Home, school, and community factors on Indonesian secondary students' self-identity changes

Ignatius Harjanto[1*], Anita Lie[2], and Juliana Wijaya[3]

[1,2]*English Department, Widya Mandala Catholic University Surabaya, Kalijudan 37 Surabaya, East Java, Indonesia*
[3]*Department of Asian Languages and Cultures, University of California Los Angeles, 290 Royce Hall Box 951540, Los Angeles, California, 90095-1540, The United States of America*

ABSTRACT
This study examines the effects of home, school, and community factors on Indonesian secondary students' self-identity changes in relation to their use of English. The subjects of this research were 1707 Indonesian high school students from four big cities in Indonesia. The instrument was a questionnaire on the influence of English exposure at home, school, and community and six categories of self-identity changes: self-confidence, subtractive, additive, productive, split, and zero changes. The analysis showed that there were three noticeable findings, they were (1) the issue of self-identity change on Indonesian students was not evident, (2) the greatest influence on the six self-identity indicators came from community factors altogether although slightly, and (3) the biggest influence of all was home factors on the subjects' self-confidence. A conclusion is then made with a recommendation.

Keywords: Identity; identity formation; self-identity change; self-confidence

INTRODUCTION
The use of English among Indonesian high school students in big cities has been more widespread. Furthermore, preference for popular Western cultures delivered in English has become so massive in urban areas. Some are concerned that the increasing use of English will corrode the Indonesian language use and cultural identity.

It is inevitable that English exposure is of crucial importance in enhancing the success of English learning. In Indonesia, English is a compulsory foreign language in secondary schools (Kemendikbud, 2013). The contents of the English textbooks are also strongly related to Western cultural background. Even, joint-cooperation schools use English-medium textbooks for some of the school subjects. Recently, many regular schools in urban areas encourage their content subject teachers to also learn and practice English at school. Therefore, the students are exposed to English through English and non-English subjects in some regular high

schools. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has been applied in joint-cooperation schools and universities in Indonesia.

At these schools English learning practices and rich English exposures are not only limited to English courses but also from English environment at schools such as announcements, informal talk with teachers, books, magazines, and newspapers. Many extra-curricular activities such as English clubs and English debates have increasingly been popular among high school students. This supports the notion that outside-of-class English activities were proven to contribute to students' English listening comprehension performance (Yin, 2015).

Learning and exposures to knowledge and language are believed to begin in the family. The environment and family background play a vital role in the learning process. Cheung and Pomerantz (2012) found that parental participation in their children's education contributed to the success of their children's

---

* Corresponding Author
  Email: harjanto@ukwms.ac.id

educational accomplishment. In particular, parental participation in the form of autonomous motivation would be more effective than controlling parental involvement. Cheung and Pomerantz (2012) viewed that parents' high educational attainment had strong influence on their children's learning achievement.

Besides school, home and community factors take significant role to the success of English learning and acquisition. According to Dixon, Zhao, Quiroz, and Shin (2012), home and community factors consisting of parental educational achievement, parent language exposure, television programs, and language spoken at home strongly affected children's language progress. Investigating the importance of family capital, Li (2007) found that parents' academic backgrounds, their careers, and their sociability level into the members of the target society affected their children's English education. English reading materials, audio and video educational resources, TV and newspapers were some of the effective capital investments for children's learning. Li's findings were in line with Rahman's (2015) which showed that parental education, involvement, encouragement, and financial factors contributed to children's second language acquisition.

English is promoted as a modern means of communication while Indonesian is used to unify the nation and local languages are used to shield 'tradition' or 'historical' identity. Promotions of English through popular culture and socio-cultural icons have led to the increasing popularity of English as a language of prestige, particularly among the young middle class Indonesians. The tendency for secondary school students in cities to use English may gradually replace the national or first language for daily communication. The replacement can occur as their adoration of English language is boosted widely through internet-based communication channels. The dominant use of English has, in some ways, affected young people's performances, ways of thinking, and expressing ways of preference (Lie, 2017; Lie, 2018; Lie, Wijaya, & Kuntjara, 2018).

The growing power of English in different settings has resulted in cultural identity changes among its users. Students could be bilinguals and prefer to speak one language over the other depending on who they are talking with. It was believed that belonging to a certain group has its origins to the language spoken. Lie (2018) studied the learning of Chinese as a culture language by two multilingual Indonesian teenagers and found that the two subjects tend to use English than Chinese because according to them English is of a preference; they can converse themselves with their friends in case there is no possibility for them to speak Indonesian or Chinese. Language definitely plays a vital role in a speaker's individuality since it is certainly a way of communicating his or her identity.

Home, school, and community factors described above entail challenges and possibilities to transform cultural identity. Both the students' identity and language knowledge are continuously constructed and

reconstructed in the course of learning and practical use of the language at school, home, and community. In Indonesia, English exposures are available at homes, schools, and communities. A dilemma of maintaining Indonesian as a national language and cultural identity and using more English in order to take part in international development should be answered, and issues to the unavoidable use of English and its effects on the construction of language identity need to be addressed.

This study investigated how home, school, and community factors affected Indonesian high school students' self-identity changes. *Self-identity* in this study is dynamically and linguistically constructed to reflect a sense of belonging to a group of people with shared language, habits, values, practices and the like. Self-identity is also formed through formal and informal, face to face or online interactions with others (parents, siblings, classmates, teachers, and peers). Students' self-identity is a composite of their cultural and linguistic characteristics that define who they are. It is their perceptions of who they are, of what sort of person they are and how they relate to others through a language they speak.

In contrast to the study of Gao, Zhao, Cheng, and Zho (2007), this study did not use motivation types but home, school, and community factors as independent variables which have long been considered to affect language development (Rahman, 2015, Seargeant & Tagg, 2014; Dixon et al., 2012, Li, 2007). Arguments for using home, school and community in this present study derived from the function of language as a symbolic marker of an individual's social identity and self-concept. "Language is not only a tool for communication and knowledge but also a fundamental attribute of cultural identity and empowerment, both for the individual and the group" (UNESCO, 2003, p. 16). Thet (2016) found that language proficiency was one of the major factors influencing immigrants' self-identity. The function of language as a symbolic maker of self-identity is expressed in the use of English at school, home, and in the community.

Home affects the language spoken by the family members and reflects individual and group self-identity (Lie et al., 2018). Positive home factors like parents' educational level, parents' native language, language environment (through television programs, books, and overseas trips), and language spoken at home, influence students' English learning and acquisition (Rahman, 2015; Dixon et al., 2012; Li, 2007; Norton, 1997) which may inevitably be argued to form self-identity changes (Khatib & Rezaei, 2013).

School factors are mainly argued to affect students' English performance. Besides home, students spend most of their time at school interacting with their classmates and teachers. Lannegrand-Willems & Bosma (2006) found that school has a significant contribution to form student's identity. Educational context and socioeconomic status of the school affected the students' identity. Specifically, this study included

contextual factors such as school status, language of instruction, lingua franca with peers, and extracurricular activities.

Students learn English to practice it in the community in which power in the social world distributes the practice of the language in any settings of language learning (Norton & Toohey, 2011). They reconstructed their past communities and constitute relationship to an imagined community. Community factors could influence students' language development (Dixon et al., 2012) and developed the change of students' language identity. Identity encompasses linguistic and non-linguistic elements. It deals with the process and product of internal and external interpretations of identity (Gibson, 2004). Furthermore, Gholaminejad (2014, p. 24) argued that "the language people speak is constructed by their identity and their identity is formed by the language they speak." The community factors investigated in this study were relative social profiles of the students' language and the in-group and out-group community supports. Considering the 21st century context in which multimodal technologies influence 21st century citizens (Gee, 2004), the researchers investigated the use of communication channels and media by the subjects of the study.

Language learning and identity
Learning English is widely perceived to be very important by Indonesians (Lamb, 2011). Yet, the motivation and notion of learning a foreign language vary greatly across individuals. Learners may not be aware of how involved learning foreign language is and how affected the learners can be a deeper and wider context, language learning "involves the whole person: physically, cognitively, and emotionally" (Sa'd, 2017, p. 15) and is not merely acquiring a linguistic code but is also learning how to accept a role or take a position in a vast social context. If learners do not own an 'image' of themselves in a target community, they won't invest in learning the target language (Ogulnick, 2000; Norton & Toohey, 2011). Furthermore, Watkins-Goffman (2001) states that "every time we speak we are negotiating and renegotiating our identities" (p. 163).

Learning English as a foreign language (EFL) is often said to form a new identity (Lightbown & Spada, 2006; Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000). The effects of language learning and cultural identity formation work both ways. Acquiring a new language enables students to be bilinguals; and, the ability to be bilinguals reveals identity. One of many ways to develop identity is through the use of native or foreign language.

Lambert (1975) argued that language learning influenced identity changes in bilingual persons. According to Lambert (1975), there were two forms of bilingualism. First, *additive* bilingualism was when native language and native cultural identities were maintained while the target language and cultures were additively attained. The second one was *subtractive* bilingualism whereby the native language and cultural

identity were replaced by the target language and target culture. In addition to these types, Gao (2002) remarked that *productive* bilingualism – the most ideal type of self-identity changes because the target language and native language positively reinforce each other as an alternative to *additive* and *subtractive* bilingualism. Gao et al. (2007) further categorized changes in self-identity into six: *self-confidence, productive, additive, subtractive, split,* and *zero. Self-confidence* could have an important role of successful bilingualism. Meanwhile, *split* bilingual happened when learners experienced contradiction and conflicts between their native language/culture and the target ones. *Productive, additive, subtractive,* and *split* changes were categorized as cultural changes of which *split* change was of an "intermediate phase". In the study, *zero change* was compared with other categories of self-identity changes (Gao et al., 2007).

Norton stated that identity is "how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is structured across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future" (2013, p. 45). Further, she argues that language creates one's character, and identity is multiple, changing, and a site of struggle (Norton, 2013). Khatib and Ghamari (2011) and Lie (2017) revealed that language has always played a significant role in the formation and expression of identity, that language is among the identity signs, and that social identity can be constructed based on those identity signs. In a multilingual setting such as Singapore, English is a marker of educated regional identity (Crystal, 2003). Park (2012) argued that, in the process of English learning, learners' identity was influenced by their sociocultural norms, English language roles and culture play in the community.

Students learning English experience various degrees of change in their cultural identity, ranging from little or almost no change to a huge one. They may even adopt new identity. They continuously move between an understanding of themselves as speakers of their first language and their awareness of themselves as EFL speakers "they had to solve certain identity struggle and conflicts" (Zhou & Zhou, 2018, p. 1). According to Larsen-Freeman & Cameron (2007) identity formation is constructed continuously and dynamically.

The connection between identity and language development has long been studied in various studies (Norton, 1997; Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000; Kanno, 2003; Belz, 2002; Norton & Toohey, 2001; Pavlenko, 2001; Pavlenko, 2003). These studies were done in the English speaking countries and the subjects of the research were mostly immigrants and second/foreign language learners. The results collectively showed that those immigrants experienced a spectrum of changes in constructing a new identity. Social environments and the use of English in the classrooms affected the learners' English identity.

Learners' language identity formation in English foreign language settings has also been completed by several studies (Riley, 2006; Gao et al., 2007; Gao, Jia, & Zhou, 2015; Ushioda, 2011; Samar & Mokhtarnia, 2012; Lo-Philip & Park, 2015; Gholaminejad, 2017; Sa'd, 2017; Zhou & Zhou, 2018; Boonchum, 2009). The results showed that the English foreign language learners' development of new identity and self-identities was related to their level of motivation, attitude, and self-determination (Zhou & Zhou, 2018; Gao et al., 2007; Gao et al., 2015; Samar & Mokhtarnia, 2012; Boonchum, 2009; Norton, 2000). Language learning and language identity were also related to home and community as suggested by Dixon et al. (2012) and Gholaminejad (2017).

Different from the study that shows how learning English in the host countries resulted in learners' identity conflict (Norton, 1997), a few studies and reviews show that English learning in the homeland did not cause identity conflict (Lin et al., 2002; Chen, 2010; Stockton, 2015; Sa'd, 2017; Gholaminejad, 2017; Prayitno & Lie, 2018; Chen & Lie, 2018) because there was no chance of immersion, and the only source of exposure to English is the educational setting. The settings required the learners to speak their native or national language, not the target language (English). Gholaminejad (2017) found that the students did not always construct a new language identity but they had a positive attitude to English identity.

The current study expands the findings of the previous studies by testing the effects of home, school, and community factors in the use of English on Indonesian high school students' self-identity changes. Most importantly, this study researched the cause-and-effect relationships between the three factors of settings and six categories of self-identity changes. Prior to the cause-and-effect relationship, the language background and profile of the subjects were investigated. Lastly, the significant differences among independent factors were revealed.

RESEARCH METHOD
Research design
The research design of this study was a correlational analysis investigating the effects of home, school, and community on Indonesian secondary students' language choices and identity changes. In essence, English learning resources and practices could exist at home, school, or community. In this study, home, school and community factors were utilized as the independent variables significant to the success of English learning (Rahman, 2015; Seargeant & Tagg, 2014; Dixon et al., 2012; Khatib & Ghamari, 2011; Li, 2007). In particular, English learning and exposure affected new language identity formation (Lie, 2017; Norton, 2013; Khatib & Ghamari, 2011; Pavlenko & Norton, 2007; Lightbown & Spada, 2006; Norton, 2000; Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000). Both the independent and dependent variables were available. Accordingly, this study was a causal comparative (Ary, Jacobs, & Sorensen, 2010; McMillan, 2008) investigating cause-and-effect relationship between home, school, and community factors and Indonesian high school students' six categories of self-identities (Gao et al., 2007). There was no manipulation of the independent variables because they had already occurred. This study hypothesized that the independent variables affected the dependent variables. All independent variables had the same extraneous variables (McMillan, 2008), i.e., all of the subjects were investigated at their home, school, and community where English environment exist. However, the study treated the self-identity changes with care for it did not manipulate or randomize the variables. Figure 1 describes the research design.
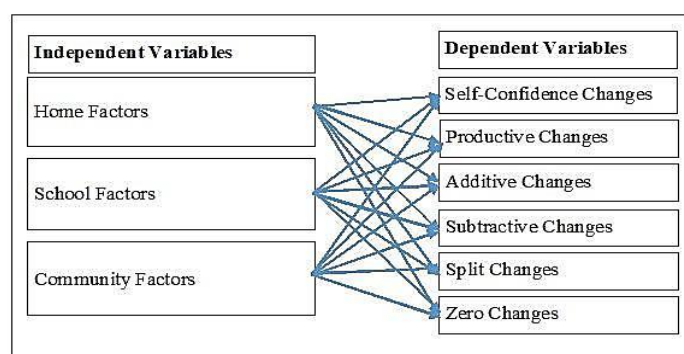

Figure 1. Research design.

Facilitated by the school principals and/or school counselors, an online English survey via Google Form was sent to 2,000 students from four big cities in Indonesia: Surabaya, Malang, Semarang, and Jakarta. The participants of this study were selected using a sample survey of tangibles. The subjects were students from the schools that had good English achievements. This was indicated by the number of their graduates who continued their studies at universities that used English as the language of instruction and some even continued their studies at universities in English speaking countries. There were 1707 subjects (regardless of their gender) who responded to the questionnaires. The subjects were in their second year of study at regular private and joint-cooperation schools.

A set of self-made questionnaire of three independent variables and six dependent variables was developed and administered. The independent variables contained information about home, school, and community factors (Khatib & Ghamari, 2011; Dixon et al. 2012). Home factor items asked information about the possibility of English learning environment at home created by several factors, such as parental educational attainment, parent language input, home language and other language environments, e.g. television viewing, books, overseas trips, etc. School factors required information about school status, language of instruction, lingua franca with peers, and extracurricular activities.

Community factors took information about relative social profiles of the language, community support (in-group and out-group), social media, and social activities.

Table 1. Reliability of test items: home, school, community

Variables	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of items
Home	.536	11
School	.675	9
Community	.495	6

The questionnaire items of dependent variables addressed six categories of self-identity changes (Gao et al., 2007): self-confidence, subtractive, additive, productive, split, and zero changes. Self-identity changes deal with the perception of ones' own competence (6 items). Additive changes investigate the co-existence of two sets of language, behavioral patterns and values, each specified for particular contexts (5 items). Productive changes inquire the command of the target language and that of the native language which positively reinforce each other (6 items). Subtractive changes question whether the native language and native cultural identity are replaced by the target language and target cultural identity (6 items). Split changes look for information whether the respondents struggle between the languages and cultures that promote identity conflict (6 items). And, Zero changes request whether the self-identity change is absent (6 items).

The questionnaires were pilot-tested to 50 student volunteers that sampled respective groups on May 15, 2018. Cronbach's α a was calculated; the average of reliability for the independent variables was 0.569, which was moderate. Table 1 showed the reliability for three independent variables. The reliability for Home variable was 0.536, School variable 0.675, and Community variable 0.495. A pilot test was conducted to ensure that the reliability level of the instrument.

Different from the average reliability for independent variables, the average reliability for dependent variables were high, 0.7285. As shown in Table 2, all dependent variable items had moderate and high reliability.

The statements for all dependent variables were used as they were because there was no unreliable item.

The items for subtractive changes were still moderate so they did not require revision.

Table 2. Reliability of self-identity changes

Variables	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Self-Confidence Changes	.813	6
Additive Changes	.661	5
Productive Changes	.733	6
Subtractive Changes	.600	6
Split Changes	.696	6
Zero Changes	.868	6

The data of this study were analyzed using the Statistic Package for Social Science Programs (SPSS). Analysis of descriptive statistics presented the frequency and percentage of respondents, and ANOVA was carried out to test the difference set at a significance level of 0.05 and to analyze the effects of home, school, and community factors on the six categories of self-identity changes. The level of influence is evaluated based on the value of β in regard to the standard of $\beta = 0.20$. If the β value is lower than 0.20, the influence level is considered to be high and the null hypothesis is rejected. Meanwhile, if the β value is higher than 0.20, then the influence level is considered to be low and the null hypothesis is accepted. The decision of low, medium, and high are based on the position of Mean between the interval of the critical value and full value. The difference value between Mean and critical value shows how low, medium, or high the value is.

A further analysis was conducted to investigate the significant difference among the independent factors; Tukey HSD test was then used.

FINDINGS
Self-identity changes
Table 3 shows descriptive statistics for dependent variables. The full scores for each of the five self-identity changes namely *self-confidence, productive, subtractive, split,* and *zero changes* was 24, while for additive change was 20. The critical values between changed and unchanged states for *self-confidence, additive, productive, subtractive, split*, and *zero changes* were 13 and that for *additive change* was 11. As shown in Table 3, the highest mean value of all dependent variables lied on the *zero change* variable by 17.98.

Results shown in Table 3 imply that the subjects acknowledged that they experienced limited cultural English values which resulted in their self-identity to remain Indonesian. This was shown by a moderately significant value which was in between the critical value and full value.

The runner up was the *productive change* of which score was 15.93 meaning that the command of English and Indonesian slightly reinforced each other (2.93 points difference from the critical value). The third was *additive change* (12.94) of which value was 1.86 difference from the critical value. This means that the co-existence of English and Indonesian helped the

subjects to switch from one language to the other language according to the corresponding context. The next change occurred was *subtractive change* shown by 1.01 difference from the critical value (Mean= 14.01; critical value= 13). In this regards, the subjects were slightly influenced by English exposure. *Self-confidence change* was shown to be very slightly occurred by 0.6

point from the critical value of 13. Different from the other *self-identity changes*, the *split change* variable was shown to be under the critical value (Mean= 12.47; critical value= 13). In other words, the subjects considered Indonesian as their self-identity, and they were not confused about which language they needed to appropriately use for different occasion.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics for dependent variables

	Valid number of Subjects	Home, School, Community	
		Mean	Standard Deviation
Self-confidence	1707	13.60	.81387
Productive	1707	15.93	.64772
Additive	1707	12.94	.72201
Subtractive	1707	14.01	.71992
Split Change	1707	12.47	.65729
Zero Change	1707	17.98	.86505

The effects of home, school, and community factors on self-identity changes
This section is devoted to present the effects of the independent variables on the dependent variables. To answer the research questions, the findings are sequentially presented from the effects of home, school, and community factors on the 6 self-identity changes.

The effects of home factors on self-identity
Table 4 shows the results of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) tested to know the significant differences between home factors and the 6 dependent variables of self-identity changes. It was found that home factor affected self-identity changes of the subjects. The most

affected variable of all was *self-confidence* ($\beta = 0.390$). The significance of the influence was considered to be moderate. This means that home factors contributed to the subjects' *self-confidence* in a low possibility and the influence level was moderate. The other four variables, i.e., *productive, additive, subtractive,* and *split changes* were slightly influenced positively ($\beta < 0.30$). In particular, with regards to the value of *additive* and *productive changes*, the subjects were perceived to be able to switch from one language to the other language according to the corresponding context ($\beta = 0.250$). At the same time their English and Indonesian were slightly reinforcing each other ($\beta = 0.241$) – inferred from the value of *productive change*.

Table 4. The effects of home factor on self-identity changes

Statistics	Self-identity changes					
	Self-confidence	Productive Change	Additive Change	Subtractive Change	Split Change	Zero Change
N	1707	1707	1707	1707	1707	1707
Mean	2.267	2.551	2.770	2.132	2.380	2.964
SD	0.813	0.647	0.723	0.719	0.657	0.925
β	0.390	0.241	0.250	0.193	0.130	0.044

With regards to the obtained value of β on the *subtractive change* variable, the subjects of this study slightly experienced identity formation ($\beta = 0.193$); their Indonesian language identity was, to some extent, affected. At last, it was confirmed that the subjects' experience of self-identity changes as the *zero-change* value was found to be close to zero ($\beta = 0.004$). In a nutshell, it could be concluded that the home factor affected the subjects in forming their self-confidence level and somewhat affected them in forming the other self-identity changes.

The effects of school factors on self-identity changes
Table 5 illustrates the findings on self-identity changes which were affected by school factors. Similar to the finding on the home factors, the subjects' *self-confidence* was also the most affected ($\beta = 0.268$) variable. Schools, as the place where English learning activities and exposures mostly occur, contributed to the subjects' *self-confidence* in a low influence level. The

subjects perceived themselves that their schools slightly affected their *self-confidence*. School factors affected the subjects' self-identities in a way that they provided a small portion of influence on *additive change* by 0.129 value and *subtractive change* by 0.106. This indicated that the subjects' Indonesian language and culture tend to be preserved rather than changed by school factors.

The other identity formations experienced by the subjects were *productive* and *split changes, although* they are very low. School factors reinforced the subjects' command of English and Indonesian language in a very low value; shown by the *productive change* at $\beta = 0.096$. On the other hand, the subjects of this study acknowledged that there was a very small portion of identity conflict in using English or Indonesian in practice. This finding was supported by the value of *zero change* variable which was negative, i.e., $\beta = -0.080$. It could be concluded that school factors had no significant effect on the subjects' self-identity.

Table 5. The effects of school factors on self-identity changes

Statistics	Self-identity changes					
	Self-confidence	Productive Change	Additive Change	Subtractive Change	Split Change	Zero Change
N	1707	1707	1707	1707	1707	1707
Mean	2.365	2.641	2.188	2.390	1.937	3.071
SD	0.784	0.644	0.716	0.716	0.656	0.862
β	0.268	0.096	0.129	0.106	0.059	-0.080

The effects of community factors on self-identity changes

Table 6 reports the effects of community factors on self-identity changes. It shows that community factors facilitated the subjects of this study to gain relatively moderate self-confidence in English. It was shown that *self-confidence change* ($\beta = 0.365$) was the one most strongly affected by school factors. Following *self-confidence change* was *additive change* ($\beta = 0.261$), *productive change* ($\beta = 0.228$), and *subtractive change* ($\beta = 0.218$). In line with *additive* and *subtractive*

change, the community factors supported the coexistence of English and Indonesian. However, it was found that community factors also contributed to an identity conflict in subjects' use of English or Indonesian (*split change, $\beta = 0.154$*). At last, community factors were found to slightly contribute to *self-identity changes*; supported by the value of *zero change* at $\beta = 0.047$. In sum, community factors moderately contributed to the subjects' *self-confidence* level; and, this was the biggest influence of all other self-identity markers.

Table 6. The effects of community factors on self-identity changes

Statistics	Self-identity changes					
	Self-confidence	Productive Change	Additive Change	Subtractive Change	Split Change	Zero Change
N	1707	1707	1707	1707	1707	1707
Mean	2.474	2.694	3.045	1.847	2.143	2.857
SD	0.758	0.630	0.697	0.702	0.649	0.864
β	0.365	0.228	0.261	0.218	0.154	0.047

The comparison of the effects of independent variables on dependent variables

Besides using ANOVA test to investigate the effects of home, school, and community factors on the six categories of self-identity changes, this study administered post-hoc tests to confirm the ranking of influences from home, school and community factors as the independent variables on the six categories of self-identity changes as the dependent variables altogether. Tukey HSD post-hoc (Table 7) shows that the influence of home on *self-confidence* was confirmed to be the strongest causal-and-effect relationship of all (F= 3.372, p<0.05). Meanwhile the weakest causal-and-relationship was the influence of home on *split change* (F= 0.953, p<0.05). The average influence of home factors on the six self-identity changes was 2.228. The average influence of school factors on the six self-identity changes was 2.331. The average influence of community factors on the six self-identity changes was 2.459. In general, community factors held the strongest influence on the subjects' self-identity changes. However, the most significant influence was from home factors on the subjects' self-confidence variable.

DISCUSSION

In light of the need to master English for global communication in the 21st Century, English acquisition by Indonesian high school students is an indispensable part of their overall learning. The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of home, school, and community factors on the Indonesian high school

students' six self-identity changes in relation to their use of English. Three findings stood out in relation to the previous studies (Lin et al., 2002; Chen, 2010; Stockton, 2015; Sa'd, 2017; Gholaminejad, 2017; Prayitno & Lie, 2018; Chen & Lie, 2018; Gao et al., 2007), they were (1) the issue of self-identity change on Indonesian students was not evident, (2) the greatest influence on the six self-identity indicators came from community factors altogether although slightly, and (3) the biggest influence of all was home factors on the subjects' self-confidence.

First, the issue of change and unchanged on the subjects' cultural changes (Gao et al., 2007) was confirmed in the current study with descriptive statistics and ANOVA test analysis. Gao et al. (2007) argued that "*zero change* was used for comparison with categories of self-identity changes". The highest mean value of all dependent variables in this study was the *zero change* variable by 17.98; similarly, the findings of ANOVA test for home, school, and community on the *zero change* variable were respectively $\beta = 0.044$, $\beta = -0.080$, $\beta = 0.047$. Indeed, the average different score of influence between the *self-identity changes* for all independent variables in the ANOVA test, i.e., *additive* and *split changes* were minor ($\beta = 0.041$); whereas the average different score of influence between *productive* and *subtractive* was $\beta = 0.074$ (Table 8). This means that the subjects acknowledged that they experienced limited cultural English values which resulted in their self-identity to remain Indonesian. The finding of this research was in line with that of Gholaminejad (2017) which found that 65 undergraduate students at

the University of Isfahan claimed not to have constructed a new English identity.

The results of this finding could be attributed to the setting of this study where English is a foreign language. In limited circles such as some upper middle-class families, certain milieus, and joint-cooperation schools, English is used as a language of communication. Within these circles, interestingly English has become a second language. However, children growing up in such circles would still need to use Indonesian or even one of the local languages to communicate with others in the wider communities in Indonesia. Therefore, the increasing use of English among young people is not strong enough to erode their sense of self-identity. Nevertheless, Indonesian young people do not strongly support the Indonesian language; this is proved with the value of zero change which is close to absolute zero value, there is an indication of English effects on their personal identity. This reason was in line with the study of Dixon et al. (2012) which found that community had an effect on children's language, in this case English.

Table 7. Tests of between-subject effects

Source	Dependent Variable	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Home	Self-confidence	11	1.697	3.372	.000
	Additive change	11	.898	1.986	.026
	Productive change	11	.988	2.698	.002
	Subtractive change	11	1.505	3.257	.000
	Split change	11	.376	.953	.488
	Zero change	11	.763	1.107	.351
School	Self-confidence	9	1.223	2.430	.010
	Additive change	9	1.352	2.992	.002
	Productive change	9	.930	2.541	.007
	Subtractive change	9	.963	2.085	.028
	Split change	9	.641	1.626	.103
	Zero change	9	1.595	2.312	.014
Community	Self-confidence	6	1.630	3.239	.004
	Additive change	6	1.347	2.980	.007
	Productive change	6	1.049	2.867	.009
	Subtractive change	6	1.175	2.544	.019
	Split change	6	.826	2.096	.051
	Zero change	6	.712	1.032	.403

Table 8. Influence of independent variables on cultural changes

		Productive Change	Additive Change	Subtractive Change	Split Change	Zero Change
Home	β	0.241	0.250	0.193	0.130	0.044
School	β	0.096	0.129	0.106	0.059	-0.080
Community	β	0.228	0.261	0.218	0.154	0.047

Second, the greatest influence on the six self-identity indicators came from community factors altogether although slightly. This was shown by the average values of the subjects' responses to question items about the influence of independent variables on the dependent variables: i.e., community (Mean= 2.459), school (Mean= 2.331), and home (Mean= 2.228). This finding is not surprising as young people tend to identify themselves with their peers rather than their teachers and family. The community influence is further intensified with the young people's use of the internet, social media, and various chat applications.

Third, two out of three independent variables, i.e., home and community factors analysis revealed that the subjects' sense of *self-confidence* was the most prominent change. Meanwhile, among the school factors, the highest value of self-identity change was *additive*. Home nurtures self-confidence level while community is the place where they express and improve their *self-confidence*. This finding supported Li (2007) and Rahman (2015) who found that positive family background supported their children English learning.

School is a place to learn new knowledge (additive, the highest); the role of the students' participation at school is not dominant in determining their *self-confidence* level because of school cultures which generally are not always in line with what students value the most. The students tend to gain their *self-confidence* when in their own community of their peers. Norton and Toohey (2011, p. 420) argued that "learners often have variable desires to engage in the range of social interactions and community practices in which they are situated."

CONCLUSIONS

Given the increasing role of English for global communication, encouraging Indonesian high school students to use more English is a necessity. The results of this study show that the use of English does not erode students' self-identity. Yet, concerns about the diminishing mastery of Indonesian and students' self-

identity as Indonesians should not be ignored. Although the results of this study show that subtractive change is not significant, it should be noted that this study uses a self-report survey and thus the issue should be treated with care and needs to be further examined through other methods.

This study was limited to Indonesian high school students. They have increasingly used English, especially with their peers over the past few years. Before they reached this level, however, the majority of these students had grown up speaking Indonesian. Therefore, they were still rooted so strongly in the Indonesian values, and the exposure to English language with its Western cultural values did not erode their sense of Indonesian cultural identity. A different phenomenon has emerged within the past decade whereby more and more joint-cooperation schools at the early childhood and primary school levels use English as the medium of instruction and limit the use of Indonesian to less than 20% of instructional hours. It would be interesting to examine the identity change when children are immersed in English instruction. Further studies on different age groups would shed more light on the effect of foreign language immersion school on identity change.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

REFERENCES
Ary, D., Jacobs, L. C., & Sorensen, C. (2010). *Introduction to research in education* (8th ed.). Belmont: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.

Belz, J. A. (2002). Second language play as a representation of the multicompetent self in foreign language study. *Journal of Language, Identity and Education, 1*(1), 13-39. doi: 10.1207/S15327701JLIE0101_3

Boonchum, P. (2009). A study of self-identity changes and correlation of influential factors of Thai students studying English. *Educational Research and Review, 4*(11), 535-548.

Chen, B. & Lie, A. (2018). The construction of imagined identities in two Indonesian English bilingual adolescents. In Madya, S. et al (Eds), *ELT in Asia in the Digital Era: Global Citizenship and Identity.* London: Routledge.

Chen, X. (2010). Identity construction and negotiation within and across school communities: the case of one English-as-a-new-language (ENL) student. *Journal of language, identity and education, 9*(3), 163-179. doi: 10.1080/15348458.2010.486274

Cheung, C. S.-S., & Pomerantz, E. M. (2012). Why does parents' involvement enhance children's

achievement? The role of parent-oriented motivation. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 104*(3), 820–832. doi: 10.1037/a0027183.

Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a global language.* Cambridge: Oxford University Press.

Dixon, L., Zhao, J., Quiroz, B. G., & Shin, J. Y. (2012). Home and community factors influencing bilingual children's ethnic language vocabulary development. *International Journal of Bilingualism, 16*(4), 541-565. doi: 10.1177/1367006911429527

Gao, Y. H. (2002). Productive bilingualism: 1+1>2. In D.W.C. So & G.M. Jones (Eds.), *Education and society in plurilingual contexts* (pp.143-162). Brussels: VUB Brussels University Press.

Gao, Y., Zhao, Y., Cheng, Y., & Zhou, Y. (2007). Relationship between English learning motivation types and self-identity changes among Chinese students. *TESOL Quarterly, 41*(1), 133–155. doi: 10.1002/j.1545-7249.2007.tb00043.x

Gao, Y., Jia, Z., & Zhou, Y. (2015). EFL learning and identity development: A longitudinal study in 5 universities in China. *Language, Identity, and Education, 14*(3), 137-158. doi: 10.1080/15348458.2015.1041338

Gee, J. P. (2004). *Situated language and learning: A critique of traditional schooling.* New York: Routledge.

Gholaminejad, R. (2014). Identity and language learning from post-structuralist perspective. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 5*(1), 199-204. doi: 10.4304/jltr.5.1.199-204

Gholaminejad, R. (2017). Identity construction and reversal conceptual transfer among Iranian EFL learners. *How, 24*(2), 63-79. doi: 10.19183/how.24.2.341

Gibson, K. (2004). English only court cases involving the U.S. workplace: The myths of language use and the homogenization of bilingual workers' identities. *Second Language Studies, 22*(2), 1-60.

Kanno, Y. (2003). *Negotiating bilingual and bicultural identities: Japanese returnees betwixt two worlds.* Mahwah, New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Kemendikbud. (2013). *Kompetensi dasar SMA/MA: draft-kurikulum-2013-untuk-sdmismpmts.* Retrieved from http://asepalwi.blogspot.com/2013/03/

Khatib, M., & Ghamari, M. R. (2011). Mutual relations of identity and foreign language learning: An overview of linguistic and sociolinguistic approaches to identity. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 1*(12), 1701-1708. doi: 10.4304/tpls.1.12.1701-1708

Khatib, M., & Rezaei, S. (2013). A model and questionnaire of language identity in Iran: a structural equation modelling approach, *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 34:7, 690-708. doi: 10.1080/01434632.2013.796958

Lamb, M. (2011). A 'Matthew Effect' in English language education in a developing country context. In H. Coleman (Ed.), *Dreams and reality: Developing countries and the English language.* London: British Council.

Lambert, W. E. (1975). Culture and language as factors in learning and education. In Wolfgang (Ed.), *Education of immigrant students.* Toronto: Ontario institute for studies in education.

Lannegrand-Willems, L., & Bosma, H. A. (2006). Identity development-in-context: The school as an important context for identity development. *Identity: An international journal of theory and research, 6*(1), 85–113. doi: 10.1207/s1532706xid0601_6

Larsen-Freeman, D., & Cameron, L. (2007). *Complex systems and applied linguistics.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Li, G. (2007). Home environment and second language acquisition: the importance of family capital. *British Journal of Sociology of Education, 28*(3), 285-299. doi: 10.1080/01425690701252028

Lie, A. (2017). English and identity in multicultural contexts: Issues challenges, and opportunities. *TEFLIN Journal, 28*(1), 71-92. doi: 10.15639/teflinjournal.v28i1/71-92

Lie, A. (2018). Learning Chinese as a heritage language by two multilingual youths in Indonesia. In G. Li, W. Ma, G. Li, & W. Ma (Eds.), *Educating Chinese-Heritage Learners in the Global-Local Nexus: Identities, Challenges, and Opportunities* (p. 284). New York: Routledge.

Lie, A., Wijaya, J., & Kuntjara, E. (May 2018). Linguistic and cultural identity of Indonesian Americans in the United States. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 8*(1), 198-207. doi: 10.17509/ijal.v8i1.11468

Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (2006). *How languages are learned* (3rd edn.). Oxford: Oxford University.

Lin, A., Wang, W., Akamatsu, N., & Riazi, A. M. (2002). Appropriating English, expanding identities, and re-visioning the field: from TESOL to teaching English for glocalized communication (TEGCOM). *Journal of language, identity, and education, 1*(4), 295-316. doi: 10.1207/S15327701JLIE0104_4

Lo-Philip, S. W., & Park, J. S.-Y. (2015). Imagining self: Diversity of bilingual identity among students of an enrichment. *Language, identity, and education, 14*(3), 191-205. doi: 10.1080/15348458.2015.1041344

McMillan, J. H. (2008). *Educational research: fundamentals for the consumer.* New York: Harper Collins Publishers.

Norton, B. (1997). Language, identity, and the ownership of English. *TESOL Quarterly, 31*(3), 409-429. doi: 10.2307/3587831

Norton, B. (2000). *Identity and language learning: Gender, ethnicity and educational change.* Harlow: Pearson.

Norton, B. (2013). *Identity and language learning: Extending the conversation.* (2nd ed.). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Norton, B. (2017). Identity and Enlgish language learners scross global sites. In L. L. Wong, K. Hyland, L. L. Wong, & K. Hyland (Eds.), *Faces of English education: Students, teachers, and pedagogy* (pp. 13-27). New York: Routledge.

Norton, B., & Tohey, K. (2011). Identity, language learning, and social change. *Language Teaching, 44*(2), 412-446. doi: 10.1017/S0261444811000309

Norton, B., & Toohey, K. (2001). Changing perspectives on good language learners. *TESOL quaterly, 35*(2), 307-322. doi: 10.2307/3587650

Ogulnick, K. (2000). *Language crossings: Negotiating the self in a multi-cultural world.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Park, H. (2012). Insight into learners' identity in the Korean English as a lingua franca context. *Journal of language, identity & education, 11*(4), 229-246. doi: 10.1080/15348458.2012.706171

Pavlenko, A. (2001). "In the world of tradition, I was unimagined": Negotiation of identities in cross-cultural autobiographies. *The International Journal of Bilingualism, 5*(3), 317-344. doi: 10.1177/13670069010050030401

Pavlenko, A. (2003). "I never knew I was a bilingual": Reimagining teacher identities in TESOL. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education, 2*(4), 251-268. doi: 10.1207/S15327701JLIE0204_2

Pavlenko, A., & Lantolf, J. P. (2000). Second language learning as participation and the (re)construction of selves. In J. P. Lantolf, *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 155-177). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Pavlenko, A., & Norton, B. (2007). Imagined communities, identity, and English language learning. In J. Cummins, & C. Davison, *International handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 669-680). New York: Springer.

Prayitno, R. & Lie, A. (2018). A case study of a seven-year old Indonesian-English bilingual child in a trilingual school. In Madya, S. et al (Eds.), *ELT in Asia in the Digital Era: Global Citizenship and Identity.* London: Routledge.

Rahman, M. A. (2015). *A study on how home environment influences adolescent l2 learners of English in Bangladesh* (Unpublished master's thesis). St. Cloud State University.

Riley, P. (2006). Self-expression and the negotiation of identity in a foreign language. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 16*(3), 295–318. doi: 10.1111/j.1473-4192.2006.00120.x

Sa'd, S. H. (2017). Foreign language learning and identity reconstruction: learners' understanding of the Intersections of the self, the other and power. *C.E.P.S Journal, 7*(4), 13-36.

Samar, R. G., & Mokhtarnia, S. (2012). My attitude, my identity: Identity change in an L2 setting.

International Conference on Language, Medias and Culture, 33(1), 73-77.

Seargeant, P., & Tagg, C. (2014). *The language of social media: Identity and community on the internet.* Basingstoke: Palgrave MacMillan.

Stockton, H. L. (2015). *Identity-focused second language acquisition: A systematic review of classroom applications* (Unpublished master's thesis). Hamline University.

Thet, K. H. (2016). *The role of immigrants' self identity in effective integration process into Finland* (Unpublished master's thesis). University of Jyväskylä. Finland.

UNESCO. (2003). Education in a multilingual world. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0012/001297/129728e.pdf.

Ushioda, E. (2011). Motivating learners to speak as themselves. In Murray, Gao, Garold, Lamb, Xuesong, & Terry (Eds.), *Identity, motivation and autonomy in language learning* (pp. 11-24). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Watkins-Goffman, L. (2001). *Lives in two languages: An exploration of identity and culture.* USA: University Michigan Press.

Yin, M. (2015). *The effect and importance of authentic language exposure in improving listening comprehension* (Unpublished master's thesis). St. Cloud State University.

Zhou, W., & Zhou, M. (2018). Role of Self-Identity and self-determination in English learning among high school students. *Journal of Language, Identity and Education*, *17*(3), 168–181. doi: 10.1080/15348458.2018.1433537