Using distance education to deliver English instruction in Indonesia

Muhammad Yaumi

University of Northern Iowa
Abstract
This paper highlights using distance education to support students in learning English in Indonesia. The purpose is to discuss using distance education for English instruction in Indonesia, the cultural uniqueness of Indonesian students' learning styles, and a model of distance education to deliver English instruction in Indonesia. Library research involved resources relating to distance education and teaching English in the Indonesian culture. This research involved a variety of print references, electronic databases and a variety of Web resources. Research indicated that distance education in Indonesia has been implemented since the 1950s. The developmental history of distance education in Indonesia was classified into three phases; introductory, socialization, and innovation phases. It was recognized that there are many similarities between the learning styles of Indonesian students and the students in the western countries but typical cultures of learning are quite different. The typical cultures of Indonesian students' learning are audio-verbal learners. The author recommended using an integrated model of distance education to deliver English instruction in Indonesia.
USING DISTANCE EDUCATION TO DELIVER
ENGLISH INSTRUCTION IN INDONESIA

A graduate Research Paper
Submitted to the
Division of Instructional Technology
Department of Curriculum and Instruction
In Partial Fulfillment
Of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts
UNIVERSITY OF NORTHERN IOWA

by
Muhamad Yaumi
December, 2006
This Research Paper by: Muhammad Yaumi

Titled: Using Distance Education to Deliver English Instruction in Indonesia

has been approved as meeting the research requirement for the Degree of Master of Arts

Leigh E. Zeitz

Graduate Faculty Reader

1/5/07
Date Approved

Mary C. Herring

Graduate Faculty Reader

5/07
Date Approved

Sandra Alper

Head, Department of Curriculum and Instruction

5-5-07
Date Approved
ABSTRACT

This paper highlights using distance education to support students in learning English in Indonesia. The purpose is to discuss using distance education for English instruction in Indonesia, the cultural uniqueness of Indonesian students' learning styles, and a model of distance education to deliver English instruction in Indonesia. Library research involved resources relating to distance education and teaching English in the Indonesian culture. This research involved a variety of print references, electronic databases and a variety of Web resources. Research indicated that distance education in Indonesia has been implemented since 1950s. The developmental history of distance education in Indonesia was classified into three phases; introductory, socialization, and innovation phases. It was recognized that there are many similarities between the learning styles of Indonesian students and the students in the western countries but typical cultures of learning are quite different. The typical cultures of Indonesian students' learning are audio-verbal learners. The author recommended using an integrated model of distance education to deliver English instruction in Indonesia.
**TABLE OF CONTENTS**

Abstract ........................................................................................................................... iii

Introduction ..................................................................................................................... 1

Methodology .................................................................................................................. 5

Analysis and Discussion ............................................................................................ 7

Distance Education in Indonesia ................................................................................... 7

  Introduction Phase ....................................................................................................... 9

  Socialization Phase .................................................................................................... 12

  Innovation Phase ....................................................................................................... 14

English Instruction in Indonesia ................................................................................... 17

Uniqueness of Indonesian Students’ Learning Styles ..................................................... 23

Models of Distance Education and Implications for the English Instruction in Indonesia .................................................................................................................. 28

  Printed Materials ....................................................................................................... 35

  Radio and Telephone ................................................................................................. 35

  Audiotapes and Television .......................................................................................... 36

  Computer-Based Technology ...................................................................................... 36

Conclusions and Recommendations ............................................................................. 38

Conclusions ................................................................................................................... 38

Recommendations ......................................................................................................... 40

References .................................................................................................................... 43
LIST OF TABLES

Table | Page
---|---
1. The Number of Students of UT year 1996 to 2001 | 15
2. Communication System in Distance Education | 29
3. Three Models of Distance Education | 30
INTRODUCTION

Entering the new millennium, the issue of globalizing information and technology has brought profound challenges for developing countries. Various steps such as accelerating the improvement of human resources, providing the infrastructure for educational accessibility, and increasing the budget allocation in the education sector have become dominant matters of discussion. In Indonesia, the enthusiasm of governmental policy to welcome the Information Age can be identified by the evolution of the educational system from a centralized policy to one of regional autonomy. This policy has been stipulated through the Indonesian Educational Reform Act 22 of 1999, number 22 of 1999 concerning the regional autonomy and number 25 of 2000 act concerning the government and provincial autonomy (Departemen Dalam Negeri, 2001).

Besides committing to a regional policy of autonomy, the other strategic commitment towards accelerating the improvement of human resources in Indonesia was the introduction of English language teaching in schools from the primary level through the universities. This consideration was taken to modify the previous decree of the Minister of Education and Culture (now called the Ministry of National Education) number 096 of 1967, which stipulated English as the first foreign language for secondary education through university levels (Septy, 2000).

The modification of the governmental policy is meant to acknowledge the role of English as a means of global communication and as the language that is most commonly used to communicate about science and technology. Data indicates that 61% of the world information is written in English, French, and German. Seventy-two percent of the above group (about 44% of world information) is in the English language (Alwasilah, 1996). To
further emphasize the importance of English, Graddol (2000) predicted that in the year 2000 there were about a billion English learners, but a decade later, the numbers will have doubled.

Similar to Graddol's and Alwasilah's work, Jarvis (2004) studied classroom computer applications in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) courses in Higher Education. His research indicated that over 80% of the courses stored on the Internet are in English. He then questioned the implication of his findings about there being more non-native than native speakers of the English language. Diversity of context in terms of learners' age, nationality, and learning background has become a defining characteristic of English Language Teaching (ELT) today. It means that the only way to provide Indonesian students with the skills necessary to pursue information in the world is to teach them to master English as an international language.

Such promising indications, however, have not guaranteed successful English instruction. Dilemmas involving the huge Indonesian population, the large geographical expanse of Indonesia, and the minimal budget given to the education sector create a vicious endless circle that impacts the achievement of human resources in the country. Consequently, the complaints about teachers' quality, students' outcomes, and the changes in curricula that do not meet students' needs still leave a generic debate in the society. So, educating the 210 million people in the Indonesian population on five main islands, 30 archipelagoes, 13,667 registered islands and inlets of which 1,000 are inhabited (Ibrahim, 2005) will be very difficult if it is not established with workable educational practices. The implementation of a suitable educational model will rely on the political will of the government to determine a sufficient educational budget.
One of the educational models that has attracted the attention of Indonesian students currently is distance education. Distance education in Indonesia is a competitive alternative that can influence the growth of prospective human resources in Indonesia. It is not only useful for students who have geographical constraints but also for all socio-economical levels. Therefore, it is no longer limitedly offered in Open University (called Universitas Terbuka or UT) which is the university that totally practices distance education models but in many conventional universities as well. UT, however, dominates the highest amount of students. Pannen (2005) noted that in 1996 the UT was named as one of the mega universities in the world for having an enrollment rate of about 400,000 students. According to her calculations in 2003, the majority (95%) of UT students were working students and only 20% of the student population lived in remote areas.

The large number of students who involved in distance education indicates that distance education has been used as an alternative method for receiving education in UT. Therefore, a recent national law concerning the Indonesian educational system mentioned that distance education specifically as one of many choices available for Indonesians to obtain education. Distance education has been approved at any level from elementary to tertiary; from formal degree granting to continuing education (Pemerintah Republik Indonesia, 2005). In another words, distance education will be treated as being equal to other forms of education. In specific circumstances such as in the field of business, distance education is considered as an elite educational model because of having sophisticated and high technology for transferring knowledge between instructors and students.
Despite the success of distance education in terms of increasing the number of students, the quality is perceived as questionable. The educational institution has questioned the quality of the teaching learning process with respect to the interaction between teachers and students, teachers-students accommodation, teachers' feedback and students' achievement comparing face-to-face education (Belawati, Anggoro, Hardhono, and Darmayanti, 2002). In addition, the appropriate strategies used in distance education become challenging as well (Idrus, 2002). Implementing distance education can be challenging because there are many aspects need to be considered. These aspects include instructional delivery systems, students' learning styles and cultural variations, models of distance education, and the availability of technology support.

Based on the various perspectives of the background of English language teaching and the implementation of distance education in Indonesia as has been illustrated above, there are at least three questions that provide the basic framework of discussion in this paper. These questions are as follows:

1. How are distance education and English instruction presently accomplished in Indonesia?

2. What is culturally unique about Indonesian students' learning styles?

3. What model(s) of distance education will best deliver English instruction in Indonesia?
METHODOLOGY

The writer explored the University of Northern Iowa's library using UNISTAR in order to locate resources relating to distance education, English language teaching, and general reference materials to identify articles, magazines, journals, and newspapers. The writer used the ERIC database, Web-based search engines such as Yahoo and Google, and a database for the national library of Indonesian to search for relevant information.

In selecting the sources through ERIC database, the writer used two approaches. The first approach involved three general descriptors for the topic: “using distance education,” “English Instruction,” and “Southeast Asian setting.” The descriptor of Southeast Asian did not yield much information. Combining two terms; “distance education in Indonesia” and “English as a second language (ESL) in Indonesia” produced results.

The second approach involved combining subtopics of the descriptors: “distance education in developing countries,” “distance education and developing countries,” “characteristics of distance education and Indonesia,” “cultural unique and Indonesian students,” “learning styles and Indonesian students,” “model of distance education and Indonesia,” “Indonesian distance education model,” “English teaching strategies and Indonesia,” “English teaching methodology and Indonesia,” and “distance education and ESL in Indonesia.” These multiple descriptor combinations produced a number of relevant resources. The writer also used online dictionaries; English-Indonesian, Indonesian-English dictionaries, Longman dictionary of American English, the Distance Education Glossary, Webster’s dictionary and Roget’s thesaurus.

The writer collected resources through two basic methods. The first method involved a process of finding the sources through a digital search and the manual review of library
collections. This data was collected over three months. The second method involved the participation of the writer’s colleagues and professors. The writer’s colleagues in Indonesia were contacted to assist in acquiring Indonesia-specific documents. Professors were also asked for resources.

Under distance education, the data were classified into several sub-descriptors such as definition, developmental history, and characteristics. The data about English instruction were grouped into Indonesian government policy, curriculum changes, and methodology of English language teaching in Indonesia. The data about cultural uniqueness and learning styles were categorized into definition, approaches, and characteristics. Under the model of distance education, data were classified into models of distance education implemented in western countries and Indonesia.
ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The analysis of the pertinent research will be organized based upon the three research questions. It will address distance education and English instruction in Indonesia, culturally unique aspects of Indonesian learners, and the models for distance education in Indonesia. Yet, the discussion concerning the distance education and English instruction in Indonesia will be presented separately in order to have detailed pictures that delineate the proliferation of both disciplines.

Distance Education in Indonesia

Before describing scenarios of distance education in Indonesia, it is crucial to explore the operational definition of distance education to give a starting limitation covering the paper discussion.

In the early 1990s, distance education was considered as a generic name for a distant educational system that focused on using on air media like radio and teleconferencing (Anggoro, 1993). Perry and Rumble (1987) defined the technical term, distance education, as an instructional activity that does not need students’ physical presence in the classroom. Dan Coldeway (Simonson, Smaldino, Albright, and Zvacek, 2003) provided four useful approaches to understanding the framework of distance education. These approaches deal with variances in time and place. The four approaches include: same-time, same-place (ST-SP); different-time, same place (DT-SP); same-time, different place (ST-DP); and different-time, different-place (DT-DP). Implementing distance education to support English instruction is not only the combination of time and place but also the combination of time, place, and technology support. It involves understanding how technological tools such as hardware (computer, video, radio,
television, telephone) and software (word processing, spreadsheet, database, material generator, data collection and data analysis, graphics, atlases, dictionaries, and so forth) can be integrated into teaching to support student learning. Utama, Sagitri, and Tresna, (2000) stated that in distance education, technology application such as audio, video, data, and print-out should be combined with global information network (Internet) so that the students can access instructional materials whenever and wherever they are.

In 1998, the United States Distance Learning Association (USDLA) created a definition of distance education as the acquisition of knowledge and skills through mediated information and instruction. Distance learning encompasses all technologies and supports the pursuit of lifelong learning (Roblyer, 2004; 190). Roblyer also noted that most of the previous definitions of distance learning included two things as the key components; the first, instructor and learner separated by time and/or geographic distance and the second, the media (including electronic, print resources, voice communications, and combinations.

Based on the various definitions as have been given above, distance education can be understood from the following elements:

1. Teacher-student separation (Heinich, Molenda, Russell, & Smaldino, 2002).
2. Students' accountability and independence (Anggoro, 1993)
4. Using technological innovation as instructional media (Heinich, Molenda, Russell, & Smaldino, 2002)
These elements can be clearly seen through the historical concept of distance education as has been explained by Roblyer (2004) by dividing distance education into past, present, and future rationales and methods. In the past rationales and methods, he described the correspondence learning model. This approach used regular post office mail to asynchronously connect teachers and students through the educational institution. The teachers designed instruction such as lessons, readings, and assignments to be sent to the students. Then students were supposed to work on the assignments and mailed them back to the teachers. Different from the past model, present rationales and methods emphasize using electronic means to support instruction. This approach uses radio, television, satellite technology including fiber-optic communication system to connect teachers and students. He also noted that the future model of distance learning is an interactive video-and-audio model that involves the activities of teachers and students to exchange information as if they are in the same place.

If Roblyer's concept of distance education division is used for identifying the historical background of distance educational forms implemented in Indonesia, there are at least three phases of development that can be traced. They include the (1) introduction phase, (2) socialization phase, and (3) innovation phase. These three phases can be used to describe the history of distance education in Indonesia.

*Introduction Phase (1950s-1983)*

Historically, distance education in Indonesia was introduced in the beginning of the 1950s through school broadcasting in West Java (Zuhairi, 2001). Education was designed for those who could not continue studying due to the geographical barriers and economic problem that was impacted by Indonesian independence war. In 1955, the term of
distance education was used to describe *correspondence study*, which used the postal system to provide courses for upgrading teachers in order to improve the quality of teachers in the higher education (Setiyadi, Holiday, & Lewis, 1992). The uncertainty of political turbulence of the *old order* under the leadership of President Soekarno, however, impacted an educational system including distance education. The focus of governmental policy was mostly directed to the political situation rather than the sector of education (Miarso, 1989). Consequently, the improvement of distance education ran slowly and the form of correspondence study took longer to be implemented than other forms of distance education (Setiyadi, Holiday, & Lewis, 1992).

After the *New Order* government successfully took over the national authority from the *old order*, great attention was placed on improving human resources. The institution of an adequate financial budget given to the educational sector could observe these changes. The budget was taken from the result of selling domestic oil. Consequently, the wide use of distance education to support instructional practice was begun in 1970s (Zuhairi, 2001). It was characterized by developing a broadcasting program through radio at the primary school level. This was a successful model of independent learning (Miarso, 1989).

As was seen from the large amount of government support, students' enthusiasm, and widespread acceptance in society, this program was considerably successful although the emerging country was in the process of introduction. In another word, despite the implementation of the program was newly applicable in the country, its impact could be clearly seen in the acceptance of many parts (Anggoro, 1993). Unfortunately, the practice of distance education was entirely inspired by the great success of western models
(Marina, 1993). It means that many distance education designers adopted all of the concepts of the distance model without considering social, economic, and cultural background as well as psychological factors and the preparedness of the teachers. The advancement in the field of mass communication technology, however, inspired the Indonesian government to join the world of communication by launching a communication satellite, Palapa, on August 16, 1976. The Palapa satellite was the first sophisticated communication system in Asian countries (Ibrahim, 2005). For educators, such success in the field of mass communication technology can contribute new strategies for distance education development (Idrus, 2001).

In 1978 or two years after the Indonesia nation officially launched the use of satellite Palapa, a group of rectors (presidents) of ten government universities and teacher training institutes in the eastern part of Indonesia organized the Eastern Islands Universities Association (Shaw, 2002). The purpose was to promote the further development of its institutions through the sharing of ideas and resources. In addition, educational resources were very scarce in the eastern islands so that the institutes would not be able to advance rapidly. Association among the universities was the best solution to accommodate integrated productivity improvement.

Fortunately, the U.S. Agency for International Development initiated the AID Rural Satellite Program (RSP) in 1980. The main purpose of this project was to explore the potential of communication systems as a means of extending the educational resources in the remote and rural areas. The pilot project was administered in three developing countries, Indonesia, West Indies, and Peru (Shaw, 2002). The program received a warm reception from the rectors' forum and was well supported financially through the RSP.
This progressive change, however, was not fully implemented until UT was formally established.

_Socialization Phase (1984-1993)_

In 1984, distance education in Indonesia became very popular. It can be described through two interesting dimensions; the development of distance education model in the higher education and the introduction of distance education model in high schools. The first dimension refers to the role of the Indonesian Open University (Universitas Terbuka), which offered a distant instructional setting for delivering all courses. Panen (2005) stated that when UT was introduced in 1984, distance education was directed to higher education for recent high school graduates who could not go to conventional university due to economic and geographical barriers. UT was also provided for working teachers in order to upgrade the quality of their working. The second dimension deals with pilot project designed for high school students who lived in remote or urban areas and those who might work for living and help their parents during the school hours (Sadiman, 2003).

Similar to Panen (2005), UNESCO (2002) noted that the establishment of UT was designed to address many needs. It was designed to provide flexible and inexpensive education, reach people unable to attend face-to-face education, increase access to higher education, provide training in many areas demanded by economic and cultural development, and upgrade the qualifications of primary and secondary school teachers. The establishment of UT provided an institution that made distance education more accessible and reliable.
The UT enrollment records indicated that there were 270,000 applicants, but only 60,000 students could be admitted to the program (Anggoro, 1993). This was a fantastic amount compared with other new government universities in the country. In the same time, the universities located in the eastern part of Indonesia through the rector forum cooperating with RSP recommended using a satellite system that consisted of 11 sites linking nine of the 10 institutes in the Directorate General in Jakarta and Agriculture Institute at Bogor. Shaw (2002) noted that the University of Halu Oleo (UNHALU) in Kendari was not included in the plan because it was a very new university. The 11 sites to be connected were, from east to west:

1. Cenderawasih University (UNCEN) in Jayapura
2. Cenderawasih University Agriculture Campus (UNCEN-M) in Manokwari
3. Pattimura University (UNPATTI) in Ambon
4. Sam Ratulangi University (UNSRAT) and the Institute of Education (IKIP) in Manado
5. Tadulako University (UNTAD) in Palu
6. Hasanuddin University (UNHAS) in Makassar
7. Institute of Education (IKIP) in Makassar
8. Mulawarman University (UNMUL) in Samarinda
9. Lambung Mangkurat University (UNLAM) in Banjarmasin
10. Directorat Genderal of Higher Education (DIKTI) in Jakarta
11. Agricultural Institute (IPB) in Bogor (p.3).

In 1989, correspondence written courses were available through the Open Secondary Schools (OJSS) using a radio communication system (Marina, 1993). Until 1990, the
broadcasted subject matter included mathematics, natural sciences, social sciences, Indonesian and foreign languages, Pancasila moral education, religion, general education, and teaching methods. But, since 1991, the program has developed and delivers content to a teacher that is based on curriculum for the Two-Year-Diploma. This is equivalent to the program provided by the Open University. Data indicated that more than 89,000 primary school teachers from 14 provinces participated in this program (Idris, 1997).

In 1991, after reviewing the development of distance education in Indonesia, the Minister of Culture and Education decided to recommend guidelines for both conventional universities and UT to implement a distance education model. This provided an opportunity for the universities to build their commitment in doing integrated productivity improvement, providing quality education, and identifying the professional outcomes in all areas.

*Innovation Phase (1994-now)*

In this phase, the innovation of distance instructional delivery system became more sophisticated. Correspondence study and the Palapa satellite were not only used to deliver instructional materials but also audio, video, and even teleconference system. Idris (1997) stated that since 1994, the use of radio programs, audiocassettes, slide tape programs, and video programs to support educational practice in Open High Secondary schools (SMP Terbuka) seemed to be appealed. The program was also delivered through Indonesian Educational Television (TPI). More than 275 Educational Television programs were produced for SMP Terbuka (Sadiman, 2003).

In 1995, UT was named one of the mega universities in the world for having an enrollment rate at around 400,000 students (Pannen, 2005). However, the enrollment
could not constantly increase because of the monetary crisis that happened in 1996. The changes in the student body at UT can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1

The Number of Students of UT year 1996 to 2001

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>NUMBER OF STUDENTS</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>397,543</td>
<td>-0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>417,204</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>442,897</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>324,661</td>
<td>-18.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>289,248</td>
<td>-27.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>285,926</td>
<td>-28.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>236,203</td>
<td>-40.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Pannen, 2003:5)

As noted in Table 1, student enrollment increased 42,897 (0.10%) in 1997 and 42,897 (0.11%) in 1998. This was when UT was identified as one of mega universities in the world. The political situation in the country, however, became unstable in late 1998 so that the number of enrolled students dramatically decreased until 2002.

Since the establishment of the national electronic communication system called "Nusantara-21" in 1997, the Internet has been seen as a promising information and communication medium by many people in Indonesia (Belawati, Anggoro, Hardono, & Darmayanti, 2002). Belawati (1998) studied the feasibility of student counseling at a distance via the Internet. It showed the Internet to be an effective medium for
communicating with students. This advance in the electronic communication system has accelerated various models of distance education designed by universities.

Some universities in Indonesia developed their electronic communication networks by involving other institutions to support distance education. Hardono and Betawati (1999) said the University of Indonesia collaborated with the World Bank for the Global Development Learning Network (GDLN) project to practice videofonferencing technologies for the purpose of distance education. The Institute of Technology in Bandung (ITB) has initiated some innovations in e-learning. In addition, the Asian Initiative on Internet (AI3) Center, which collaborates with some Japanese universities, has offered online course and digital library development (now called Indonesian digital library network).

Two other universities, Gadja Mada University (UGM) in Yogyakarta and the Institute of Agriculture in Bandung (ITB) made preparations and offered small proportions of their programs via distance education, but did not open to the public because they still used a limited network system (Pannen, 2005). The same as UGM and ITB, University of Jember also developed web-based courses that were housed on the Directorate General of Higher Education (DIKTI) website. The other university that used the DIKTI website to develop web-based courses is Hasanuddin University which is located in the Eastern part of Indonesia (Shaw, 2002).

Looking at the three developmental phases of distance education as mentioned above, distance education in Indonesia is no longer limited to the disadvantage students who live in remote areas and those who have geographical barriers but has become a new trend and alternative choices beside conventional setting. In addition, sophisticated technology
supports, systematic instructional developments, and effective instructional delivery systems are the discrete characteristics that have been addressed to distance education. Here, distance education has taken an important role to bring forward the mission of educational equity for the whole people in Indonesia.

English Instruction in Indonesia

Under the control of the colonial system, Dutch and Japanese languages were officially taught and used in Indonesia, but the foreign language that was selectively chosen to be taught from primary school through the university has been English. The Indonesian nation made this decision due to the global reality of international communication which places English as a dominant language used in the world. Through the decree of the Minister of Education and Culture (now titled the Minister of National Education) number 096 of 1967, English was stipulated as the first foreign language for all Indonesian students from lower secondary education through university levels (Septy, 2000). There are two basic aims of the English instruction implemented in primary through senior high school levels: first, providing students the ability to read textbooks written in English at the higher education; second, the ability to speak English is important for those who want to get good jobs and career positions (Lie, 2004).

Different from the native English-speaking countries, English language instruction in Indonesia has been implemented through both formal and informal education. The government under the authority of the Department of National Education (DIKNAS) controls the formal education (Presiden Republik Indonesia, 2000). The government, therefore, has the prerogative to create policy to reform, innovate, and change the curriculum, strategies for teaching, textbooks, and issues dealing with educational policy.
Unlike formal education, informal education such as short courses, workshops, organizations, institutes, or non-government organizations manage seminars, privately.

Since the English language began to be formally implemented, Indonesia has seen a number of curricula changes. Septy, (2000) cited five sets of national curricula that were instigated from 1968 through 2000. They began with the 1968 curriculum and were followed by changes in curricula in 1975, 1984, 1987, and 1994. Alwasilah (2005) added the Kurikulum Berbasis Literasi (Literacy-based curriculum) as the 2004 curriculum. Accordingly, there have been six fundamental curricula changes since English Language Teaching (ELT) was formally introduced in formal education in Indonesia.

Throughout the curricula changes mentioned above, various approaches towards language instruction have been used based upon the identified needs in each curriculum. Huda (1999) stated that the 1968 curriculum took an audio-lingual approach based on the principles of behavior psychology. Sentence structure, oral drilling, reading aloud, and listening became the main focus of teaching rather than meaning and comprehension. The development of a methodological study in the English-speaking countries such as the United States of America, England, and Australia had brought profound impacts in the study of foreign language in Indonesia. Therefore, the strategy used in 1975 curriculum was changed to a mastery learning approach that still kept the structural concepts, but gave greater emphasis to pre-tests and post-tests.

In addition, Nio (1993) stated that the 1984 curriculum took a communicative approach that focused on achieving speaking and writing skills. Although this approach stressed the mastery of oral and written communication, reading became a central part in building speaking and writing skills. Jazadi (1999) used the term, reading focused
communicative approach to indicate reading skills as the central part of other skills. In another circumstance, Huda (1997) claimed that the reading-focused communicative approach used to deliver 1984 curriculum was a characteristic of communicative approaches implemented in Indonesia. Therefore, she stated that it was an Indonesian context of communicative approach.

The 1994 curriculum continued with the communicative approach by bringing forward a simple modification. The modification involved communicative competence that put more emphasis on the semantic element. Both Jazadi (1999) and Huda (1999) admitted that although the modification of the communicative approach has been done, the implementation of the 1994 curriculum depended on the reading skill. Jazadi, however, expressed his disagreement toward the claim of those who said that the dependence on reading skill was considered because English is viewed more as a foreign than a second language in the context of English as a foreign language. Unfortunately, he did not explicitly explain why the communicative approach was centralized in reading skill. Without simplifying the concept of communicative approach, the reading skill is viewed as an integrated part with the other skills such as speaking, listening, and writing. The mastery of English depends on the ability in those skills. However, English is still considered a foreign language in Indonesia so that the students’ mastery of each skill is still unequal. Some students might be better in speaking rather than writing and listening skills but the others might be different. That's why, reading skill is considered as the main skill as the source of inspiration to build the other skills.

Unlike the 1994 curriculum, the 2004 curriculum, Kurikulum Berbasis Literasi (Literacy-Based Curriculum) emphasized discourse competence. Alwasiah (2005)
explained the eight principles of literacy education in *Kurikulum Berbasis Literasi* (KBL). The first is the oral-written principle that emphasizes oral as well as written communication skills. The second includes semantic and interpretation principles, which focus on personal, interpersonal, ideational, textual, and transactional meaning. Students have a chance to make interpretation and meanings from evidences around them. The third principle is language utilization, which guides the students to use the language in real world situations. The language that has been learned from the instructional sources should be used to require learners to make meanings, interpretation, and even learn lessons from the communication experience. The fourth principle is collaboration. This requires that other students get involved in the process of transferring knowledge. The knowledge can be built through working collaboratively among the teachers, students, or other hands.

The fifth principle is convention. The convention emphasizes using the language to communicate based upon the general rules and values or norms that are acceptable for the society. The sixth principle is cultural knowledge. Teachers are supposed to introduce cultural comprehension to the students because learning the English language involves learning the culture that integrates into the language. The seventh principle is problem solving that focuses on overcoming the problem encountered inside and outside the classroom. Students are given challenging tasks to make them active at looking for the instructional resources. The final principle is reflection. Through this principle, students are trained to understand themselves and other students. In other words, reflection can bring the students to measure their ability and take lessons from what the others bring forward (Alwasilah, 2005).
Based on this brief history of English language instruction in Indonesian education, students’ English mastery after graduating from senior high schools has always been a goal of the educational system. Satisfactory results in students’ capabilities, however, have not been achieved. Widiastono (2004) stated that the majority of general high school alumni were not able to speak English although English language teaching had been implemented from primary schools through university levels. Consequently, the perception of many people toward the failure of English language teaching in Indonesia is difficult to deny. Jazadi (1999), in his preliminary investigation of some high school English course books, found three fundamental problems. The first problem was a mismatch between learners’ needs and the teaching materials. The themes and topics about agriculture, geography, culture, etc. were used rather than popular science interests that could be used to stimulate classroom discussion.

The second problem he found was in the final exams (Evaluasi Belajar Tahap Akhir or EBTANAS). The tests were based upon multiple-choice type questions answering question from reading text. Ironically, the tests were not addressed to examine the students’ mastery of speaking skill whereas the curriculum had been emphasized to the aspect of writing and speaking. The third problem was associated with the size of classes. One classroom usually consisted of 30 to 40 students who were taught by only one teacher in a very limited time period. Consequently, students seemed to lack opportunities to practice the target language in an instructional setting. Lie (2004) and Widiaston (2004) tended to see the failure of English language teaching in Indonesia on the part of the professionalism of the teachers whose teaching skills were far from the desired level. He also cited that a governmental policy was seen as a problem because the
Ministry of Education was constantly changing curriculum and methods of teaching without paying full attention to the resulting outcomes through research and adequate socialization of the curriculum changes.

Ediyana (2002) found another problem that dealt with developing curriculum, making innovation of teaching strategies, and providing technology to support instructional practice that were not followed by the effort to implement professional development for teachers (Ediyana, 2002). Therefore, Widiaston (2004) recommended various ways to increase the teachers' professional development; they included intensive courses, workshops, seminars, and opportunities that provide experience of overseas education and even using distance education. In identifying innovation of teaching strategies and adapting western concept of learning models, Sahertian (2004) recommended using the research about learning styles, cultural context, social values, and ideology that should be basis of adaptation process.

In terms of implementing distance education to deliver English instruction in Indonesia, Septy (2002) noted that media and technology such as radio, telephone, satellite communication system, video, television, and many others have already come to our daily lives. She said that we would be left behind if those media and technology have not yet been modified to support instructional delivery. Similar to Septy (2002), Bruce & Hogan (1998) illustrated how technology integrates into our daily lives; “as technologies embed themselves in everyday discourse and activity, a curious thing happens. The more we look, the more they slip into the background. Despite our attention, we lose sight of the way they shape our daily lives” (p.270).
The Internet (of which computer-mediated communication forms a major aspect) is changing the language because it gives rise to new vocabulary, but more importantly because the medium and its users drive the language in certain directions (Crystal, 2001). In Indonesia, using technological innovations have gone hand-in-hand with the growth of the English language teaching practiced in both formal and informal education in spite of the fact that its usage has not been as popular as in advanced countries. This limitation, however, indicates a need for the implementation of instructional practice.

Uniqueness of Indonesian Students’ Learning Styles

Learning styles are often identified as psychological processes within an individual’s development. Reid (1995) said, “the term, learning style, refers to an individual’s natural, habitual, and preferred ways of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills” (p.viii). Scarpaci and Fradd (1985) defined learning styles as “ways in which individuals perceive, organize, and recall information in their environment” (p.184). Based on the definition, learning style should be considered as a manner of an individual’s mental processes in relation to surrounding events.

Swanson (1995) claimed that the term, cognitive style, should be used rather than learning styles. Cognitive styles are perceived as “cognitive characteristic modes, superordinate construct cognitive operation, and intrinsic information processing pattern of one’s intellectual and perceptual activities” (p.1).

The definition for the terms “learning and cognitive styles” seem to be used interchangeably. However, Liu (1999) identified the technical differences between the two yet maintained the agreement of their similarities. The first difference is that cognitive styles are more related to theoretical or academic research, while learning styles
are related to practical application. The second difference deals with the number of style elements involved. Cognitive styles are more related to a bipolar dimension, while learning styles are not necessarily extreme.

Learning styles correlate significantly with language learning strategies. Abraham, (1983) stated that there is a relationship between field dependence-independence and language learning. Wyss (2002) explained the advantages and disadvantages of field independence and dependence learning styles that apply to second language acquisition. The field independence learners tend to involve profound thought such as analytical, comprehensive, and focused activities. The field dependence, on the other hand, tends to involve higher-order thinking to achieve everyday language communication. In addition, Kang (1999) found that English as a Second Language (ESL) learners vary not only in terms of their purposes for learning English, but also in terms of individual differences in learning due to educational, ethnic, and cultural diversities. Educators, therefore, should consider appropriate instruments to identify the students' learning styles and at the same time provide instructional solution to address the students' diversities.

In distance education, learning styles are seen as essential parts of instructional components. Liu (1999) recommended considering four aspects of distance education design associated with learning styles. They are; (1) instructional planning, (2) learning environment construction, (3) teaching method selection, and (4) evaluation administration (p.10). Instructional planning involves various appropriate instruments that can be used to meet students' learning styles; terminal objectives, which emphasize students' learning preferences and non-preferences; and instructional preparation, which covers instructional sources, approaches, media, and evaluation model.
Learning environmental construction includes online contact and diversified learning styles as supportive learning environments. Online contact is designed to bridge the relationship among the students and between the students and teachers, while diversified learning styles become a center of consideration to identify students' learning characteristics. In selecting the teaching method, instructional materials and teaching styles should match students' learning styles. Assessment and feedback are used to implement the evaluation administration portion.

There are many approaches used to identify students' learning styles. Papp (2001) described five approach models including (1) Kolb's Learning Style Inventory (LSI), (2) Approaches and Study Skills Inventory for Students (ASSIST), (3) Index of Learning Styles (ILS), (4) Learning Styles Questionnaire (LSQ), and (5) Academic Self-Efficacy Scale. Similar to this division, Liu (1999) stated there are five major dimensions of learning styles. They are; field independence and dependence, holistic and analytic, sensory preference, hemispheric preference, and Kolb's learning style model. However, not all those kinds have been implemented to identify Indonesian students' learning styles associated with ESL and distance education.

Two senior lecturers, Nur and Ruru, at the Institute of Teacher Training and Education (now, called Makassar State University or UNM) and Hasanuddin University (UNHAS) used Barsch's learning style inventory and the Brain-Dominance inventory in EFL classes (Davis, Nur, & Ruru; 1994). The Barsch's LSI was used to evaluate in what degree an individual is a visual, auditory, or tactile learner, while brain-dominance was used to find an individual's performance by percentages of left or right brain dominance and relate the scores to logical, organized, and disciplined learners. The study took a
sample of 53 students from UNM and 50 students from UNHAS. The results of the study indicated that the Barsch Learning Style Inventory classified 68 (66%) of the students were predominantly visual. These either had a clear visual preference, or visual was so closely combined with another preference that the difference was not significant. The Brain Dominance Inventory showed that 49 (47.2%) students had a bilateral score or a score so close in the slight preference category that it was barely different. If the remaining 29 (28.15%) who also had scores in the category of slight left preference, and 9 (8.7%) additional students who had a score in the slight preference right category are added, the total of students who are either bilateral or in a slight preference category comes to 87 (84.5%).

Harvey and Harvey (1995) conducted research on learning styles and readiness for self-directed learning of Indonesian students. The study used two approach models; Kolb’s LSI and Gugliemino’s Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS). LSI model was used to measure learning styles of 395 fulltime students of Universitas Terbuka (Open University) and SDLRS was used to measure self-directed learning of 600 fulltime students of Universitas Terbuka (UT). Students representing all of the colleges were involved. The result of the study indicated that 218 (55%) of 395 questionnaires were completed and returned for LSI and 417 (69%) of 600 questionnaires were completed and returned for the SDLRS. The conclusion of the study was that Indonesian students who attended school through distance education in UT were similar to those reported in western studies and their readiness for self-directed learning is average. The relationships among learning styles, self-directed learning, and achievement are mixed.
Another study concerning Indonesian students' learning styles was studied by Reid (1987) who found that Indonesian students studying in the United States identified auditory and kinesthetic learner characteristics as major learning style preferences; visual, tactile, and individual learner characteristics as minor learning styles preferences; and group learner characteristics as undesirable styles of learning. The conclusion of the study was that "Indonesian students appeared to be the most closely related to native English speakers in terms of major, minor, and negative learning style preferences" (Reid, 1995, p.98-99).

Despite Indonesian students having similar learning styles to those in western countries; cultural differences in learning may be different. Lie (2004) noted that it has been a generic consensus that Indonesian students have a *hearing-talking* typical culture of learning rather than *reading-writing* tradition. Novera (2004) studied Indonesian postgraduate students studying in Australia. One of the important issues focused on the study was the cultural difference in learning that can be a barrier for Indonesian students. The result of the study said that Indonesia is one Asian country that highly values 'power distance'. Power distance involves "how a culture deals with status inequality and authority; the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed inequality" (Hofstede, 1997, p.28. Scollon and Scollon (1995) gave the examples of power distance. They said that in social interactions most Asian students are conscious of "who is older and who is younger, who has a higher level of education and who has lower level, who is in a higher institutional or economic position and who is lower, or who is teacher and who is student" (p.81). This inequality influences the relationship between teachers and students.
in distance education. Students become afraid of interrupting the teachers' speaking, ashamed to ask questions, and doubtful to have different opinion with the teachers. Consequently, there is a gap between teachers and students relationship and this must be considered in designing a distance education model that will be successful in the Indonesian culture.

The Novera study (2004) found various explicit differences between the Indonesian culture and Australia. According to Novera, Indonesians are expected to obey and to respect older people by using a particular language code such as Pak or Bapak (sir) and Bu or Ibu (madam) to refer to a person who is senior to them. This is not the way to call the people in Australia as well as in western cultures who directly refer to the professors' by name. In addition, interrupting lectures in the middle of a presentation is considered rude, and criticizing the lecturers is even worse. The students have the right to speak as soon as the professors open a discussion session after the presentation. This is why students' behavior tends to be passive and quiet in the classroom setting.

Models of Distance Education and Implications for English Instruction in Indonesia

Models of distance education can be described through communication delivery systems of instructional materials in relation to the use of technology for the purpose of learning. Simonson, Smaldino, Albright, and Zvacek (2003) presented a model of communication in distance education that is called Taxonomy of Distance Education Technologies. This taxonomy can be divided into correspondence study, prerecorded media, two-way audio, two-way audio with graphics, one-way live video, two-way audio/video, and desktop two-way audio/video (p.90). The model for distance communication delivery systems is described in the Table 2.
Table 2
Communication System in Distance Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MODELS OF DISTANCE EDUCATION</th>
<th>TECHNOLOGY USAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Correspondence study</td>
<td>Regular post office mail, copy machines, electronic mail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prerecorded Media</td>
<td>Audiotapes and videotapes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two-way Audio</td>
<td>Telephone and radio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two-way Audio with Graphics</td>
<td>Computer network</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One-way Live Video</td>
<td>Television and video transmission system such as microwave, ITFS, and Satellite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two-way Audio, One-way Video</td>
<td>Television, Video, and Toll-free telephone system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two-way Audio/Video</td>
<td>Telecommunication network such leased telephone lines (T1), fiber-optics network (DS3), and microwave network.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desktop Two-way audio/video</td>
<td>Multimedia computer with camera and microphone, high speeds network connection.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Modified from Simonson Smaldino, Albright, and Zvacek, 2003, p.91).

Similar to the distance communication model described in Table 2, Roblyer (2004) historically divided distance education models into three rationales and methods that he called; past, present, and future. Past rationales and methods have used correspondence study, print materials, videotapes and instructional television to deliver education at
distance. Current rationales and methods evolved due to growth in the use of instructional technologies such as electronic means or the Internet network. Future rationales and methods involve a *life-like* instructional environment that is intentionally designed to foster interaction between teachers and students. It is similar to face-to-face relationships because of using interactive video-and-audio systems. Interactive communication enables teachers-students relationship to exchange information as if they are in the same place. It engages compressed video and fiber-optic cables to connect sites used to implement the distance education.

In 1997, the Institute of Distance Education at the University of Maryland divided distance education into three models; model A: *distributed classroom*, model B: *independent learning*, and model C: *open learning*. Table 3 describes three models of distance education including description and characteristics in distant teaching and learning process.

**Table 3**

Three Models of Distance Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MODELS</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION &amp; CHARACTERISTICS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Distributed Classroom</td>
<td>• Involving synchronous communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Providing number of sites</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Students may enroll at any sites convenient to them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Institutions are able to serve a small numbers of students in each location.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence Learning</td>
<td>• There is no class session; students study independently based on guidelines in the syllabus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open Learning Classroom</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction may exist in other circumstances</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class presentation would be printed materials, audio, and videotapes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional materials are designed for several years and often revised by comprehending students' need.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation of course content is through print, computer disk, or videotape that can be accessed at any time in any places.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course materials are used for more than one semester.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students come together periodically in groups in specified locations for instructor-led class session through interactive technologies.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class sessions are for students to discuss and clarify concepts and engage in problem solving activities, group, simulations, and other applied learning exercises.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from Model of Distance Education Maryland University).

Models of distance education in Indonesia were adopted from the distance education model practiced in western countries. Ramanujam (2001) stated that the planners of UT heavily depended on the western models and the western consultants from United Kingdom (England), Canada, and the United States of America. However, it
is not only designed for adult learners but also for high school levels because of geographical and economical constraints. Sadiman (2003) found that there have been 34 open high schools throughout Indonesia and based on the characteristics of distance education the schools rely on self-study. As the consequence of limitations in technology support, the use of technology varies from one school to another and in particular subject matters as well. Sadiman (2003) also stated that nine subject areas including mathematics, biology, English language, Indonesian language, physics, Pancasila moral education, geography, economics, and national history were presented in print modules, while the four non-academic subjects such as arts, physical education and health, religion, and vocational skills were presented in the form of pamphlets. These pamphlets contained individual lessons and summaries of each lesson. Now, print modules have replaced the pamphlets. These modules contain more detail and can be modified to fit a student's individual needs (p.3).

The print materials were supplemented with audiovisual materials, such as slide-tape programs, audiotapes, and radio programs and then print materials are developed into videotape program as has been performed today. A teacher's guide and students' guide to facilitate utilization accompanied each audiovisual supplement. That is the role of Communications Technology Center for Education and Culture that has been established in several cities in Indonesia. Furthermore, Sadiman (2003) stated that although the distance high school students learned from print materials, they also hoped to learn from radio programs based on the given schedule because instructional radio program can be listened to at each technology center. Instructional radio broadcasts were designed to improve students' audio communication competence as an aid to learning English,
present subject content in more interesting ways, develop imagination in students, assist
students to consolidate the subject content studied through print modules, and dive
essential points greater emphasis (Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, 1989).

Since Nusantara-21 (the Indonesian electronic communication facility) was built in
1997, the use of computer and electronic media such as the Internet network system to
support distance education became gradually well known. There have been many efforts
to make distance education more effective. One of the efforts involved redesigning the
tutorials. Belawati, Anggoro, Hardhono, and Darmayanti (2002) designed tutorials using
the Internet and fax-Internet technologies. The tutorials were provided exclusively to UT
students throughout Indonesia. The Internet tutorials maximized the use of email list as a
model of communication. One or more tutors taught every single course and each tutor
was responsible to teach at least five students using. While fax tutorials used fax
machines as a means of communication. Unlike face-to-face conventional classroom, the
implementation of tutorials, students’ participant rate and tutor responsiveness rate
evaluation were conducted through the Internet and fax-Internet.

Based on various distant instructional experiences that have been implemented both
in high school and university levels, the models of distance education have given a
significant contribution to the history of distance education delivery in Indonesia in spite
of the quality of the outcomes still becomes the basis of controversial debates in the
country. The significance of the contributions can be viewed from the perspective of
students’ amount that live in rural areas and those who have financial problems can
experience adequate education through distance education.
The selection of a distance education model to deliver English instruction can be adapted through comprehensive observation of the instructional media availability considering the learning styles and cultural characteristics of Indonesian learners. Ely (2003) suggested some points to be considered in selecting appropriate media. They are; easy access for students, matching with objectives, easy to use, and passing certain tests before incorporating it into the distance scheme (p.4). The tests include the following questions; will the learner have access to the medium at home, work or in a community setting? Does the access include the necessary software? Can the cost of the material be justified, that is, is it cost effective for the instructor to produce and for the students to acquire? In terms of selecting appropriate media to deliver English instruction, Roblyer (2004) recommended using the following assumptions to select technology as a teaching tool in order to reach the ability of multiple language skills. The assumptions are:

1) Student center and developmental appropriate instruction
2) Integrated English skills instruction
3) Interactive and meaningful activities
4) Content integrated instruction
5) Real life application
6) Assisted proficiency standards (p.238).

Based on the models of distance education that were implemented to deliver instructional materials including English subject matter in Indonesia as mentioned in the three phases of development above, the instructional media that have been used are printed materials; radio, telephone, and audiotapes; videotapes and television; and computer-based technology. The application of these media, however, has been used
separately to support instructional delivery. In order to have a specific description of each instructional medium, the following explanation is discussed;

**Printed Materials**

Seels and Richey (1994) used the term *print technologies* to refer to printed materials. The earliest model of distance education in Indonesia is correspondence study that primarily used the printed materials for supporting teaching and learning process (Pannen, 2005). Syllabus, study guide, lessons, readings, and assignments are sent to the students through regular post office and electronic mails. For students who cannot access the Internet connection system, the printed materials are mailed through the post office. On the other hands, the printed materials are sent through electronic mail for those who can easily access the internet system (Utama, Sagitri, Tresna, 2000).

**Radio, Telephone and Audiotapes**

Besides printed materials, models of distance education that have been delivered to support the English instruction in Indonesia were radio and telephone technologies (Idrus, 2001). Instructional media is used to improve students’ audio communication competence of English language, present subject content in more interesting ways, develop students’ imagination, assist students to consolidate the subject content studied through printed modules, and give essential points greater emphasis (Sadiman, 2003). In addition, radio as a synchronous medium can be listened at the same time and in different locations by the students. The instructors can give students some additional tasks dealing with English program broadcasted through Australian radio, Singapore, England, and even American radio (Pannen, 2005).
The weakness of radio in distance education, providing just one-way communication, will be supported by audio two-way communication through the telephone. The limitation of opportunity to motivate students through printed materials can be enhanced by the use of both radio and telephone (Idris, 1997).

Sadiman (2003) stated that recorded tapes or cassettes offered a lot of times for the students to use rather than radio and telephone that give a few opportunities for the students to interact. Students can listen to the recorded materials at any time and in any places they want. The students can also read through printed and recorded materials as wells. The confusing points can be asked through telephone when the instructional materials are presented.

**Television**

Broadcast television utilizes a wide bandwidth to ensure quality reception" (Kuntz, 1998, p.13). In Indonesia, students can watch English instructional programs through Indonesian instructional Television (TPI) at the same time in different places. The instructors can design some parts instructional materials that directly link to TPI program (Idris, 1997).

**Computer-Based Technology**

English Language Teaching (ELT) has been with us for many years and its significance continues to grow, fuelled, partially at least, by the Internet (Jarvis, 2004). Computer mediated communication (CMC) can allow for either synchronous or asynchronous communication (Chapelle, 2003). CMC activities can involve a variety of participant configurations including one individual sending messages to another, one individual sending to many others, groups sending to other groups, etc. It seems that
technology innovations have gone hand in hand with the growth of English as the means of communication. Therefore, the computer has a great impact in English language teaching.

According to Jarvis (2004), computers in ELT can be viewed from two perspectives. Firstly, computer-assisted language learning (CALL) was developed to integrate the pedagogical applications of the technology. Second perspective was the use of computers for assisting and understanding what constitutes the English language and how it works. Yet, although both CMC and CALL have been implemented to support English instruction in Indonesia, electronic tutorials become integral part that should be provided in order to increase students' potential of using technology (Belawati, Anggoro, Hardono, & Darmayanti, 2002).
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions

Some key fundamental concepts of distance education in relation to English instruction emerged in the literature review. The strong commitment to accelerate the improvement of productivity in human resources in Indonesia has influenced the historical background of distance education. From the historical perspectives, distance education is viewed from three phases of development; the introductory phase, which took place from the 1950s to 1983, the socialization phase from the 1984 to 1993, and the innovation phase from the 1994 through now. Correspondence study and satellite Palapa are categorized as instructional delivery systems in the introductory phase, radio communication system in the socialization phase, and audiocassettes, slide tape program, video, television, Nusantara 21 electronic communication system, and videoconferencing technology are used to deliver instructional messages in the innovation phase.

The Indonesian government decided that the English language, as the primary foreign language, should be taught from the primary through the university level. Curriculum and English language strategies have been changed five times without first comprehensively studying the students’ acceptability. Some innovations in English language teaching have provided the basic framework for using developmental studies to make adaptations in curriculum and teaching strategies.

The Indonesian students’ learning styles are dominantly visual, auditory, and kinesthetic but their typical cultures of learning are audio-verbal learners. Indonesian students learn better through audio experiences than reading activities. It is necessary for educational delivery systems to align with the students’ learning styles.
The mission of improving human resources and educational rights has given the Indonesian people a new awareness for implementing distance education in order to meet the needs of the students who have financial barriers and those who live in rural areas. Indonesian government has run an important role to bring forward the distance education equal or even higher than conventional education. Developing technologies and adopting various distance education models from western (United Kingdom, Canada, and the United States of America) practices were continuously conducted. Currently, distance education in Indonesia is practiced in many conventional universities and high school levels. It is no longer only provided for students who have financial barriers and those who live in rural areas but even those who are higher or richer in social-economic status as well.

Despite various models of distance education such as correspondence study, satellite Palapa, radio communication system, audiocassettes, slide tape program, video, television, Nusantara 21 electronic communication system, and videoconferencing technology have been implemented in many subject matters, the model of distance education that have been specifically used to deliver English instruction in Indonesia performed the following instructional media and technologies. They are; printed materials, radio and telephone, audiotapes and television, and computer-based technology. Unfortunately, the application of the instructional technologies tended to be implemented separately. In another words, the use of the technologies to deliver English instruction coordinated in their implementation.
Recommendations

Distance education for Indonesia should not be entirely adopted from the western models. It should be modified and adapted by basing it upon the social values, ideologies, learner characteristics, and cultural differences in Indonesia. The involvement of some experts such as educational sociologists, anthropologists, psychologists, religion scholars, and some others is imperative in modifying and adapting the models. The purpose is to identify the western social values and ideologies that are not contradictory with the values in Indonesia. The studies surrounding learner characteristics and cultural differences of Indonesian students should become integral parts in enriching the developmental process.

Before changing the curriculum, it is crucial to have a comprehensive assessment of the existing curriculum. Any weaknesses found in the previous program of study should be corrected in the new curriculum. In another words, there must be some processes used before restructuring the curriculum. These processes include (a) making comprehensive studies about the implemented curriculum, (b) improving professional development of certain stakeholders, (c) providing sufficient funding, and (d) promoting an acceptance of the change process. Comprehensive studies will involve a sequence of activities such as reviewing longitudinal evidence, disaggregating the important data, and cross-tabulating information about the previous curriculum to identify specific advantages and disadvantages. Professional development must be integrated into the introduction of a new curriculum. This will require coordination between the Ministry of Education and the practitioners in academic institutions. Improving education is an expensive process and the public representatives must recognize this. They must provide financial support
for building a strong infrastructure for education. Finally, promoting curriculum changes at all levels of education can be a difficult process. It must involve all educational stakeholders so that it will be more readily accepted by those involved.

English language teaching strategies should be taught separate from the curriculum. Distance education requires teachers or instructors to be knowledgeable in various teaching methodologies. Comprehensive instruction will enable English teachers to select suitable approaches that should be implemented in various distance education settings.

Considering the varying access to technology media, students' learning styles, cultural diversity, and the multiple levels of education that are involved, the suitable model for delivering English instruction throughout Indonesia must be an integrated distance education model. The integrated model is the cohesion of various models of distance education that is used to support a particular purpose. Here, the particular purpose will be to deliver English instruction in Indonesia. The term, cohesion, does not involve using all of the components of each model, but only the suitable parts that can be combined from each medium. This researcher recommends that the Indonesian distance education program be a complementary blend of printed materials along with other instructional media such as audio (radio, telephone and audiotapes), video (television), and computer-based learning (Internet or web-based learning.)

It is true that not all students can access the World Wide Web and multimedia technology. Yet, media such radio, television, and video are becoming common even in remote places in Indonesia. In addition, the infrastructure or the facility of electricity is now being provided even in small villages. The problem is that the technologies have not yet been intentionally designed for the purpose of education instead of the general
purpose for entertainment. It is necessary for creating a system that will support instructional media.

Therefore, the integrated distance education model can be implemented for two populations: (1) students who live in urban areas and (2) those who live in small cities and remote areas. Students who live in urban areas will enjoy distance education that is implemented using higher levels of integrated technology. This can involve interactive web-based communication, teleconferencing, and other on-line services. Those who live in remote areas may be served best through mail correspondence and other lower level technologies. This might include delivering syllabi, study guides, lessons, reading tasks, and assignments through regular postal mail. At the same time, these print materials can be augmented with videocassettes or instructional programs broadcasted through television and radio.

The integrated model of distance education can be effectively implemented in all areas, if all educational stakeholders are involved in fulfilling the mission of distance education. The government should provide sufficient funds. Administrators and principals should research their programs for improving the educational system. Teachers and instructors should develop their knowledge and abilities through professional development. Professors and researchers should actively study ways to innovate and reform the distance educational models in ways that best fit the needs of Indonesian learners.
REFERENCES


