theories" in another work a year later (see Borg, 1999). Otherexperts labelled it as "theories for practice" (see Burns, 1996), "maxims" (see Richards, 1996), "implicit theories" (see Clark & Peterson, 1986), and many others. These various definitions, which some people may consider slightly confusing, might partly be attributed to the use of different terms to describe or define the same concept.

With regard to this, Pajares (1992) may give a relatively more complete definition of the concept. He defined beliefs as "attitudes, values, judgments, axioms, opinions, ideology, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, explicit theories, personal theories, internal mental processes, action strategies, rules of practice, practical principles, perspectives, repertoires of understanding, and social strategy" (Pajares, 1992, p. 309). As such, beliefs in general cover such a broad concept of inner thoughts of individuals.

Despite the seemingly broad concept mentioned above, these beliefs, Pajares (1992) further explained, should be differentiated from knowledge. Pajares (1992) argued that beliefs and knowledge are two different constructs in the way that knowledge can be associated with objective facts while beliefs might be argued. In addition, while knowledge often changes, beliefs are relatively more resistant to changes (Nespor, 1987). Pajares (1992) further explained that when beliefs do change, it is not reason or argument that changes them, but rather a conversion or a shift as a whole. It implies that individual's beliefs are relatively constant and difficult to alter.

Specific about teachers' beliefs, furthermore, Borg (2001) defined the term as "teachers' pedagogic beliefs or those beliefs of relevance to an individual's teaching" (p. 187). It means that these beliefs are closely related to their teaching (Richards & Lockhart, 1996). In more detailed, in an earlier work on teachers' beliefs, Clark and Peterson (1986) asserted that teachers' beliefs influence the

process of teachers' decision-making and they also heavily influence their methods of teaching, including the tasks and the materials they implement in class, as well as their rapports with their students. This view is supported by numerous subsequent works (see Borg, 2003; 2009; Farrell & Ives, 2015; Johnson, 1994; Williams & Burden, 1997). Another important point is that teachers' beliefs are more influential than their knowledge in affecting teachers' actual classroom practices (Nespor, 1987; Williams & Burden, 1997). Implying the powerful effects of teachers' beliefs, Richardson (1996) argued that these beliefs even govern what teachers learn and how they learn.

Many experts in education, in general, seem to agree that teaching is a form of cognitive activity and teachers' beliefs heavily affect their instructional decisions in class (see Borg, 2003; Kagan, 1992; Richards & Lockhart, 1996; Tillema, 2000). Specific in the field of language education, furthermore, Borg (2003) asserted that "teachers are active, thinking decision-makers who make instructional choices by drawing on complex practically-oriented, personalized, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs" (p. 81). In other words, teachers' pedagogical decisions can, to great extent, be attributed to their beliefs (Richards & Rodgers, 2001), which are personalised and complex, and can differ from one person to another (Borg, 1998; Borg, 2003; Burns, 1992), in which according to Shavelson and Stern (1981), can act as a filter to determine whether or not to do certain instructional decisions. Several empirical studies had confirmed the influence of teachers' beliefs on their classroom practices (E.g: Borg, 1999; Borg 2001; Farrell & Ives, 2015; Farrell & Kun 2008; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Ng & Farrell, 2003). Borg's studies (see Borg, 1998; 2001), for examples, found that teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching affected their teaching in class.

Earlier works on teachers' beliefs (E.g.: Lortie, 1975; Wilson, 1990) suggested that teachers' beliefs develop throughout the teachers' lifetime. This later gained supports from various subsequent works. Borg (2003) and Richardson(1996), for example, stated that teachers' beliefs stem from their prior experiences, school practices, and a teacher's individual personality. The idea that teachers' previous experiences influence their beliefs is in line with the statement of Richards, Gallo, and Renandya (2001), asserting that "teachers' beliefs are formed on the basis of teachers own schooling as young students while observing teachers who taught them" (p. 50). It means that teachers' first perception about teaching comes when they are learners and it grows from their experiences at school (Richardson, 1996). This may partly be what Horwitz (1988) meant earlier when she stated that teachers can impose their beliefs about learning on students, including students of teacher training programs.

Despite the above-mentioned explanation on the crucial roles of teachers' beliefs about education and teaching, Johnson (1994) admitted that investigating teachers' beliefs can be very tricky as teachers' beliefs are such a complex construct and are not directly observable. Johnson (1994), however, further explained that educational studies on teachers' beliefs share three basic presuppositions. First, teachers' beliefs affect both of their perceptions and judgments. Secondly, teachers' beliefs influence how information on teaching is

translated into practices. The third is to understand teachers' beliefs is important to improve both teachers' teaching practices and teacher education programs in general.

In regard with this, Calderhead (1996) stated that there are five main categories or areas of teachers' beliefs. They are beliefs about learners and learning, beliefs about teaching, beliefs about the subject being taught, beliefs about learning to teach, and beliefs about self as well as the teaching role. Despite these categorisations, Calderhead (1996) asserted that these categories are interrelated and can overlap one another. The present study, however, only focused on teachers' beliefs about their teaching roles. Dörnyei and Murphey (2003), furthermore, stated that the term "roles" "originally comes from sociology and refers to the shared expectation of how an individual should behave" (p. 109). As such, teachers' roles can be seen as what teachers are supposed to do.

Before further elaboration about teaching roles, it may be important to know the context of the study, which was ICE language program, a little further. As briefly explained in the previous section, this program had Speaking as the main focus and adopted Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task-Based Learning (TBL), its offshoot, as the approach. It was characterised with group presentations, role-plays, individual presentations, discussions, and final group project presentations as the assessments. It put little emphasis on accuracy and grammar teaching even though grammar focus activities were usually present towards the end of each session. In each meeting, students were distributed hand-outs containing materials on certain topics or were required to download them in the university portal. As previously explained, ICE students were non-English majored students, who were placed in a certain level of ICE in accordance with their scores in the placement tests during their enrolment process. ICE program was a General English program and as such students from various faculties could take the same ICE class.

The context of the class, like ICE program presented above, may influence teachers' beliefs about their teaching roles. Teachers' beliefs about students of English Education may be different from their beliefs about non-English majored students. Their beliefs about their teaching roles may be different as well. Likewise, the top-down policy regarding the instruction focus, which was speaking or spoken production taught using CLT and TBL, might also affect teachers' beliefs. In regard with this, it became necessary to further elaborate the expected roles of teachers in such classrooms.

In communicative classrooms, teachers' roles are essential to help the learners learn the necessary skills and develop communicative competence (Harmer, 1991). In such classrooms, Larsen-Freeman (1986) stated, teachers, are expected to talk less and listen more. They should act as active facilitators of the students (Larsen-Freeman, 1986). It is in line with Richards' and Rodgers' (2001) idea stating that they should facilitate active communication among learners as well as facilitate them to be engaged in various activities. Littlewood (1981), in comparison, despite mentioning teachers' role in general as "facilitator of learning" (p. 92), described that this general role entails several sub-roles such as "classroom managers", "overseers" of learners' progress, and learners' "advisers."

Some other authors stated that teachers should also become need analysts, who are able to determine learners' ongoing needs and to meet those needs (E.g. Gatbonton & Segalowitz, 2005). Generally, Harmer (1991) pointed out, teachers should facilitate learners' progress in some way or the other, be it through their being controllers, resource persons, organizers in giving instructions, assessors, participants, observers of students' learning, prompters while learners are working together, or the ones monitoring learners' progress. Karavas-Dukas (1995), furthermore, proposed nine categories of teachers' roles. They are the sources of expertise, management roles, facilitators of learning, the sources of advice, sharing roles, caring roles, evaluators, creators of classroom atmosphere, and examples of behaviour and hard work. Harmer (1991), pointed out, teachers' rolesmight change one to another simultaneously from one activity to another.

Method

In order to answer the research questions, the current study used secondary data analysis. Secondary data are data already available and are originally collected for other primary purposes, which are then reused for a study (Hox & Boeije, 2005; Kothari, 2004; Pandey & Pandey, 2015). Secondary data can take many forms such as official publications, handbooks, computer database, diaries, and many others (Pandey & Pandey, 2015). In this study, furthermore, the secondary data used were ICE teachers' written reflections. Every teacher was required to submit to the Head of the Language Training Centre, under whose supervision ICE program was conducted, two written reflection in a semester, onein the middle of the semester, and the other one at the end of the semester. The reflections were about their teaching ICE during the semester. Each written reflection was normally 500-1000 words in length. The reflections used in this study were written by the participants in mid-March and early June 2017.

It was realised that secondary data might also have some disadvantages, which are inherent in its nature (Walliman, 2011). The data were not in the first place collected for this study, and it was possible that particular information to answer the research question was not widely available (Kothari, 2004; Walliman, 2011). As such, these data were first evaluated in terms of their suitability, and adequacy (Bhattacherjee, 2012; Kothari, 2004) before being used any further. Only after the secondary data were deemed suitable, and adequate to answer the research questions, the study proceeded to further analysis.

In terms of methodology, it was acknowledged that even though studies of teachers' beliefs thus far have used various research designs, the use of secondary data analysis remained an under-used research technique. Some studies in the field, for example, used large-scale surveys (E.g.: Peacock 2001; Richards, Tung, & Ng, 1992), while some others used qualitative case studies (E.g.: Farrell & Ives,2015; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Ng & Farrell, 2003). Methods of data collection also varied, in which some studies used interviews to obtain teachers' beliefs (E.g.: Borg, 2001; Farrell & Ives, 2015), while some others used questionnaires (E.g.: MacDonald, Badger, & White, 2001). Woods (1996), furthermore, used video based stimulated recall to obtain his participants' beliefs. Farrell and Ives (2015) did use the participant's written reflection as one of the sources of data. However,

as the participant wrote the reflection as part of the study, the data was considered primary data, not secondary (Pandey & Pandey, 2015). To the best of my knowledge, furthermore, there has not been any teachers' beliefs' study using teachers' reflections as secondary data.

Despite that, the use of teachers' written reflections as secondary data might be a breakthrough in studies of teachers' beliefs. As Bowen (2009) pointed out, the use of documents can avoid reflexivity, the possibility that the participants change behaviours because of being observed, or they give "not so honest" responses when interviewed because they are afraid to voice not so common viewpoints. Moreover, in this study, teacher participants were not under study at the time of writing their reflections. Thus, what they wrote in the reflection was not in any way influenced by this study's objectives, about which they were informed weeks after the reflection submission date. Moreover, Kagan (1990) warned that researchers investigating teachers' beliefs should be aware that it is possible that teacher participants are reluctant to express unpopular beliefs when directly interviewed. Furthermore, studies of teachers' beliefs are closely related to the idea of teachers' learning as reflective practice, which highly encourages teachers to learn through reflections on teaching experiences (Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Williams & Burden, 1997). Thus, the use of teachers' reflections as the data was considered appropriate not only from methodology viewpoint, as explained earlier, but also from viewpoint of the data's relevance to the field.

Furthermore, the secondary data were analysed using Thematic Analysis. In the thematic analysis, results are presented in the forms of themes, and these themes capture "something important about the data in relation to the research questions" and represent "some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 82). It means that themes should describe recurring statements in the data. Braun and Clarke (2006) further explained six steps of conducting thematic analysis conducted in this study. They are, becoming familiar with the data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing the themes, defining and naming the themes, and finally producing the report (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Participants and ethical considerations

The participants of the study were thirteen part-time teachers of ICE program. Four participants held Bachelor's Degree in English Education. The other nine held Master's Degree in English studies. All of the participants were females, which might be understandable as most of the ICE teachers were females. They taught ICE classes of various levels. As such, it was possible that some participants taught three different levels, some others taught two levels, and the others taught only one level. Each ICE class was taught by two teachers in which each taught in every other meeting.

Permission to conduct research and use the teachers' written reflections as the data were initially granted by the Head of the Language Training Centre, a university office which was responsible for all university-scale language programs for non-English majored students. However, as an acknowledgement of the participants' voluntary participation rights, all ICE teachers were contacted, explained about the study, and asked whether they were willing to participate. As

a result, thirteen of nineteen ICE teachers agreed to participate in the study, with the other six teachers not participating. It implied that there was no coercion in the participations and participants had autonomy in their decision (Oliver, 2006; Orb, Eisenhauer, & Wynaden, 2000). This study, however, did not use any written informed consents, which should normally be obtained to show that participants were fully informed about the study and voluntarily participated in it (Gray, 2014; Israel & Hay, 2006). Consents were obtained both orally and through WhatsApp communication. In regard with this, Mack, Woodsong, MacQueen, Guest, and Namey (2011) argued that in some cases written consents are not obligatory. Besides, the participants were highly educated adults and were fully aware of their rights to withdraw from the study at any time.

Furthermore, to protect the confidentiality of the participants (Bhattacherjee, 2012; Oliver, 2006), the real names of the participants were changed into pseudonyms throughout the report. It was realised that as the name of the university and the name of the language program were disclosed, some people might be able to predict the names of some of the participants. However, to match who stated what statements will not be possible. Other than me, the researcher, only the Head of the Language Centre, to whom the written reflections were submitted, have access to the reflections.

Findings and Discussion

With thirteen teachers participating in the study and each wrote two reflections, there were in total 26 reflections, each of which was 500-1000 words in length, which became the object of the thematic analysis. To facilitate reference-tracing, furthermore, codes following participants' statements were used. "(Palupi, R1)", for example, indicates that statements prior were obtained from the first written reflection of Palupi. Likewise, "(Palupi, R2)" indicates that statements prior were obtained from Palupi's second written reflection.

Furthermore, there were four themes obtained from the thematic analysis and these themes could be seen in the following figure.
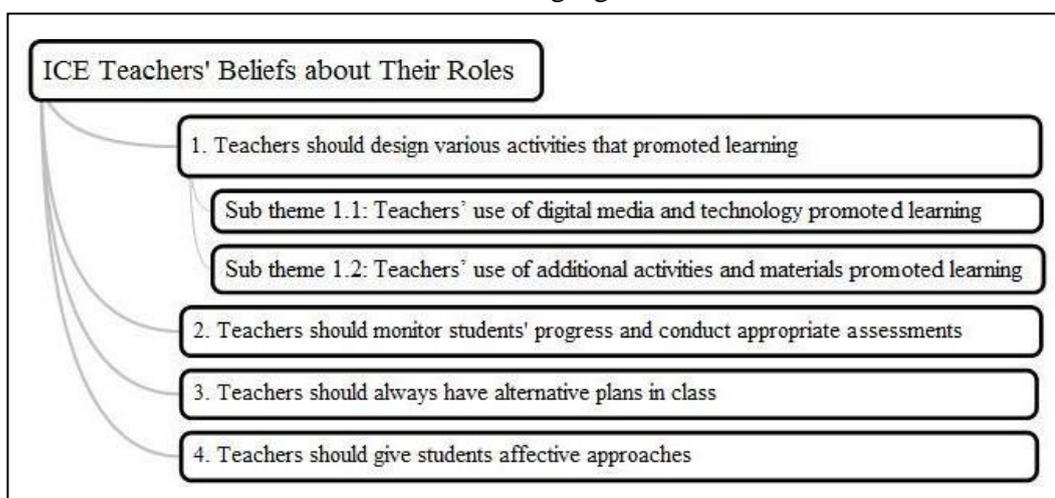

Figure 1: Themes of the ICE teachers' beliefs about their teaching roles

In the following sections, each of the themes would be elaborated further.

Theme 1: Teachers should design various activities that promoted learning

Almost all teachers wrote that they were responsible for designing class activities that could encourage learners to learn. As written in their reflections, the way they did it was various. Some made use of various forms of technology as the teaching and learning media, and some others stated they used various games and tasks as well as extra materials from the internet.

Sub-theme 1.1: Teachers' use of digital media and technology promoted learning

Pintan, Nungky, Titis, and Lintang stated that they utilised digital media or technology in their class activities. Pintan believed that technology could facilitate learners to access motivating and borderless learning environment. She wrote:

> *To create new and innovative learning environment means to facilitate students with learning opportunities which lead to autonomous, motivating, timeless, and borderless learning environment." (Pintan,R1)*

> *"Integrating technology into teaching reading strategies would be [an] additional benefit for both teachers and students as it provides more interesting learning environment and creates students' deep engagement in teaching and learning process." (Pintan, R2).*

Nungky and Titis, furthermore, also commented that the use of technology in class could make their students interested in the activities and materials. Titis developed quiz-like materials using *Kahoot*, an online learning platform, while Nungky tried to optimize the features of technology for class activities. They wrote:

> *"… [An]other thing is the idea of having Kahoot.... I am happy that students like it…. I'm on the way developing the content to be played in Kahoot." (Titis, R2)*

> *"This semester I have been pushing myself to update and maximize the use of digital technology to support my classroom activity… I also learned to maximize the features provided in PowerPoint and Canva to create interesting activity for my students." (Nungky, R1)*

Last but not least, as seen in the excerpt below, Lintang also stated that theuse of technology was beneficial for students' learning, but she should also pay attention to the appropriateness of the contents.

> *"Using technology and using social media do really help boost students'motivation. Still, teachers have to think about the proper content." (Lintang, R2)*

Sub-theme 1.2: Teachers' use of additional activities and materials promoted learning

Many teacher participants seemed to agree that their use of activities and materials added to the materials from the distributed hand-outs made the atmosphere more fun and in turn made the students more motivated to be engaged in the learning activities.

Murni, Tina, and Utari, for examples, used fun activities which made their students' "unconsciously" learn. Murni and Tina, for instances, used games. The following are the excerpts.

> *"This kind activity [the game] is really fun to do if the number of the students in the class is quite big. I applied it to my classes in level 2… It went really well and [was] fun. They were curious to find the owners of the pictures and they were not aware that had practiced how to use simple past tense." (Murni, R1)*
>
> *"… Every time we meet I give them vocabulary quiz. Not really a quiz though, it is more a kind of word games… I can't say that they have enlarged their vocabulary mastery through the activities, but so far they have fun doing it and they never complain and also they always do what I ask them to do." (Tina, R1)*

Utari, in comparison, preferred to use a task done outside of class. She wrote:

> *"I asked the students to interview the cafeteria owner. A simple Indonesian interview was done in group[s] of 3, on what the ingredients are and how to make the food/drink…. Then, they had to write it [recipe] in English and presented it in a cafe, too. Everything was done in a relaxing way. And the role of the teacher is the facilitator who is always ready to help whenever learning problems appear." (Utari, R1)*

Furthermore, some teachers, despite acknowledging the difficulties, acknowledged that making learning activities diverse was necessary. Titis, for example, knowing her weakness, tried to ask her colleagues for help in order to improve her teaching. She wrote:

> *"I always question myself about how to make teaching not monotonous and boring. Using varied media (video, audio, simple games, etc.) for brainstorming and ice breaking is what I do in class. Well, to be honest, I am lack of creativity. Here, colleagues' ideas are very helpful. I am learning from them" (Titis, R1).*

In comparison, Donita expressed that she needed to keep herself updated and well-informed about her students' topics of interest in order to be able to make learning interesting. She wrote:

> *"They love debate, class discussion, especially about some hype topics like travelling, relationship, selebgram… I have [to] stay up-to-date to follow the need of this class." (Donita, R1)*

Andara, who was a new teacher, and only started teaching ICE in 2017, as seen from the excerpt below, commented that despite her effort in familiarising

herself with ICE curriculum as a whole, she made some efforts to improvise her teaching outside the hand-outs.

> *"This is my first teaching … so mostly I followed teacher's manual, however, if necessary, I added some extra materials taken from [the] internet or I made it myself, for example, flashcards." (Andara, R1)*

As seen from the above-mentioned excerpts, the participants' beliefs that teachers should design various activities promoting learning were in line with teachers' expected role as the ones in charge of making learners develop communicative competence (Harmer, 1991). It was also possible that this belief stemmed from their perceived responsibility as the resource person (Harmer, 1991). Hence, they felt obliged to provide activities that would make learners engaged in the learning process. These roles were fulfilled by the participants by doing different things. For examples, Murni and Tina used games, while Utari used a task to make a relaxing atmosphere of learning (Karavas-Dukas, 1995). Furthermore, teachers' use of technology for teaching and learning media might also be attributed to their beliefs that their students liked it and the use of technology could motivate them to learn. This could be seen from Pintan's, Titis', and Lintang's excerpts above. From the excerpts, their beliefs about their role as the learning facilitators, who guided, and helped learners learn (Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Littlewood, 1981; Richards & Rodgers, 2001) could be seen. Lintang's realization that teachers should consider the appropriateness of the content materials when teaching using technology could be attributed to her beliefs about her role as an evaluator (Karavas-Dukas, 1995).

Theme 2: Teachers should monitor students' progress and conduct appropriate assessments

Many of the teacher participants wrote about the necessity for teachers to monitor students' progress and to conduct assessments of their progress. Titis, for instance, tried to make all of her students speak by giving chance to those she considered quiet to present their ideas. She wrote:

> *"These smart students … talkative and others are not. Thus, to avoid the gap, I should make sure that each of my students in class has the same portion in expressing their ideas. I usually choose those who are passive in class to answer my question and or put them in a group so everybody has chance to talk." (Titis, R1)*

Furthermore, Elsa wrote about how she monitored her students' progress through digital platforms. The following is the excerpt.

> *"This way also helped me to monitor the students. For example, before progress test students may have individual consultation via email, WhatsApp, SMS, Facebook, Instagram, and so on… I used the personal account to remind the students about the class schedule, progress tests, assignments, and to have fun chatting with them." (Elsa, R2)*

Titis and Utari, furthermore, wrote about their roles of giving their students feedbacks based on their class performances. They wrote:

"Students should be able to show their general preparation for the final test performance. It is the teacher's task to give feedback."(Utari, R2)
"I gave them written feedback but some still make mistakes on writing. I think I should provide writing activities more … at the beginning, maybe by asking them to write a very short reflection or any ideas about the learning in some meetings. Hopefully, they're used to writing in English and [they] make good progress." (Titis, R2)

As seen from Titis' excerpt above, she was not sure whether her written feedbacks were really helpful, and she further opined that asking students to write short reflections might make them familiar with writing.

Despite the awareness of the necessity of monitoring students' progress, some teachers acknowledged that doing so was not always easy. Nungky, for instance, found it difficult to assess her students' progress because they were frequently absent in class. She wrote:

"Students' progress is neither easy to monitor nor to achieve. It is caused by students' habit of hit and go in attending the class. They sit in for one meeting, then, are missing in the next meeting, then come back before the test but are missing again on the test day…" (Nungky, R1)

Muli and Elsa, furthermore, expressed their disappointment when they found that their students did plain cheatings during their assessments. As seen in the excerpt below, Muli's student presented his friend's artwork instead of his own.

"… one student… does undesirable action. He does not make his own projects to perform, but he presents his friends' from other class. He performs Walt Disney's timeline, comic strips and journal entries which are all made by his friend. I suspected his roguish action … I informed other colleagues about the suspicious attitude, one of my colleagues… found the exactly same projects being performed in her class... about the penalty, I plan to talk to these students that they have to redo the test for a 50 [per cent] score." (Muli, R1)

One of Elsa's students, furthermore, simply rewrote his friend's written work in a writing assessment. Regarding this, Elsa wrote:

"One problem that made me surprised was when I found my student's work was 95% similar to one student from another class….he drew the same picture and wrote the same explanation. He just added two or three phrases…. he admitted that it was actually his friend's writing and he received the consequence. After this experience… I was more thorough when I checked students' work. I always reminded the students that teacher will appreciate more if students do theassignment on their own, whatever the result is." (Elsa, R2)

Talking about cheating during assessments among some students, Lintang, as seen in the following excerpt, mentioned the necessity to warn the students to not do that as checking work originality was easy.

"I found two of my students did plagiarism… Actually, as teachers, we have that sense to know whether our students have that language competence or not. Also, checking work originality is now easy. As I haven't met them yet, I haven't warned them [about cheating] yet. So, next meeting I will let them know." (Lintang, R1)

Palupi, in comparison, expressed her belief that the ICE program's scoring rules which only necessitated students to obtain 55 out of 100 to pass each level was attributed to the low competence of some of ICE students of Level 3. She wrote:

"Having been teaching ICE for five years makes me wonder about the rule of ICE stated in the syllabus: 55 means PASS. I've got several students who got 55 and, of course, PASSED a level, but they actually did not deserve it. If they did not deserve to pass a level, why did I make them pass the level? I discussed it with some ICE teachers, and I found out that they had the same experience as well. Some comments such as: 'They are repeaters'… 'They are diligent and active'… 'The content is not really good and out of the topic, but I appreciate their effort'…" (Palupi, R2)

Palupi further wrote that the low passing grade contributed to mixed-ability classes.

"Due to this problem, I will have some students with a level 2 competence sitting in a level 3 class… The worse thing that I also observe is that some students who have repeated the SAME level for more than 2 times, and finally sit in a level 3 class, still have their level 2 competence, even level 1 competence… There are even some moments when the real level 3 students look at their "level 1-competent" classmates with their eyes questioning, 'How could you be here? It's level 3' (Palupi, R2)

With regard to all of the excerpts above, the teachers' beliefs that they should monitor students' progress and conduct appropriate assessments were generally in line with their roles as the evaluators (Karavas-Dukas, 1995). Palupi's believed role as an evaluator, for example, can be seen in her dissatisfaction in seeing some relatively low performing students passing an ICE level due to their passing the minimum passing grade, which according to Palupi, was too low. Furthermore, the disappointments expressed by some of the teachers when some of their students cheated during assessments could also be attributed to their beliefs about their role as an example of behavior (Karavas-Dukas, 1995), and their giving punishments to those students could be attributed to their beliefs about their role as the controllers (Harmer, 1991). Lintang's plan to warn her students not to cheat during assessments could also be seen as her beliefs that she, as a teacher, should have a caring role and become an advisor for her students (Karavas-Dukas, 1995; Littlewood, 1981).

Theme 3: Teachers should always have alternative plans in class

Some participants also highlighted the necessity for teachers to have alternative plans in case their lesson plans did not work in practice. With regard to this, as seen in the following excerpt, Nungky acknowledged that despite bringing

benefits, the use of technology depended on sufficient facilities and if things went wrong, teachers should have an alternative plan.

"Relying on digital media makes me unsecured and prepare more backup plans in case that the electricity [is] down, [there is] no connection, or the computer/cell phone does not support." (Nungky, R1)

Murni, in comparison, acknowledged that alternative plans were important in case the number of the students coming to the class was much lower than the number she expected. She wrote:

"However, I was kind of surprised when I found that the number of [students].... level 2 was super small. In the list, it is 12 students but… there were only 2 or 3 students coming ... I needed to make improvisation … It was successful and the students... enjoy with the class" (Murni, R1)

In reflection of what happened above, Murni continued to write:

"Not all things we have prepared go smoothly. Sometimes the plan that we have prepared really well does not go appropriately… there is a saying "something can always go wrong'" (Murni, R1)

In her second reflection, Murni seemed to regret that she did not have an alternative plan when suddenly a student, who was no longer eligible to join the final test, showed up at a meeting scheduled to prepare students for the final test. She wrote:

"He kept coming until the second last meeting although he knew that he did not deserve the Final Oral Test (FOT)... On that day I was surprised and unprepared for handling this student... Once he sat down, I told him that he couldn't have FOT and he said ok... But he still did not move from the class. In my mind at that time, 'what are you doing here then?' That day was the time for preparing the final oral test. There wasnothing he could do. However, I could not say that he could not be there… From this point, I can reflect that it is a shame for such [a] good motivated student I cannot provide a better preparation for the class including the material and classroom activities." (Murni, R2)

Palupi, furthermore, used what she called "personal approach" as her alternative plan when she thought that the activities she designed did not work well. She wrote:

"There are always some 'difficult' students in each class… too lazy … too disobedient, and … too passive, and so on… So far, providing various games is the best approach to handle those students and it, most of the time, works. However, when it doesn't, what I need to do is to make peace with the disappointment and do the backup plan: personal approach." (Palupi, R1)

That the teachers believed that they should always have alternative plans in class may be attributed to their realization of their perceived responsibility that they had management roles (Karavas-Dukas, 1995), in which they should organize, and manage the class. They might also see themselves as the ones responsible for creating classroom atmosphere (Karavas-Dukas, 1995). It could be seen from Nungky's, Murni's and Palupi's perceived efforts in how they tried to

be prepared in case their original plans did not work and from Murni's regret of not doing so one time. The teachers' perceived role as needs analysts who should be able to determine learners' ongoing needs and how to meet those needs (Gatbonton & Segalowitz, 2005) might also be one of the reasons why they believed alternative plans were needed in accordance with the needs of the learners. Palupi, for example, was aware that at some point activities she designeddid not work, and she decided to keep her students motivated to learn using affective approaches.

Theme 4: Teachers should give students affective approaches

Some teachers mentioned that it was necessary to let students know that they cared and paid attention to them. Two teachers labelled this as "personal approach" and another as "individual approach", yet both terms seemed to converge to mean teachers' approaches with regard to learners' feelings andemotions.

Tina, as seen in the excerpt below, acknowledged that she spent time conversing with her students who had repeated the same ICE level for several times and had some issues on attendance rate about personal life to make the atmosphere more relaxing for them. She wrote:

> "...on my first day… no one came. The next meeting…one student showed up … Then, there were two of them… both of them are repeaters [of ICE] who basically failed to pass the level due to the number of absences. Their competencies are also not that bad. So instead of havinga classical mode [of] class… use personal approach. We spent sometime to have a chit chat about their personal life in English. Even with a very limited vocabulary, they are encouraged to speak up." (Tina, R1)

Elsa, in comparison, had a record of her students' contacts, which the students willingly shared at the beginning of the semester, to reach them if needed, for example, to deliver important information. She noted that it was done to show them that the teachers cared about their learning.

> "The last was individual approach. I had my students' phone number or social media account, so I could easily reach them anytime. The aim was to give them attention… [We] care." (Elsa, R2)

Palupi, furthermore, as briefly mentioned in the previous theme, wrote about her success in implementing what she called "personal approach" in her class. It took a number of forms, such as remembering the students' names, motivating them, and giving them some awards of making progress. She wrote:

> "I did this [personal approach] several times, and it did work! My conclusion so far is that those students are actually students who need personal attention… either from the teacher, or from friends, or can be both… [I] memorize their names, and faces, and unique things about them… [I] talk to them after class… I motivate them by saying lovely words and I encourage them by saying that I believe they can be better. I do this several times, if necessary… [I] give award… Principally, it is 'making progress' award." (Palupi, R1)`

However, affective approaches seemed to not always work well. Nungky, for instances, wrote that being nice to her students despite their unsatisfactory

performance and attendance rate was not enough to make them attend the class. She wrote:

> "I responded them [students] nice[ly], at least I tried to keep being nice, friendly, and encouraging, hoping they would really come in the next meeting. In fact, they did not... I learned not to be compulsive in responding to students' low attendance [rate] since it can cause them [to] be resistant to me or even anxious… I… calm and friendly to them, they behaved nice[ly], though it did not make them come." (Nungky, R2)

From the above-mentioned excerpts, some points could be commented. First, the teachers' beliefs that they should give students affective approaches might stem from their beliefs about their caring roles as friends and supporters of their students (Karavas-Dukas, 1995). It might also overlap with their role as needs analysts (Gatbonton & Segalowitz, 2005) who should be able to determine and meet learners' needs, including their needs for attention and care. Even though the use of affective approaches seemed to not always work, as seen in Nungky's excerpt, as seen from Palupi's excerpt, teachers' attention and care could be seen as a motivating drive for learners, which in turn could create atmosphere conducive for learning (Karavas-Dukas, 1995).

Conclusion

As the conclusion, there are several important points that need to be highlighted. There were four main beliefs of ICE's teachers about their teaching roles. Firstly, they believed that they were responsible for designing various activities that promoted learning. This might be guided by their perceived roles as resource persons (Harmer, 1991), facilitators (Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Littlewood, 1981; Richards & Rodgers, 2001), as well as evaluators of learning (Karavas-Dukas, 1995). They tried to accomplish it through optimising the use of technology as teaching and learning media and providing additional activities and materials not available in the ICE hand-outs. Secondly, they also believed they should monitor students' progress and conduct appropriate assessments. Generally, this was in line with teachers' roles as evaluators (Karavas-Dukas, 1995), and controllers (Harmer, 1991). Third, they also believed that teachers should always be ready with alternative plans in case their original lesson plans did not work well. This belief might be guided by their perceived responsibility as the class manager (Karavas-Dukas, 1995), and needs analysts, who should always know what learners need at a specific moment in class and meet those needs (Gatbonton & Segalowitz, 2005). Finally, despite the possible unsatisfactory outcome, they also believed that teachers should let the students know that they paid attention to them and cared about their learning to keep them motivated, thus believing about their caring roles (Karavas-Dukas, 1995) and their role as needs analysts, sensitive to learners' affective needs (Gatbonton & Segalowitz, 2005).

Despite the results of the study, its limitations should be acknowledged. First, as this study used teachers' reflections as secondary data, while the absence of possible reflexivity (Bowen, 2009) could be considered one of the strengths, this study did not obtain participants' confirmations or further explanations about what

they wrote. In other words, this study relied on the reflections as the only source of data. Secondly, as a qualitative study, this study inherited the characteristics of qualitative studies which, despite all merits in investigating phenomena and truths through the participants' viewpoints (Bryman, 2012; Gray, 2014), could not be generalised to wider population (Gray, 2014). Thus, the results of this study were context-specific and might not be applicable to other contexts.

The following are some suggestions for future studies formulated based on the results of the study and in reflections of the limitations. First, in relation with the study's limitation of using teachers' reflections as the only source of data, future studies might consider using reflections as secondary data and teachers' focus groups sequentially. The focus groups conducted after secondary data analysis is to gain further understanding of some points that the teachers wrote in the reflections. Furthermore, even though, as mentioned previously, teachers' beliefs substantially affect their classroom practices (see Borg, 1998; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Pajares, 1992; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Rios, 1996), some authors did mention that at times there are discrepancies between what teachers believe they do and what they actually do in the classroom (E.g.: Farrell & Ives, 2015; Williams & Burden, 1997). Hence, it might be worthwhile to investigate teachers' beliefs as written in their reflections analysed as secondary data and their actual classroom practices through conducting class observations. This study could be conducted in the form of a case study involving two or three teachers.

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