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Editor’s Note

Assalamu’alaikum Wr. Wbr. (Peace be upon you)

Let us thank our Almighty, Allah SWT (Subhanahu Wa Ta’ala), who has bestowed us all the best blessings and prosperity. Peace may be upon our Great Prophet Muhammad SAW (Sallallahu ‘Alaihi Wassalam), his companions, his family, and his faithful and dutiful followers until the end of the world.

As the Rector of UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java, Indonesia, first of all I would like to thank everybody who has made the issuance of this edition possible. We are very much aware that issuing a journal requires more than just availability of articles, but also the presence of professionalism and dedication on the part of the editorial board. Besides that, generous help from numerous parties, who are impossible to mention all, contributes to the publication.

EDUCARE journal is a perfect example of this case. It is a product of a joint contrivance made by two institutions i.e. UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java and ASPENSI (Association of Indonesian Scholars of History Education) in Bandung, West Java; and each is there because of mutual needs. Besides, it is in line with the policy of Directorate-General of Higher Education, Ministry of Education and Culture, the Republic of Indonesia that publishing the scientific journal is proposed to collaborate between professional organization and higher education institution.

UMP as one of the Islamic private higher education institution is, of course, in a real need of the presence of this scientific publication. It helps us meet the need of a media, especially an international one, to introduce the scientific work of our staff. This is especially true since the university is now exerting all our energy to move towards its vision: excellent, modern, and Islamic.

However, along with our effort to strengthen our internal quality, we also hope that this attempt will bring about positive consequences for the wider readership, especially in helping to bridge and integrate the intellectual, methodological, and substantive diversity of educational scholarship, as well as to encourage a rigorous dialogue between educational scholars and practitioners.

To achieve those goals, I hope that articles published in this journal represent varied areas of research on contemporary educational issues, theoretical statements, philosophical arguments, critical syntheses of educational inquiry, and integration of educational scholarship, policy, and practice. This also does not only come from Indonesia scholars, but also come from other scholars around the world. It is important to compare and contrast the research results from Indonesia in the global context.

Last but not least, I hope that this scientific endeavor will keep improving its quality toward internationally acknowledged status. One of the endeavors is by making and updating the journal website that will be accessed free for whoever in anywhere and anytime. It is accordance with the policy of Directorate-General of Higher Education, Ministry of Education and Culture, the Republic of Indonesia that – beside as the conventional journal by publishing the print and off print – is available also free of charge as an Open Access Journal on the Internet. EDUCARE journal, for instance, is able to be accessed in the Google Scholar.

Publishing the scientific journal without use the ICT (Information and Communication Technology) optimally, however, is the contra productive activity. In this context, the use of the computer and internet is of vital importance in all sectors of life, for example to access information from around the globe and to manage organization activities and schedules. Nowadays, ICT is becoming more a part of the educational institution culture and everyday life learning activities, as well as for disseminating the scientific journals.

Do enjoy reading the EDUCARE journal and hopefully you will derive much benefit from it. Wassalamu’alaikum Wr. Wbr. (peace be also upon you). Dr. Haji Syamsuhadi Irsyad, Rector of UMP.
The Use of Quality Pedagogic Language in the Teaching of English in Indonesian Setting

Didi Suherdi

ABSTRACT: The implementation of new curriculum into the teaching of English in Indonesia requires new ways of doing classroom practices. This article is intended to present the result of a research conducted by a team of researchers (Suherdi, Yusuf & Muslim, 2007) in an SMA (Sekolah Menengah Atas or Senior High School) in Bandung, West Java, Indonesia to ascertain the effectiveness of the use of quality pedagogic language in improving students' achievement in English. For that purpose, an experiment has been done in a first grade class. Using a quasi-experimental design, the class has been taught using the language thus far used by the teacher in the first six meetings, and using the quality pedagogic language in the following six meetings. Prior to the first meetings, a pre-test was conducted to ascertain students' learning achievement before the treatment. Then, a post-test was conducted at the end of the experiment. The result of the data analysis showed that there was a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test means in the English competence, and no difference in those of their effective factors. Possible explanations to these unilinear patterns of findings have been presented and relevant recommendations have been given both for theoretical and practical aspects of English teaching, especially in schooling system.

KEY WORDS: Pedagogic language, teachers' questions, feedback, pauses, discourse analysis, affective factors, and teaching of English.

INTRODUCTION

The implementation of new curriculum into the teaching of English in Indonesia requires new ways of doing classroom practices. Its emphasis on the mastery of communicative competence has put more burdens for the teachers, especially in meeting higher demands of the competence-based nature of the curriculum. Responding to this innovation, teachers give various reactions, ranging from giving a warm welcome to active resistance. However, in terms of its percentage, the numbers are far from balanced: those with a warm welcome are far below those with resistance.

This kind of reaction is not surprising. The new philosophy underlying the new curriculum is naturally new to the teachers. Furthermore, the high demands of communicative competence in the parts of the teacher are not readily answerable.
They were not prepared for this kind of situations. They were taught in grammar-based English teaching. To make it worse, efforts for introducing new ways of teaching to the teachers have not been sufficiently done by those responsible for the implementation of the curriculum. This gap has brought about serious problems in the English teaching settings. The most striking one is the gap between the teaching at schools and the national exam. While in the plan of teaching practice, some teachers keep going with grammar-oriented teachings, the national examination is beginning to take competence-based forms.

This gap will be increasingly wider unless some efforts to cover it done in a proper way. For that purpose, an alternative has been selected and research to ascertain the effectiveness has been conducted. The alternative taken in this case is improvement of the language used in the teaching-learning processes. In other word, some better-prepared and better-chosen medium of instruction has been developed and implemented in the teaching of English. This alternative has been taken based on the belief that education is basically a dialog between teacher and students.

This research is intended to be a continuation of a long series of research projects that has been the focus of the writer’s interest for these 13 years. All these began with the writer’s Master thesis in the University of Melbourne, Australia, exploring the language used by a teacher and a number of students in an ESL (English as Second Language) class; followed by similar projects in foreign language contexts (Suherdi, 2006); and a comparative analysis between the characteristics of EFL (English as Foreign Language) and ESL discourse (Suherdi, 1999). Similar studies have also been conducted in the teaching of Bahasa Indonesia (Suherdi, 2000; and Suherdi, 2005); and based on the same data, teachers’ contribution has been identified and classified (Suherdi, 2007).

As shown in the figure, the study reported in this article has a very long history under the umbrella of discourse analysis study. The use of the term “pedagogic language” is not yet popular in the literature, except in Theodor D. Sterling and Seymour V. Pollack (1974), in a more restricted scope than what is being meant in this research, i.e. in computer programming language. In this research, “pedagogic language” has been used to refer to the language used by the teacher and the students in the teaching-learning processes in the effort of achieving the expected learning goals. This excludes any dialog between teachers and students beyond the effort of achieving the expected learning goals.

The influence of quality pedagogic language on students’ achievement has been studied by many researchers since the beginning of the 20th century. As stated by Donald C. Orlich et al. (1985) that in 1912, Rommiet Stevens observed the life and language of a class and reported that the teacher used a large amount of questions reaching the average of 395 a day. Two-third of this large number requires low intellectual level thinking. Donald C. Orlich et al. (1985) also reported another research with relatively similar result, i.e. that of Clegg. The tendency of using low intellectual level questions is also reported by Davis and Hunkins (as
The second category of important pedagogic language element is teacher's feedback and pauses. Feedbacks and pauses are very important in ascertaining students' success. In this relation, Thomas L. Good and Jere E. Brophy (2000) reported the result of Mary Budd Rowe’s research on the use of two kinds of pauses. In her research, pauses are categorized into Pause 1 and Pause 2. Pause 1 happen after teachers’ questions, and before students’ answers or teacher’s further comments; whereas Pause 2 happen after students’ answers and before teachers’ reactions. Mary Budd Rowe reported that the two kinds of pauses last only one second. In the mean time, it is believed that pauses that last three to five seconds will invite better and more accurate answers as well as more active participation.

Previous research shows that the majority of questions posed by teachers are display questions (Ellis, 1994); and most of the questions posed require low order thinking (Orlich et al., 1985). In the mean time, many educators believe that referential questions encourage students to think harder and more critical (Nunan, 1989; and Thornbury, 1996). According to S. Thornbury (1996), referential questions can reach those areas that cannot be reached by other kinds of questions. Last, but not least, my research on the questions used in less classes effective classes found that out of the whole number of questions posed by the teacher 75% are display and checking, and only 22% are referential (Suherdi, 2007).

However, less developed pedagogic language, may it be referential, display, checking, or other, is very likely to lead the teaching-learning processes to less developed students’ learning. On the contrary, well-developed pedagogic language will lead to well-developed learning. Hence, investigating the effect of well-developed pedagogic language on students’ achievement is not only relevant but also theoretically motivating.

Through the investigation, some relevant questions may be answered, i.e. (1) Whether or not that kind of instructional language can be developed in the context of the current research?; (2) What makes it effective or otherwise ineffective?; and (3) Are there any distinctive features of effective pedagogic language?

Answering all those questions is beyond the capacity of a research project. For that reason, this research will take effectiveness of well-developed pedagogic language in improving students’ learning achievement as well as their affective factors as the focus.

**Methodology: Sample and Design**

To ascertain the effectiveness of well-developed pedagogic language in improving students’ learning achievement, as well as their affective factors, a quasi experiment
has been carried out in time series design in a Grade 10 class in a University Laboratory Senior High School. In the experiment, teaching-learning processes were carried out in two different levels of pedagogic language quality. The language thus far used by the teacher (then referred to as conventional level of pedagogic language or conventional language) was used in the first six meetings, and better-developed pedagogic language (then referred to as well-developed language) was used in the next six meetings. To get a clear idea of the design, a diagrammatic representation is presented in figure 1 as follows:

![Figure 1: A Time Series Design in the Use of Pedagogic Language in the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language in an Indonesian Context](image)

Tests and questionnaire administration were conducted to obtain the data of students’ achievement in the first and second half. The data in the first half was used to indicate students’ achievement in the teaching-learning processes using conventional language and those in the second to indicate their achievement in the processes in which well-developed language was used.

In terms of the background, the majority of students come from less supportive environment as far as learning English is concerned. Out of 35 students in the class, only six come from fairly good environment, the rest come from less supportive, four of them even from the least supportive environment. In percentage, the whole number may be presented in figure 2 as follows:

![Figure 2: Percentage of Students' Environment Supportiveness to English Learning](image)
The figure shows that only 17% of the students get good support from the environment; 29% get fair support; 43% or the majority get less supportive; and 11% get the least supportive environment, as far as English learning is concerned.

**On the Teaching-Learning Processes**

The main difference in the use of pedagogic languages in the two settings involved may be illustrated by the following segments of classroom verbal interactions.

T: “Ok. Yes. Can you give me an example?”
Ss: “Between, next to, beside, behind, under, above, in the corner of, on the left side” (teacher writes *between, beside, behind, above, under* on the whiteboard).
T: “One by one. One by one”.  
Ss: “Across”.
T: “Across, ok” (teacher writes *Across*).
Ss: “On the left side, on the right side” (unclear).
T: “Across. What else?”
Ss: “On the left side, on the right side, in front of”.  
T: (Write *in the corner of*). “What else?”
Ss: “In front of, in the corner of, in the middle of”.  
T: (Write *in front of*). “What else?”
Ss: “Beside, next to”.

This segment is taken from one of the pedagogic conversations taking place in the first half of the experiment. The teaching-learning processes in this half were dominated by questions and answers, i.e. teacher’s questions followed by students’ answers. The majority of the questions required one-word answers, or a group of discrete concepts. In the mean time, the processes in the second half were dominated by examples of some communicative activities, practices, and students’ performing communicative activities. To illustrate, a segment of the classroom verbal interaction has been chosen and presented below. Instead of asking the students to make 10 sentences using the previously taught prepositions, the teacher asked them to tell their friends to describe their school. For that purposes, the teacher gave some models prior to the tasks assignmet.

T: “Today, we’ll try to explain to your friend about our school map. Our school map”.
T: “There are some places here. There are so many classes. What is it? This is field, teachers room unfinished building” (pointing to the map).
T: “Now, ssh ... What you have to do?”
S: “Yes, it is”.
T: “Is to explain about the map”.
T: “Now, I will give you an example how to (coughing) explain it to your friend. You just explain five places that’s around our, (coughing) I’m sorry, our school. For example, listen to me carefully. The first thing what you have to say is I am standing on the field or whatever place just choose *eee* ... whatever you want you can stand on field, in front of the class choose whatever you want, I will give you an example I am standing on the field. On the right side of me is the teacher’s room. On the left side of me is the unfinished building. Behind me is the toilet and across the field is the classes”.
As is clear in the segment above, there is a modeling phase done by the teacher in his effort to give a clear idea of the text being taught. Some group works then followed, and finally he asked the students to describe their school to their friends. Here is one of the instances in which students perform their communicative activities.

T: “I wonder why you are so noisy when he come forward. Something wrong with him? Ok, listen (unclear). Go ahead”.  
S6: “I’m standing in the front of, in front of teacher room”.  
T: “The teacher’s room. Ok, go on”.  
S6: “And beside me Konseling room, ya pu ya?”  
T: “Counseling room”.  
S6: “And … councelling room, and on beside …”.  
T: “On …?”  
S6: “On the right side me class ten, a ten e, and in corner me”.  
T: “Ok, in the corner”.  
S6: “The canteen”.  
T: “Is canteen”.  
S6: “Is canteen (laugh) and the corner … (laugh unclear) and on … it’s … the corner … the corner file”.

Though interrupted by clues and helps given by the teacher, the student’s text is more intact and natural than making 10 discrete sentences using the prepositions given. The illustration is intended to show the difference of the pedagogic language quality in the two halves of the experiment.

**Result**

*On the English Test Scores.* The scores resulted from the tests have been summarized and presented in this section. The scores from the first half are presented in table 1 and the scores form the second half in table 2 as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scores</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Percentile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>22-26</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.8%</td>
<td>8.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17-21</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>23.53%</td>
<td>32.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-16</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>44.12%</td>
<td>67.45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>23.53%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In table 1, it is indicated that out of 34 students, 3 or 8.8% get scores between 22 and 26; 8 or 23.53% get scores between 17 and 21; 15 or the majority get between 12 and 16; and 8 get between 7 and 11. In the mean time, the scores from tests in the second half are as follows:
Table 2:
Summary of Scores from the Tests in the Second Half

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scores</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Percentile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>22-26</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17-21</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>52.7%</td>
<td>63.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-16</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>36.1%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in the table, out of 36 students, 4 or 11.1% get scores between 22 and 26; 19 or 52.7% get scores between 17 and 21; 13 or 36.1% get between 12 and 16; and none of them get between 7 and 11.

On the Affective Factors Questionnaire Scores. The scores resulted from the questionnaire have been converted, summarized, and presented in this section. The scores from the first half are presented in the following tables. The whole data resulted from the questionnaire are grouped into three, i.e. attitude, self-efficacy, and motivation.

First, Attitude towards Learning English. The data of students' attitude towards learning English in the first half are presented in table 3, while those in the second half in table 4. As indicated in the table, out of 35 students, none belong to the group with very positive attitude (Very Good); only 3 or 9% belong to group with positive (Good) attitude; 7 or 20% belong to the group with fairly positive (Fair) attitude; 15 or the majority of the students belong to less positive (Poor); and 10 belong to the least positive (Very Poor) attitude.

Table 3:
Data Distribution of Students' Attitude towards Learning English in the First Half

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scores</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Percentile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very Good</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Poor</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4:
Data Distribution of Students' Attitude towards Learning English in the Second Half

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scores</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Percentile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very Good</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Poor</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the mean time, the data from the second half, as shown in table 4, are as follows: out of 36 students, none belong to the group with very positive attitude (Very Good); six students or 17% belong to each of the groups with positive and fairly positive (Good and Fair) attitude; and 12 or 33% belong to the least positive (Very Poor) attitude.

Second, Students’ Self-Efficacy in Learning English. The data of students’ self-efficacy in learning English in the first half are presented in table 5, while those in the second half in table 6. As indicated in table 5, out of 35 students, none belong to the group with very high self-efficacy; only 2 or 6% belong to group with high self-efficacy; 7 or 20% belong to the group with fairly high self-efficacy; 17 or the majority of the students belong to low (Low); and 9 belong to very low (Very Low) self-efficacy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scores</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Percentile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very High</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Low</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the mean time, the data from the second half, as shown in table 6, are as follows: out of 36 students, none belong to both groups with very high and high self-efficacy; twelve students or 33% belong to the group fairly high self-efficacy; 8 or 22% belong to low self-efficacy; and 16 or 45% belong to very low self-efficacy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scores</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Percentile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very High</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Low</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Third, Students’ Motivation in Learning English. The data of students’ motivation in learning English in the first half are presented in table 7, while those in the second half in table 8. As indicated in the table, out of 35 students, none belong to the group with very high motivation; only 2 or 6% belong to group with high motivation; 6 or 17% belong to each of the groups with fairly high and low motivation; and 21 or the majority of the students belong to very low motivation.

Table 5:
Data Distribution of Students’ Attitude towards Learning English in the First Half

Table 6:
Data Distribution of Students’ Attitude towards Learning English in the Second Half

Table 7:
Data Distribution of Students’ Motivation in Learning English in the First Half

Table 8:
Data Distribution of Students’ Motivation in Learning English in the Second Half
Table 7:
Data Distribution of Students’ Attitude towards Learning English in the First Half

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scores</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Percentile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very High</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Low</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8:
Data Distribution of Students’ Attitude towards Learning English in the Second Half

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scores</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Percentile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very High</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Low</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the mean time, the data from the second half are as follows: out of 36 students, none belong to both groups with very high and high motivation; four students or 11% belong to the group fairly high motivation; 7 or 19% belong to low motivation; and 25 or 70% belong to very low motivation.

Analysis

The test scores presented in section above have been analyzed using some statistical tests; and to test the difference of the the means of the two distributions, a Student’s t-test has been administered and resulted in the following scores:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English Competence</td>
<td>-2.9509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>-1.6514</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Efficacy</td>
<td>1.1398</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>1.7629</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The test result shows that the difference between the mean of the scores of students’ English in the first half data distribution and that of the second half is significant at the level of significance of .05. This is indicated by the fact that the observed t-score (-2.9509) is larger than the tabled-t (1.658). This means that hypothesis on the effectiveness of high quality pedagogic language in improving students’ English competence is accepted.

In the mean time, the test also shows that the difference between the mean of students’s attitude towards learning English the first half data distribution and
that of the second half is not significant at the level of significance of .05. This is indicated by the fact that the observed t-score (-1.6514) is slightly smaller than the tabled-t (1.658). Thus, contrary to the result of the t-test for English competence, this result shows that the hypothesis on the effectiveness of quality pedagogic language in improving students’ attitude towards learning English is rejected.

The same result applies to the test of the difference between the means of the scores of self-efficacy. The result shows that the difference between the mean of the first half data distribution and that of the second half is not significant at the level of significance of .05. This is indicated by the fact that the observed t-score (1.1398) is smaller than the tabled-t (1.658). Again, this means that the hypothesis on the effectiveness of quality pedagogic language in improving students’ self-efficacy in learning English is rejected.

Surprisingly, an unexpected significant difference was found in the test for the difference of the means of students’ motivation in learning English. The calculation shows that the mean of the first half data distribution is larger than that of the second half, and the difference is significant at the level of significance of .05. This is indicated by the fact that the observed t-score (1.7629) is larger than the tabled-t (1.658). This means that the hypothesis on the effectiveness of quality pedagogic language in improving students’ motivation in learning English cannot be accepted. Instead of improving students’ motivation, it made their motivation worsened.

**Discussion**

The result of the analysis shows very interesting findings, especially the unilinear patterns of the effectiveness of quality pedagogic language in improving students’ English competence and their affective factors. As has been shown in the previous sections, students’ English competence in the second half is better than their competence in the first half. This may indicate that there is a significant improvement in their English competence after they were taught using quality pedagogic language. However, this is not the case for the improvement of their affective factors. Improvement in students’ attitude is not significant, and, surprisingly, there is a worsening tendency in students’ self-efficacy. The worst fact is that there is a significant decrease in their motivation.

These findings clearly need deeper analyses. Seeing the dynamics of the development of the students from different levels of attainment, the patterns are not only interesting but also enlightening as far as the intricacy of students’ sophisticated nature of learning is concerned. For that purpose, students’ levels of attainment will be used as the basis of analysis.

The first level, i.e. students with very good and good achievement, has the following patterns. In this level, a very large increase in number takes place. The increase coincides with the increase in number of students who belong to the group with positive attitude. This increase, however, is not accompanied by the increase in the number of students with high self-efficacy and high motivation.
In the second level, i.e. students with fair achievement, the patterns are as follows: the increase of the number of students with fair achievement is large, accompanied by a large increase in the number of students with fairly high self-efficacy. However, it is accompanied by a slight decrease in the number of students with corresponding levels of attitude and motivation.

In the lower levels, i.e. students with poor and very poor achievement, there is a significant decrease in the number of students with less positive attitude, low self-efficacy, and low motivation, which might mean good news. However, seeing that the decrease in the number of the students in English competence is accompanied by increases in the number of students with these lower levels of attainment in the development of attitude and self-efficacy, and significant increase in terms of motivation, this is very likely a bad news. It may mean that in the lower level, the development tendency is towards worsening levels.

To sum up, the data show that there is a significant improvement in students’ English competence, an insignificant improvement in students’ attitude towards learning English, an insignificant drawback in students’ self-efficacy, and a significant drawback in students’ motivation in learning English.

Possible explanation of these unlinear patterns is clearly needed. The first possible explanation is that the development of English competence may be very well influenced by the increased quality of pedagogic language which provides balanced and more firm scaffolding for them to develop better learning, while the development of students’ attitude is caused by their excitement of being exposed to new learning patterns, especially for those in the upper levels.

However, the higher demands posed by the competence-oriented models of teaching caused them to feel still very far away from the learning target. This feeling, for some students to a significant extent, leads to discouragement which, in turn, may be the causes of low motivation, especially for those in the lower levels of achievement.

Other possible explanation is that because, for some reasons, the experiment time is relatively too short, the development of students’ attitude which is still underway has not come to its full attainment. In the mean time, the decrease of students’ self-efficacy and motivation may be exemplified by an analogy of an operation procedure applied to a patient with dangerous tumor. The best probability for the patient is totally cured and lives more healthy life.

However, this probability is weakening when the operation has to be ceased on the way. In other words, the cutting of time span due to prolonged holiday around *Idul Fitri* may have rendered the development immature. Providing that the time is sufficient, better development will be in effect.

**Conclusion**

This article has succeeded in presenting the result of a research projects focusing on the effectiveness of quality pedagogic language in improving students’ achievement,
both in English competence and in affective factors development. While the first dependent variable, i.e. English competence, was significantly improved, the second was not. Alternatives of possible explanations have been presented to help clarify these unilinear patterns of development.

Based on those findings, it is suggested that experiment with sufficient time allocation needs to be conducted. In addition, research on time needed to reach significant development of affective factors in learning new and more challenging or demanding ways of learning as well as on conducive patterns of pedagogic language is also urgent.

References


The students' English competence in the second half is better than their competence in the first half. This may indicate that there is a significant improvement in their English competence after they were taught using quality pedagogic language.
ABSTRACT: Humanity is currently in an electronic age which is characterized by bridging the gap between distance and time, giving way to information revolution built around information and communication. Therefore, this study obtained data from 396 secondary school administrators through the Administrators’ Use of ICT Questionnaire (AUIQ) and Administrators’ Communication Questionnaire (ACQ) to investigate how the use of ICT (Information and Communication Technology) predicts communication effectiveness among secondary school administrators in Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria. The findings were that the extent of administrators’ use of ICT and the extent of administrators’ effectiveness in communication are high; there is a significant positive relationship between administrators’ use of ICT and administrators’ effectiveness in communication; the effectiveness of secondary school administrators in communication is significantly predicted by the use of ICT. Based on the findings, conclusions were drawn and recommendations made that Government should make ICT tools available in all secondary schools for the administrators; workshops on the use of ICT should be organized from time to time by the Governments and NGOs (Non-Governmental Organizations) for school administrators who are not yet ICT literate; and skilled man-power should be employed to teach those administrators who are still illiterate in this regard by NGOs, the government, and individuals. 

KEY WORDS: Use of ICT, communication effectiveness, secondary school administrators; and skilled man-power in Nigeria.

INTRODUCTION

In recent times, the process of information gathering and communication has advanced greatly (Ola, 2004; and Ukwegbu, 2005). Never in human history has such a revolution been witnessed in which digital data has transformed the way, we communicate in our homes, offices, market places, hospitals, churches, sports arena, legal environments, and more importantly schools or educational concerns.

It is on this note that the government of Thailand had to put ICT (Information and Communication Technology) as top project on display such that the project was at the three-day state information and communication technology week to show the public, the progress that was being made in developing new electronic services (Jowssey, 2008).
Several other nations of the world have placed so much importance on the use of ICT in their administrative affairs. For instance, e-filing has become the best solution in tax administration in Ghana (Boakye & Banini, 2007); and web services and e-services enable the Revenue Department to provide successful e-services to the public in England (Kennewell, Parkinson & Tanner, 2007). ICT has also shaped African schools and classrooms (Mbangwana, 2007); and ICT also had brought about organizational change in Italian manufacturing firms during 1995-2003 (Giuri, Torrisi & Zinovyeva, 2008).

**On the ICT and its Impact: Theoretical Frameworks**

UNESCO (United Nations for Education, Scientific, and Cultural Organization) in 2002 defined information and communication technology (ICT) as the range of technologies that are applied in the process of collecting, storing, editing, retrieving, and transfer of information in various forms. ICT could, therefore, be understood as all those electronic devices that are used in broadcasting telecommunication and all other electronically mediated information gathering and dissemination processes. These include radio sets, television sets, audio tape players, video players, projectors, the software, and hardware which are used in the teaching and learning processes.

There seems to be a consensus in literature that the difference between administrators, teachers, and students of Nigerian school, and those of other world class schools, is the civilization in latter institutions and the exposition of their administrators, teachers, and students to world class ICT experiences (Okhiria, 2007).

The ICT impact in the area of communication is so strong that changes are already occurring in the examination bodies in the country. Today, the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board and Nations Education Certificate Examinations results can be checked online; obtaining and filling of post University Matriculation Examination aptitude tests for university admissions is through online with the use of scratch cards. ICT materials offer fresh hope for quick release of results of evaluation of instructional outcomes for supervision of schools. Thus, the era of long-waited result is over with ICT presence (Bassey, Okodoko & Akpanumoh, 2009).

Writing on ICT as a facilitator and aid to teaching and learning, Otakhor argued that the introduction of ICT facilities in secondary schools could spur learning attractiveness and hence its effectiveness (cited by Etudor-Eyo, Etuk & Azewena, 2009). For instance, the automatic spelling and grammar function in the ICT system enables teachers and students to see their spelling errors and the options from which to choose. In addition, the use of educational application of software helps the students to work easily, makes their writing easier, and improves efficiency of teaching-learning process and helps them improve more professionally (Ibadin, 2008).
The World Bank (2007) report emphasized the pertinent role of the teacher in the effective utilization of this new global innovation and practice. It opines that it is not the presence of technology itself that stimulates significant changes inside a school. That without the involvement of the teacher and staff, most students may not take full advantage of all available potential on their own. Thus in Nigeria, new ICT related tools can make institutions and workers more productive, enhance skills and learning, improve governance at all levels, and make it easier for the poor to access services and make their voices heard (Abid, 2004).

Indeed, it has been established that power and influence flow to those who know more and have access to better information (Longe & Agabi, 1990). Meanwhile, M.O. Yusuf (2005) also maintained that modern organization's ability to achieve results and the decision making effectiveness of contemporary managers is no longer dependent on just the quality of the manager, but more importantly is the function of the quality of information and communication channels feeding and transmitting their actions.

In 2001, M. Telem conducted a study in school 4 in Hougang, North Zone of Singapore, in June of the same year; and found out that ICT helped in streamlining administrative processes in the area of communication. Previously, teachers used to refer to big log books to know which rooms were available for booking and who booked same and for how long, but with ICT, they could see the schedule for an entire month and know who booked them and which date the rooms may be vacant. In addition, ICT was found a very important tool for information dissemination as it helped communicate whatever information was available to the staff the moment they logged in as they read, know, and acted. M. Telem (2001) then concluded that ICT was effective in eradication of distortion, duplication of information, thus enhancing effective communication.

Also, T.K. Obeng (2004) was of the opinion that the use of internet and intranet, besides reducing administrative cost also reduces administrative inconveniences because the same information on the internet can be sent to all departments without having to do it individually. Instead of sending notices of meeting, for instance, to lectures or those concerned, this can be done online. Communication both within and outside departments can be greatly enhanced by the use of internet, intranet, and extranet.

K.L. Nickels, M. McHugh and J. McHugh (2002), however, warned that electronic communication can never replace human communication for creating enthusiasm and espirit de corps. That efficiency and productivity can become so important to a firm that people are treated like robots. Computers are tools not a total replacement for workers. Computers should aid creativity by giving people more freedom and time.

J. Anamuah-Mensah (2009) observed that the use of computer-mediated communication is of great gain both at work places and business ventures. J. Anamuah-Mensah reported also that the use of computer applications is useful in accounting and finance, financial control, sales and marketing, and manufacturing. Also, T. Kalusopa (2005) conducted a study on the challenges of utilizing information communication technologies (ICT) for the small-scale
farmers in Zambia. To achieve the aim of the study, T. Kalusopa carried out a survey of information needs of small-scale farmers in two selected provinces, in order to establish and prioritize their information needs. The findings included weak human capital and technical infrastructure, lack of clear national information policy, and lack of a coordinated agricultural information support system for small-scale farmers anchored on ICTs. This pointed to the necessity of using ICTs in organizations for effective communication and on members of that organization, which schools are not left out.

The Ministry of Health in Ghana (2003) enumerated the significance of using ICTs in health sector to include improving access to health services, improving quality, improving efficiency in both management and technical through reliable information dissemination systems, improving collaboration by proving support to overall planning and sector assessment process, and improving funding by proving a broadcast facility for marketing the health sector. All these are evident of organizational administrative effectiveness via the use of ICTs.

P. Hook (2004) found that the use of ICTs enhanced the transformation of learning outcomes for the gifted and talented. With ICTs, teachers were able to teach, communicate, maintain good records, and evaluate these groups of children with high level of potentialities in them. The use of ICTs has dramatically increased the speed of communication in organizations (FMLINK, 2006). In line with this, Freedman reviewed that primary school curriculum and recognized the usefulness of ICT as essential to a modern concept of literacy and to effective communication which are within language, oracy, and literacy (as cited by FMLINK, 2006).

In 2009, E.U. Etudor-Eyo, G.K. Etuk and R.N. Azewena found that there is high level of utilization of ICT by school administrators in the Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria. Due to the high level of utilization of ICT by teachers in Italy, the minimum ratio of teacher/students is now 1/50, while the mean value is about 1/30. All technical, vocational secondary schools are connected to the internet, while the percentage of general secondary schools is about 90%, and in primary and lower secondary schools the percentage is 75% (Marcheggiano et al., 2001). All reforms which are now affecting the school have brought about fundamental, wide-ranging changes in the administrative secretarial staff work.

In 2000, an increase in competition for scarce resources and the decrease in the public's trust in higher education practices were observed and government resulted in unprecedented demands for campuses to demonstrate their effectiveness and efficiency. Hence, R.H. Heck, L.K. Johnsrud and J.V. Rosser (2000) found that campuses responded with a host of institutional data ranging from retention and graduation rates to faculty workload studies to job and career placement records. One possible consideration, the performance of administrators well provided needed and appropriate information about the functioning of the institution. In Japan, it was reported that project management and implementation is enhanced through ICTs utilization (WSIS in Geneva 2003 and Tunis 2005). Hence, it is hoped that ICT could enhance high administrative effectiveness in secondary schools, especially in the area of communication.
STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The task of maintaining effective machinery for a functional school system demands a great deal of administrative competencies from principals. They are expected to co-ordinate human and material resources for effective administration of the school. Presently, the world is experiencing change owing to advancement in information and communication technology (ICT) in various fields of human endeavors. The secondary school system, as social institution, cannot be shielded from being affected by the society within which they operate. The 21st century is the era of information and communication technology.

Computers and other ICT facilities have become major tools of communication and exchange of information among individuals, organizations, governments, corporate bodies among others. Innovative use of ICT in administrative process in most secondary schools in Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria seems not to be widespread. This is made difficult by several constraints which include: lack of funds to sustain the ICT infrastructure, inability of secondary school administrators to keep up with the pace of development in ICT, lack of staff with appropriate skills to manage ICT both at the strategic and operational levels, and absence of institutional policies and strategies to support and guide the use of ICT.

Administration of secondary schools is largely dominated by the use of manual operational methods. Secretaries and typists with outdated typewrites are common sights in most, if not all the principals’ offices today. The increase in school population, complex goals/objectives, resources and programmes within the school, call for a better use of information system technologies.

Therefore, the problem of this study was to determine the influence of administrators’ use of information and communication technology (ICT) on communication effectiveness in Akwa Ibom State secondary schools in Nigeria. In order to aid the investigation, two research question and two null hypotheses were formulated.

So, the research questions are as follows: (1) What is the extent of ICT use by school administrators?; and (2) What is the extent of school administrators’ effectiveness in communication?

HYPOTHESES AND RESEARCH METHOD

The hypotheses in this research are as follows: (1) The linear relationship between school administrators’ use of ICT and effectiveness in communication is not significant; and (2) The contribution of the use of ICT to the prediction of administrators’ effectiveness in communication is not significant.

This study used an ex-post facto research design. This design was considered appropriate because the researchers had no direct control of the variables of the study since they had already occurred. They were inherently not manipulable. Besides, the study was non-experimental and required a large sample size.
The population of the study consisted of all public secondary schools in Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria. There were 232 public schools with at least 3 administrators each (i.e. the principal and two vice principals) which gave a total of 696. This figure did not include those in private secondary schools and technical colleges.

The sample of the study consisted of 396 school administrators. This represented 57% of the population. A cluster sampling technique was used in selecting the sample. Each of the three senatorial districts of the state was taken as a cluster, and then from each of the cluster, local governments were randomly sampled before selecting the schools from each sampled Local Government Area. Fifty-seven (57) percent of the administrators were selected from each senatorial district. This ensured that districts with more administrators also provided a greater number in sample. The available administrators in each senatorial district were asked to pick from a bag of papers marked “Yes and No”. The ones who picked “Yes” automatically became a subject for the study. From each sampled school, two teachers who had worked under each administrator were also randomly selected to assess each administrator.

Researcher-designed instruments known as Administrators’ Use of ICT Questionnaire (AUIQ) and Administrators’ Communication Questionnaire (ACQ) were used for data collection for the study. The instruments were placed on a 4 – points rating scale of: Strongly Agree (SA) – 4 points; Agree (A) – 3 points; Strongly Disagree (SA) – 2 points; and Disagree (D) – 1 point for positively worded items.

Reverse scoring order was used for the negative items. In order to ascertain the validity of the instruments, they were presented to three experts in research. The experts were acquainted with the objectives, research questions, and the null hypotheses. The research experts critically inspected every item and determined their suitability. This ensured the face validity of the instrument. The corrections were effected and the revised instruments were produced for the study.

To determine the reliability of the instruments, the AUIQ and ACQ were tested on 20 administrators and 20 teachers who were not involved in the main study. The instruments were coded and data obtained were analyzed using Cronbach alpha coefficient. Cronbach alpha enabled the assessment of internal consistency of the instruments which options were strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed, and strongly disagreed. The data analysis yielded the alpha coefficient of .757 and .773 for AUIQ and AEQ respectively. These were considered adequate that the instruments were reliable to achieve their objective.

The administration of the instruments to the respondents was done by the researchers and four trained research assistants. In each school, the researchers met with the principal for adequate introduction and permission to administer the instruments. Due explanation was made on each section and sufficient time was given for completion of each questionnaire, after which they were retrieved. Data obtained were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics.
Results

Table 1 shows the mean scores of 14.97 for the extent of administrators’ use of ICT (Information and Communication Technology) and 14.17 for the extent of administrators’ effectiveness in communication. This means that the extent of administrators’ use of ICT and the extent of school administrators’ effectiveness in communication are high because the two mean values are respectively greater than the reference mean score of 12.5 which came by multiplying the average of the rating scale by the number of items (2.5x5). Results in table 1 answer research questions 1 and 2.

Table 1:
Descriptive Statistics for the Extent of Administrators’ Use of ICT and Administrators’ Effectiveness in Communication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The use of ICT</td>
<td>14.9747</td>
<td>1.78584</td>
<td>396</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>14.1717</td>
<td>2.34403</td>
<td>396</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Entries in table 2 show that the use of ICT by administrators has significant relationship with administrators' effectiveness in communication. Consequently, the result in table 2 shows that administrators’ use of ICT has a significant linear relationship with administrators’ effectiveness in communication. By this result in table 2, the hypothesis that there is no significant linear relationship between administrators’ use of ICT and administrators’ effectiveness in communication is rejected. This means that every unit of change in administrators’ use of ICT results to a reciprocal change in administrators’ effectiveness in communications.

Table 2:
Results of Pearson’s Correlation between the Use of ICT and School Administrators’ Effectiveness in Communication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>The Use of ICT</th>
<th>Communication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>The use of ICT</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>.584</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (1-tailed)</td>
<td>The use of ICT</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>The use of ICT</td>
<td>396</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>396</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at .05 alpha level; df = 394; critical r = .113; and N = 396.

In table 3, the calculated F-value of 203.974 is greater than the critical F-value of 3.89 at .05 with 1 and 394. The result in table 3 means that administrators’ effectiveness in communication is significantly predicted by administrators’ use of ICT.
Table 3:
Results of Analysis of Variance of the Stepwise Prediction of School Administrators’ Effectiveness in Communication with Use of ICT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>429.710</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>429.710</td>
<td>203.974*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>830.037</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>2.107</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1259.747</td>
<td>395</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), the Use of ICT.
b. Dependent Variable: Communication.
'Significant at .05 alpha level; df = F1,394; critical F = 3.89; and N = 396.

Table 4 shows that the use of ICT accounts for or explains 34% ($R^2 = .341$) of the variance in administrators’ effectiveness in communication scores.

Table 4:
Result of $R$ and $R^2$ in the Stepwise Prediction of School Administrators’ Effectiveness in Communication with Use of ICT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
<th>Change Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.584(a)</td>
<td>.341</td>
<td>.339</td>
<td>1.45145</td>
<td>.341</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Communication.

Table 5 shows that the t-value of 19.371 is greater than the critical t-value of 1.968. The result still shows that school administrators’ effectiveness in communication is predicted by use of ICT. The derived prediction equation, using ICT, is: Administrators’ use of ICT = 8.669 + .445 effectiveness in communication. By these results in tables 3, 4, and 5, the null hypothesis that the use of ICT does not significantly predict school administrators’ effectiveness in communication is rejected. Therefore, the use of ICT by school administrators is a predictor of their effectiveness in communication.

Table 5:
Result of Significance of Prediction Coefficients of School Administrators’ Effectiveness in Communication with Use of ICT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>8.669</td>
<td>.448</td>
<td>19.371*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.445</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td>.584</td>
<td>14.282</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Communication.
'Significant at .05 alpha level; df 394; critical t = 1.968; and N = 396.


**DISCUSSION**

The extent of school administrators’ use of ICT (Information and Communication Technology) was high in this study. This implies that many secondary school administrators in the study area were literate in ICT and were committed to the use of ICT in their day-to-day administration of schools, especially in the area of communication. The finding of this study is consistent with that of E.U. Etudor-Eyo, G.K. Etuk and R.N. Azewena (2009); and also of S.U. Bassey, D. Okodoko and U.D. Akpanumoh (2009) who, in their respective studies, found that the use of ICT in different organizations is on the high side. This is worth celebrating that school administrators in Akwa Ibom State have yielded to change for the innovative method of school administration rather than holding on to the old and manual way of doing things.

Administrators’ effectiveness in communication was high. The effectiveness of secondary school administrators in Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria cannot be disassociated from the use of ICT and the impact of the present team that monitors and supervises the activities of the administrators, staff, and students as the case may be. Many research findings like R.H. Heck, L.K. Johnsrud and J.V. Rosser (2000); G. Marcheggiano *et al.* (2001); and WSIS [World Summit on the Information Society] in Geneva (2003) and Tunis (2005) support the finding of this study. The study further revealed that secondary school administrators’ effectiveness in communication is related to and predicted by the use of ICT. This implies that administrators who subscribe to the use of ICT would perform effectively in their communication. The findings of P. Hook (2004); T. Kalusopa (2005); FMLINK (2006); and J. Anamuah-Mensah (2009) commemorate the finding of this study. As important as communication is in any organization, ICT tools are very necessary in not only secondary schools, but in all sectors, be it public or private. According to P. Hook (2004), the use of ICT helps teachers meet the needs of the gifted and talented children in schools.

However, the study was limited by the design of the study which did not allow for manipulation of any variable of the study; also none of the variables were controlled going by the design which was the ex-post facto design. This only allowed for a survey of opinions from the respondents on the subject matter. Consequently, the psychological state of the respondents could not be controlled. However, the researchers assured the respondents of the confidentiality of their responses as no name was required in the study.

**Conclusions and Recommendations**

Based on the findings of the study, it was concluded that the extent of administrators’ use of ICT (Information and Communication Technology) and the extent of administrators’ effectiveness in communication are high. There is a positive relationship between administrators’ use of ICT and administrators’ effectiveness in communication. The effectiveness of secondary school administrators in
communication depends on the use of ICT. Meaning that with the use of ICT, communication of the administrator becomes very effective but reverses when ICT is not used by the administrator. It implies also that changes in the use of ICT would also cause changes in administrators’ effectiveness in communication.

The following recommendations were made in this study: (1) Government should make ICT tools available in all secondary schools for the administrators; (2) Workshops on the use of ICT should be organized from time to time by the governments and NGOs or Non Governmental Organizations for school administrators who are not yet ICT literate; (3) A constant power supply should be made available to schools so that administrators would be able to make use of ICT for communication; (4) Skilled man-power should be employed to teach those administrators who are still illiterate in this regard; and (5) The packages that accompany the computer should be provided by NGOs, the government, and individuals to secondary schools and beyond.

References


These days, the use of errand boys, town criers, trained animals, and even the postal services are gradually giving way to the advancement in information and communication technology (ICT). Humanity is currently in an electronic age which is characterized by bridging the gap between distance and time, giving way to information revolution built around information and communication.
School Leadership in Global Perspective: A Study of the Influence of Organizational Culture, Ability, and Motivation Based on Geoleadership Model towards Leadership Capacity in Realizing Intelligent School at Catholic Junior High Schools in West Java, Indonesia

Sherly Iliana Iskandar

ABSTRACT: Indonesia is a part of the world in the process of globalization. Ready or not, Indonesia is involved in the changing of competition paradigm, from material to knowledge competition. This demands the government and educational institution to be ready with strategy and global vision in taking needed steps for adjustments and changes. This quantitative study on 130 Catholic Junior High Schools Leaders in West Java area in Indonesia, about the influence of organizational culture, ability, and motivation based on geoleadership model towards leadership capacity, is conducted in responding to the radical impact of globalization to all aspect of life, including education in Indonesia. It is urgently needed to find a model of educational leadership to create intelligent school as an appropriate school for this situation. The result of the study showed that ability has the strongest influence (48.23%) to leadership capacity, followed by motivation (32.37%), and organizational culture (16.34%). Recommendation for Catholic Junior High Schools Leaders in West Java area in Indonesia is improving ability, motivation by training, and improving organizational culture by creating a conducive working climate to develop leadership capacity in realizing intelligent school.

KEY WORDS: Organizational culture, ability, motivation, geoleadership model, leadership capacity, and intelligent school.

INTRODUCTION

Globalization is often defined as “worldly”. An entity, no matter how small, is delivered by anyone, anywhere, and anytime spread throughout the world. Inevitably, all countries and nations are involved in this process. Globalization
cannot be avoided; it seeps through all aspects of life: economics, politics, socio-culture, and education. The advances in education, information and communication technology have eliminated the borderline of countries. According to Naisbit, it is marked by the fast paced and everchanging external and internal environment without a specific pattern (cited by Hartanto, 2009:3).

Indonesia is a part of the world in the process of globalization. Ready or not, Indonesia is involved in the changing of competition paradigm, from material to knowledge competition. This demands the government and educational institution to be ready with strategy and global vision in taking needed steps for adjustments and changes. One of them would be that education, especially Junior High School as part of basic education, needs to prepare school leaders physically, mentally, morally, and spiritually, because having qualified human resources can bring positive impact on education (school) in facing the globalization era. “The greatest challenge facing leaders in this era of globalization is working effectively through cultural barriers to achieve business goals and objectives” (Wibbeke, 2009:xvii).

Although insignificant when compared to continuous and fast changes resulted from globalization, education in Indonesia has been changing since its independence day until now. Catholic school is one form in which the Catholic society participates in the process of developing the intellectual life of the Indonesian youth through education based on Pancasila (five pillars of the Indonesian nation-state) and Undang-Undang Dasar 1945 (Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia), with their own uniqueness.

However, educational institutions need to keep doing self reform to keep their existence in this era. The ability for Catholic schools to survive in this globalization era is determined by the ability of their human resources, especially their school leaders in adapting themselves the changes. This is supported by E.S. Wibbeke (2009:21), who states that globally, societies are changing and so are organizations. Globalization and other changes create a new business (read as organization) climate, which requires different competencies from leaders.

There are some factors that slow down the development or improvement of education, i.e. school leaders who take a long time in responding and making plans to change. There are even a number of apathetic headmasters towards the changes happening in this era. The Department of National Education of Indonesia estimated that 70% out of 250 thousand school leaders in Indonesia have weaknesses among others managerial competence and supervision (Susanti, 2008).

About leadership, S.D. Weiss, V. Molinaro and L. Davey (2007:3) said that building leadership capacity is mission critical. This is the conclusion of more and more senior executives who are making the connection between leadership capacity and competitive advantage. Furthermore, A. Harris and L. Lambert (2003:5) also stated that the capacity building is concerned with developing the conditions, skills and abilities to manage, and facilitate productive change at school level.

School leaders have important and strategic roles in the improvement of educational quality. Therefore, school leaders must have broad views and are able to communicate and to interact across culture and language. Leaders of today face
new challenges, including communicating and interacting across regional, national, ethnic, cultural, language, and legal boundaries; dealing with and implementing continual change; coping with increased ambiguity; negotiating and resolving conflict; and motivating a multicultural workforce (Wibbeke, 2009:2). Leaders are expected to be learners of organizational culture and have the ability to manage it. Besides that, school leaders must have good physical and intellectual abilities and high motivation for the acceleration of the improvement of work performance of each member of the organization. As stated by Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (1996:98-99) that an employee’s behavior is complex because it’s effected by diverse environmental variables and many different individual factors, experiences, and events.

In response to the above statement, E.S. Wibbeke (2009:17) recommends “geoleadership model”: leaders in the globalization era need to have the competences i.e. Care, Communication, Consciousness, Contrast, Context, Change, and Capability or known as 7Cs. It is supported by T.A. Razik and A.D. Swanson (1995:1) that such leadership springs from understanding the realities of the world as a suprasystem. And intelligent school is assumed as the appropriate model for this changing complex situation.

Issues related to education and globalization have motivated me as a researcher to identify several school leaders’ aspects in the Catholic Junior High Schools which are organizational culture, ability, motivation which are assumed to have significant contribution towards leadership capacity.¹ It is realized through orientation and elaboration which are in line with the values that grow and develop in the movement of the changes as the effect of globalization.

Literature Review

On the Intelligent School. Intelligent school is a continuous, lifelong process, which starts well before its pupils arrive at school and continues each day as they walk out of the door and long after they graduate from school (MacGilchrist, Myers & Reed, 2004:50). Intelligent school knows why learning is so important. It provides opportunities for learning and provides opportunities for that learning to be put to good use – that is, used intelligently to maximize pupils’ progress and achievement (MacGilchrist, Myers & Reed, 2004:107). “We believe that learning and teaching are at the heart of school improvement. They are the core business of schools” (MacGilchrist, Myers & Reed, 2004:xvi).

In globalization era, school effectiveness has new meaning, focuses on pupil’s progress as well as outcomes of learning the value schools, add to the progress of the pupils. To reach the value added school, B. MacGilchrist, K. Myers and J. Reed (2004:113) recommended nine intelligences as a framework for sustained school

¹Promoter of this Dissertation (Research) is Prof. Dr. H. Djam’an Satori; Co-Promoter I is Prof. Dr. H. Abdul Azis Wahab; and Co-Promoter II is Prof. Dr. H. Abin Syamsudin Makmun. I’d like to thank sincerely to them for guiding and supervising me in writing this dissertation. However, all contents and its interpretations in this dissertation are becoming my own academic responsibility.
improvement. Those are: (1) **Ethical Intelligence** or EthQ: justice, respect for persons, inclusion, and rights and responsibilities; (2) **Spiritual Intelligence** or SQ: search for meaning, transcendency, sense of community, and interconnectedness; (3) **Contextual Intelligence** or CQ: internal, local, national, and global; (4) **Operational Intelligence** or OQ: strategic thinking, development planning, management arrangements, and distributed leadership; (5) **Emotional Intelligence** or EQ: self-awareness, awareness of others, managing emotions, and developing emotional literacy; (6) **Collegial Intelligence** or CoQ: commitment to a shared purpose, knowledge creation, multi-level learning, and trust and curiosity; (7) **Reflective Intelligence** or RQ: creating time for reflection, self-evaluation, deep learning, and feedback for learning; (8) **Pedagogical Intelligence** or PQ: new visions and goals for learning, teaching for learning, open classrooms, and going against the grain; and (9) **Systemic Intelligence** or SyQ: mental models, systems thinking, self-organization, and networking.

**On the Leadership Capacity.** Five assumptions of leadership: (1) leadership is not trait theory; (2) leadership is about learning that leads to constructive change; (3) everyone has the potential and right to work as a leader; (4) leading is a shared endeavour; and (5) leadership requires the redistribution of power and authority. These five assumptions form the conceptual framework for leadership capacity building for school improvement. Together, they advance the ideas that are essential if we are to develop sustainable, self-renewing, and improving schools (Harris & Lambert, 2003:20-21).

Leadership capacity means broad-based, skillful involvement in the work of leadership, that means the leader understood the shared vision in the school, the full scope of the work underway, and were able to carry it out, and also have commitment to the central work of self-renewing schools (Harris & Lambert, 2003:13-14).

Again, A. Harris and L. Lambert (2003:xvii) said, as so far described, that distributed leadership capacity can be seen as being an amorphous concept. Its purposefulness (and its accountabilities) comes from tightness around values (shared beliefs), moral purpose (the urgency to act and to achieve together for higher order purposes), shared professional capital (the combined and shared and expanding knowledge-base), and the social capital (relationships and trust).

Meanwhile, S.D. Weiss, V. Molinaro and L. Davey (2007:29) also stated that leadership capacity will demand attention and action on the part of executives and all leaders. However, the challenge they will face is that the traditional approach to build leadership capacity is no longer effective. Organizations need to discover a new approach to define, measure, and build leadership capacity. Hence, S.D. Weiss, V. Molinaro and L. Davey (2007:32) think that the lack of the required leadership capacity is damaging organizations’ ability to expedite their strategic direction effectively and at the desired speed. In some cases, it has altered strategy entirely. As a result, businesses must build a meaningful leadership solution that generates the leadership capacity required to meet current and future business needs.

In response to this challenge, a business needs to have a good grasp of the leadership capacity required and the nature of their leadership gap. Unfortunately,
we find that many leaders and their organizations are still holding a traditional approach to leadership, one that focuses on building the skills of a few individual leaders at the expense of building the leadership capacity of the whole organization. Further, S.D. Weiss, V. Molinaro and L. Davey (2007:33) recommended that the purpose of leadership solution is to outline precisely what is required to build leadership capacity in organizations and to identify what individual leaders will need to bridge the leadership gap.

Building leadership capacity requires a dual response from both individual leaders and their organizations. Leaders must take personal responsibility for behaving holistically, and organizations must encourage the development of leadership capacity by implementing supportive practice and by fostering a strong leadership culture (Weiss, Molinaro & Davey, 2007:35).

**On the Geoleadership Model.** In a landmark study on intercultural study of leadership competence, leading intercultural experts from around the world participated in a consensus building effort to determine the critical competencies for intercultural leadership and in how leaders can acquire them (Wibbeke, 2009:18). These fast changes demand organizational sensitivity and leaders to respond to all kinds of obstacles in order to exist in the global competition to reach the objective of the organization. Accordingly, E.S. Wibbeke (2009:19-20) suggests the seven key principles of a new leadership paradigm, which are:

- **First, Care:** global business leaders should hold and maintain equal concern for the bottom line and for stakeholder groups. While we can agree that one objective of business is profit creation, we also believe that a longer (term) and broader (social systems) serve business, ultimately.

- **Second, Communication:** in order for business leaders to lead effectively in intercultural situations, such leaders necessarily must engage and interact with those cultures in whose countries they work, if not with many cultures. Closely related to context is that leaders must reach out to people in other cultures with a desire to understand and appreciate that culture and its people. Leaders must learn communication skills that promote listening and open respectful dialog.

- **Third, Consciousness:** in today’s global economy, a person filling the role of leader and manager needs to develop self-awareness. A leader’s awareness must be expandable as contexts shift around them, such that the leader becomes clear of a personal cultural background and bias relative to that of other people. Building consciousness means being able to expand your awareness.

- **Fourth, Contrast:** leaders must be able to work comfortably and effectively with ambiguity. Developing a tolerance for working with contrasting perspectives, methods, and with differing value systems is critical. Working in ambiguous contexts requires patience and consciousness. Working at such a high level of consciousness means that leaders must be able to perceive multiple levels of meaning simultaneously.

- **Fifth, Context:** global business leaders must develop the ability to perceive, discern, and adapt to the situations within which they work, and to suspend
judgment. This means that all global business leaders must attend to the situation in which they find themselves. Leaders need to understand each culturally learned behavior in the context of where that behavior originates and appears.

**Sixth, Change:** postmodern organizations require adaptive leaders, leaders who demonstrate flexibility in adapting to dynamic cultural environments. Intercultural leaders must shift from the old mechanistic mindsets of the industrial era to the flexible adaptive perspective of organizational life as what it is a complex socio-cultural system.

**Seventh, Capability:** in order for a leader to be effective in intercultural situations, there must be development of sufficient personal and organizational capability. Intercultural competence requires that leaders are able to assess their own and others’ capability and build it where there is deficit. Most important is the leader’s influence in facilitating an organizational culture capable of intercultural learning agility.

**On the Organizational Culture.** An organization is formed for specific purposes based on a set vision and mission. Therefore, the success of an organization is determined by its capability in attaining its purpose through organizational performance which is influenced by internal and external factors. Internal factors influence the organizational performance, where the organizational culture plays a dominant part, while external factors are the culture of multicultural societies with cultural diversity that heavily influence its organizational culture and the organization itself (Samovar, Porter & Edwin, 2010:328).

For an organization with strong norms, it will influence the action of each of its members and will think of what he or she must do and think when at work. Therefore, it is inevitable for the organization to interact internally and externally where culture exists, although not instantly but through a long process where ethnic, national, and other cultures also weld in it.

In general, Alvesson describes that cultural organization as organizational culture is defined as shared philosophies, ideologis, beliefs, feelings, assumptions, expectations, attitude, norm, and value (cited by Jazzar & Algozzine, 2006:27).

Organizational culture is an attempt to get at the feel, sense, atmosphere, character, or image of an organization. It encompasses many of the earlier nations of informal organization, norms, values, ideologies, and emergent systems. General definition of organizational culture is a system of shared orientations that hold the unit together and give it a distinctive identity (Hoy & Miskel, 2008:177).

The research conducted by Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell in 1991 showed that there are seven main characteristics which, as a whole, is the nature of cultural dimension of an organization (cited by Robbins & Judge, 2009:585-586). They are as follows: (1) **Innovation and risk taking:** the degree to which employees are encouraged to be innovative and take risks; (2) **Attention to detail:** the degree to which employees are expected to exhibit precision, analysis, and attention to detail; (3) **Outcome orientation:** the degree to which management focuses on results or outcomes rather than on the techniques and processes used to achieve those outcomes; (4) **People**
orientation: the degree to which management decisions take into consideration the effect of outcomes on people within the organization; (5) Team orientation: the degree to which work activities are organized around teams rather than individuals; (6) Aggressiveness: the degree to which people are aggressive and competitive rather than easygoing; and (7) Stability: the degree to which organizational activities emphasize maintaining the status quo in contrast to growth.

On the Ability. According to S. Robbins and T.A. Judge (2009:79), ability means the capacity of an individual’s ability to perform various tasks in a job. Ability is a current assessment of what individuals can do. The overall ability of an individual basically consists of two factors: intellectual and physical. Intellectual abilities are abilities needed to perform mental activities – for thinking, reasoning, and problem solving. People in most societies place a high value on intelligence and for good reason. Physical abilities are the capacity to do task that demand stamina, dexterity, strength, and similar characteristics.

This is also noted by M.J. Ivancevich, R. Konopaske and T.M. Matteson (2005:85-86) which said that ability is a talent for someone to perform physical or mental tasks, while skill is a talent learned to perform a task. The ability of a person is generally stable for several times. Skills change with trainings or experiences, because people can be trained to have skills.

Furthermore, Abin Syamsudin Makmun (2007:54) elaborated ability in two categories: potential ability and actual ability. It was explained that potential ability refers to the aspect that is still contained within the person that he acquired by hereditary (innateness), which may be: general intelligence and specialized basic ability in certain areas (talent, attitudes). While, actual ability shows the aspects of skills that can be demonstrated and tested because it is the result of learning concerned with how to materials and ways that the learner has passed through (achievement). In other words, actual ability can be trained.

On the Motivation. Motivation, as something that gets us going, keeps us moving and helps us complete tasks. Motivation is the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002:5).

McClelland said that these learned needs represented behavioral predispositions that influence the way individuals perceive situations and motivate them to pursue a particular goal. McClelland and his associates, particularly John Atkinson, also investigated three of Murray’s needs: achievement, affiliation, and power. In the literature, these three needs are abbreviated nAch, nAff, and nPow (cited by Luthans & Davis, 2003:39).

When a very strong need appears within someone, that need motivates him to use behavior that can give him satisfaction. The need for achievement as behavior directed toward competition with a standard of excellence (Luthans & Davis, 2003:39). The need for affiliation as a desire to establish and maintain friendly and warm relations with other individuals (Luthans & Davis, 2003:41). The need for power as the need to control others, to influence their behavior, and to be responsible for them.
In his research on the need for power, McClelland describe “two face of power”. The need for power can take the form of personal power, in which individuals strive for dominance almost for the sake of dominance, or social power in which individuals are more concerned with the problems of the organization and what can be done to facilitate goal attainment (cited by Luthans & Davis, 2003:42). The main theme of McClelland’s theory is that these needs are learned through adjustment to someone’s environment.

Gardner, in *Educational Leadership*, declares that the key challenges of leadership: long term, big picture thinking with an expansive reach (cited by Fullan, 2007:1). It’s leaders’s responsibility to articulate and highlight intangibles like vision, values, and motivation. Meanwhile, Conger and Kanungo declare that the distinction between leaders and managers, contending that motivation is the ”very essence” of true leadership, coupled with the ability to leaders to build an emotional attachment with their followers (cited by Gorton, Altson & Snowden, 2007:6).

**Research Methods**

The method of research used is quantitative method (Cresswell, 2008). The research is carried out in order to obtain a causal model of organizational culture, ability, and motivation based on geoleadership model influence on leadership capacity in realizing intelligent school of Catholic Junior High Schools Leaders in West Java area in Indonesia. It was done by identifying, describing, and assessing the organizational culture, ability, and motivation of the leaders based on geoleadership model i.e. Care, Communication, Contrast, Consciousness, Context, Change, and Capability; and to analyze their influence on the leadership capacity in realizing intelligent school of Catholic Junior High Schools in West Java area in Indonesia. The independent variables are organizational culture, ability, and motivation; while the dependent variables are leadership capacity and intelligent school.

Data collection using a 1-5 Likert-scale questionnaires produces data with ordinal measurement scale. In order to be processed by path analysis that uses the interval-scale data, the data obtained in ordinal measurement scale was first transformed into a scale of measurement range by using the help of successive intervals method of application in microsoft excel, then the number of interval scale items was used for every variable of the study. The results of research was processed by means of path analysis that uses the help of Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) software version 14 (Allen, 1984). Research samples are total samples of 130 Catholic Junior High Schools Leaders in West Java area in Indonesia.

**Research Results**

*First, on the Correlation Model of the Influence of Organizational Culture, Ability, and Motivation to Leadership Capacity and Leadership Capacity to Intelligent School.* The model is shown below:
Tables below are also concerning on the Correlation Model of the Influence of Organizational Culture, Ability, and Motivation to Leadership Capacity and Leadership Capacity to Intelligent School.
Table 2:
Correlation Coefficient between Variable \( X_1 \), \( X_2 \), and \( X_3 \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Organizational Culture ( (X_1) )</th>
<th>Ability ( (X_2) )</th>
<th>Motivation ( (X_3) )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Culture ( (X_1) )</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.916</td>
<td>0.940</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability ( (X_2) )</td>
<td>0.916</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.897</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation ( (X_3) )</td>
<td>0.940</td>
<td>0.897</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3:
Calculation Result of the Influence of \( X_1 \), \( X_2 \), \( X_3 \) Variables to \( Y \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Interpretation of the Influence (%) to Leadership Capacity</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Direct</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organizational Culture ( (X_1) )</td>
<td>Ability ( (X_2) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>25.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13.38</td>
<td>23.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>16.34</td>
<td>48.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4:
Path Coefficient, Influence of Variable \( Y \) to \( Z \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Path Coefficient</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leadership Capacity ( (Y) )</td>
<td>0.866</td>
<td>19.579</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5:
Calculation Result of the Influence of \( X_1 \), \( X_2 \), \( X_3 \) Variables to \( Z \) Through \( Y \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Interpretation of the Influence (%)</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Leadership Capacity ( (Y) )</td>
<td>Intelligent School ( (Z) )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Culture ( (X_1) )</td>
<td>16.34</td>
<td>74.97</td>
<td>12.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability ( (X_2) )</td>
<td>48.23</td>
<td></td>
<td>36.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation ( (X_3) )</td>
<td>32.37</td>
<td></td>
<td>24.27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Second, on the Structural Relation Model of the Influence of Aspects of Geoleadership Model in Organizational Culture to Leadership Capacity. Table 6 below is found that Care, Communication, Contrast, and Capability have significant direct influence on the variables of leadership capacity at level significance \( = 0.05 \). Beside that, it is found that Consciousness, Context, and Change have no significant direct influence on the variables of leadership capacity at level significance \( = 0.05 \).
Table 6:
Path Coefficient, Aspects Influence of Organizational Culture Variable to Leadership Capacity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects of Organizational Culture Variable</th>
<th>Path Coefficient</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Care</td>
<td>0.093</td>
<td>2.015</td>
<td>0.046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>0.092</td>
<td>2.391</td>
<td>0.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast</td>
<td>0.140</td>
<td>3.334</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capability</td>
<td>0.090</td>
<td>2.430</td>
<td>0.017</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the result of calculation between the independent variable and the structural parametre values, the influence of the independent variable on the dependent variable which has direct or indirect characteristic can be determined as follows:

Table 7:
Calculation Result of Aspects Influence of Organizational Culture Variable to Leadership Capacity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Interpretation of the Influence (%) to Leadership Capacity</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Care</td>
<td>Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect</td>
<td>6.45</td>
<td>5.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7.32</td>
<td>6.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus, the degree influence with organizational culture based on Care, Communication, Contrast, and Capability is 30.18%. These show that the higher degree in organizational culture based on Care, Communication, Contrast, and Capability collectively will have an impact on improving leadership capacity at the Catholic Junior High Schools Leaders in West Java area in Indonesia.

Third, on the Structural Relation Model of the Influence of Aspects of Geoleadership Model in Ability to Leadership Capacity. Table 8 below is found that Care, Consciousness, Change, and Capability have significant direct influence on the variables of leadership capacity at level significance = 0.05. Beside that, it is found that Communication, Contrast, and Context have no significant direct influence on the variables of leadership capacity at level significance = 0.05 and up to = 0.10 tolerance.

Table 8:
Path Coefficient, Aspects Influence of Ability Variable to Leadership Capacity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects of Ability Variable</th>
<th>Path Coefficient</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Care</td>
<td>0.115</td>
<td>2.850</td>
<td>0.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consciousness</td>
<td>0.150</td>
<td>3.521</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change</td>
<td>0.077</td>
<td>1.810</td>
<td>0.073</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capability</td>
<td>0.121</td>
<td>3.036</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on the result of calculation between the independent variable and the structural parameter values, the influence of the independent variable on the dependent variable which has direct or indirect characteristic can be determined as follows:

**Table 9:**
Calculation Result of Aspects Influence of Ability Variable to Leadership Capacity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Interpretation of the Influence (%) to Leadership Capacity</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Care</td>
<td>Consciousness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>2.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect</td>
<td>8.09</td>
<td>10.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9.41</td>
<td>12.48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus, the degree influence with ability based on Care, Consciousness, Change, and Capability is 38.09%. These show that the higher degree in ability based on Care, Consciousness, Change, and Capability collectively will have an impact on improving leadership capacity at the Catholic Junior High Schools Leaders in West Java area in Indonesia.

*Fourth, on the Structural Relation Model of the Influence of Aspects of Geoleadership Model in Motivation to Leadership Capacity.* Table 10 below is found that Contrast, Consciousness, Context, and Capability have significant direct influence on the variables of leadership capacity at level significance $= 0.05$. Beside that, it is found that Care, Communication, and Change have no significant direct influence on the variables of leadership capacity at level significance $= 0.05$.

**Table 10:**
Path Coefficient, Aspects Influence of Motivation Variable to Leadership Capacity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects of Motivation Variable</th>
<th>Path Coefficient</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contrast</td>
<td>0.144</td>
<td>3.052</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consciousness</td>
<td>0.088</td>
<td>2.334</td>
<td>0.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Context</td>
<td>0.123</td>
<td>2.849</td>
<td>0.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capability</td>
<td>0.193</td>
<td>4.288</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the result of calculation between the independent variable and the structural parameter values, the influence of the independent variable on the dependent variable which has direct or indirect characteristic can be determined as follows:
Table 11
Calculation Result of Aspects Influence of Motivation Variable to Leadership Capacity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Interpretation of the Influence (%) to Leadership Capacity</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Contrast</td>
<td>Consciousness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect</td>
<td>9.34</td>
<td>5.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11.41</td>
<td>6.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus, the degree influence with motivation based on Contrast, Consciousness, Context, and Capability is 42.67%. These show that the higher degree in motivation based on Contrast, Consciousness, Context, and Capability collectively will have an impact on improving leadership capacity at the Catholic Junior High Schools Leaders in West Java area in Indonesia.

**Discussion**

In the result of research at the Catholic Junior High Schools in West Java area in Indonesia, it turned out that the variable which has the highest direct and indirect influence on leadership capacity of school leaders is ability, stronger than organizational culture and motivation. This is in accordance with the opinion of A. Harris and L. Lambert (2003:5) that capacity building is concerned with developing the conditions, skill, and ability to manage and facilitate productive change at school level.

Ability variable based on geoleadership model gives positive and relatively strong influence towards leadership capacity at Catholic Junior High Schools in West Java area in Indonesia (48.23%).

The significant part of ability that has relatively big influence is the inductive reasoning skill based on aspects of geoleadership model, i.e. Care, Consciousness, Change, and Capability. In Catholic Junior High Schools, to perform their capacity effectively leaders are expected to think thoroughly and be sensitive to students, teachers, and parents from all kinds of culture by having the ability of: (1) Estimating own and others’ ability and correct it when needed; (2) Being aware of and always follow changes that happen; (3) Care, sensitivity, and respect to other various cultures; and (4) Adapting to various environments.

Basically, successful change is a function of how well an organization's internal capabilities – its management capacity, culture, processes, resources and people – match the requirements of its external environment (Jarrett, 2009:8). These abilities need to be supported by organizational culture and motivation which should be a resonance that gives a thrill to the institution to make all parties concerned aware of acting proactively to change.
Motivation variable based on geoleadership model gives positive, significant, and relatively moderate influence towards leadership capacity at Catholic Junior High Schools in West Java area in Indonesia (32.37%). In this context, M. Jazzar and B. Algozzine (2006:42) said that one of the leading challenges in education remains the implementation of effective human motivational strategies to enhance performance and accountability.

In research at Catholic Junior High Schools, the parts of motivation i.e. the need of power and affiliation based on aspects of geoleadership model namely Contrast, Consciousness, Context, and Capability have quite a large influence towards leadership capacity. To perform, effective leaders must have abilities to: (1) Take responsibility; (2) Influence people, change the situation to have positive impact on the organization; (3) Manage employees based on motivational pattern; (4) Have social relationship with others; (5) Understand the working attitude and the behavior for the sake of the organization as a whole; (6) Grow mind set and estimate own and others’ ability and then correct them when needed; and (7) Show flexibility in adapting to dynamic cultural environment.

Therefore, motivation is a strong driving force which leads to behaviors that reflect high performance within organizations to manage and also to be aware of the condition of the organizations’ members.

R.L. Daft (2008:226) states that motivation refers to the forces either internal or external to a person that arouse enthusiasm and persistence to pursue a certain course of action. Employee motivation effect productivity, and so part of a leader’s job is to channel followers’ motivation toward the accomplishment of the organization’s vision and goals.

Organizational culture variable based on geoleadership model gives positive and significant and relatively weak influence towards leadership capacity at Catholic Junior High Schools in West Java area in Indonesia (16.34%). This is in accordance with the opinion of A.J. DuBrin (2010:385) that the leader with the skills and attitudes to relate effectively to and motivate people across race, gender, age, social attitudes, and lifestyles. To influence, motivate, and inspire culturally diverse people, the leader must be aware of overt and subtle cultural differences.

The most influential part of organizational culture is people oriented value based on aspects of geoleadership model which are: Care, Communication, Contrast, and Capability. In Catholic Junior High Schools, to realize their leadership capacity leaders must show abilities to: (1) Be aware and always follow changes; (2) Feel, see, and adapt to situations; (3) Have competitive attitude by measuring own ability and others in achieving the organization’s goal; (4) Put forward the stability of the organization by being sensitive, careful and respectful to other various cultures; (5) Make decisions by taking people in the organization into account; and (6) Work effectively in ambiguous situations.

These indicate that organizational culture cannot be separated from leadership in an organization, because organizational culture is being kept and developed continuously by leaders of organizations to achieve the organizations’ mission related with the process of decision making.
In reality, organizational culture has the smallest contribution, it is influenced by the facts that: (1) The majority of teachers come from particular ethnic groups and have their own respective traditional culture; (2) Teachers tend to work in a traditional way, following a pattern that has already existed in the organization, and are slow in making changes; and (3) Organizations tend to maintain regular mind set and activities.

This is in accordance with R. Gorton, J. Altson and R. Snowden (2007:32) that ethical consideration, values, organizational culture, and climate are additional elements that bring impact on decision making.

Leadership capacity variable gives positive, significant, and strong influence towards the intelligent school at Catholic Junior High Schools in West Java area in Indonesia, (74.97%). The crucial point is that in order to build leadership capacity, there needs to be a focused and continued emphasis on the leadership capabilities of those within the school community parents, pupils, and teachers (Harris & Lambert, 2003:90). According to Tschannen-Moran that principals can also build or damage trust by how they engage around the instructional matters of the school (cited by Fullan, 2007:104).

**Conclusion and Recommendation**

Ability based on geoleadership model has the strongest total influence on leadership capacity in Catholic Junior High Schools and the geoleadership aspects which have significant influence are Care, Consciousness, Context, and Capability.

Motivation based on geoleadership model has the second stronger total influence on leadership capacity in Catholic Junior High Schools, and the geoleadership aspects which have significant influence are Context, Change, and Capability.

Organizational culture based on geoleadership model has the weakest total influence on leadership capacity in Catholic Junior High Schools, and the geoleadership aspects which have significant influence are Care, Contrast, Consciousness, Context, and Capability.

Ability, motivation, and organizational culture collectively have moderate direct influence on leadership capacity in Catholic Junior High Schools, while its indirect influence is stronger than the indirect influence. Thus, the total influence of organizational culture, ability, and motivation collectively on leadership capacity in Catholic Junior High Schools are very strong.

Leadership capacity has strong direct influence on quality of the intelligent school in Catholic Junior High Schools. Ability, motivation, and organizational culture collectively have relatively strong indirect influence on quality of the intelligent school through leadership capacity in Catholic Junior High Schools.

Based on the study result, some recommendations are suggested as follows: 

*First*, realizing leaders’ abilities by training and seminars in leadership, management, problem solving, decision making, communication, and also in making research about internal and external data, so they can understand global situation and its influence towards changes happening within the organization.
Second, developing the ability of the leaders in decision making and conducting the right action by considering the situation and condition within the organization and the community with different cultures which also develops the flexibility in thinking and action.

Third, developing motivational and personality by personality development, self knowledge, motivation training.

Fourth, training and tutoring staff in physical, mental and spiritual aspect in problem solving, communication, leadership, management, and encourage them for further education.

Fifth, appealing the whole staff in the organization to come together and adapt with the changing of situation and condition within the organization to create a healthy organizational culture.

Sixth, creating conducive working atmosphere by developing appropriate attitude towards stakeholders and relevant institutions with various cultural background, through cooperation and task distribution.

Seventh, communicating and encouraging the application of vision and mission to reach the organization’s goal.

And finally, eighth, developing and managing fund and facilities optimally.

References


Indonesia is a part of the world in the process of globalization. Ready or not, Indonesia is involved in the changing of competition paradigm, from material to knowledge competition. This demands the government and educational institution to be ready with strategy and global vision in taking needed steps for adjustments and changes.
ABSTRACT: A principal's role is critical in sustaining or diminishing teacher commitment. Teacher commitment recorded only average in Malaysia. Accordingly, the researcher is interested in studying the relationship between transformational leadership and teacher commitment in the educational institution, exclusively in the government secondary schools in Miri, Sarawak, Malaysia. The survey instrument was developed based on conceptual framework on transformational leadership, teacher commitment, and literature review. Quantitative survey method was applied and four broadly hypothesized relationships were tested with a sample of 1,014 trained teachers serving in twenty-seven secondary schools in Miri, Sarawak. The findings showed either direct or indirect relationship between transformational leadership, teacher commitment, and moderators. They offer insights on how leadership practices affect teachers’ commitment and sense of teaching efficacy. It also necessitates for leadership development of school leaders to acquire transformational leadership qualities that are crucial in changing teachers' attitude and improving their commitment level. Future endeavors should compare these findings with similar predictors, criterion, and moderators in other areas.

KEY WORDS: School leadership, principal’s role, teacher commitment, transformational leadership, and educational institution in Sarawak, Malaysia.

INTRODUCTION

A principal is the most powerful and influential individual in school. The role of a school principal is considered as the first and foremost important person in ensuring the effectiveness of the school and efficiency in running the school (Sabariah et al., 2002). Thus, educators and policymakers alike seek a frame for effective leadership that can produce sustainable school improvement and continuous teacher commitment (Lambertz, 2002). It was also purported by B.M. Bass (1990) that leadership style that encourages employees’ commitment is essential for an organization to successfully achieving their goal.

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School leadership is absolutely crucial to energize and bring dynamism to our schools. It is the vital role of a school leadership to nurture professional growth and bring effective leadership to bear in schools. It is also definitely the utmost role of the most effective and dynamic school leadership that a school leader should take heed and adopt as it affects the level of teacher commitment in the education arena in Malaysia. School leadership has become a priority in education policy agendas internationally. It plays a key role in improving school outcomes by influencing the motivations and capacities of teachers, as well as the school climate and environment.

**Studies on the School leadership**

Moreover, researchers like S.M. Hord (1992); T.J. Sergiovanni (1992); K. Leithwood, D. Tomlinson and M. Genge (1996); M. Fullan (1996); D.T. Conley (1997); L.E. Wood (1998); L.W. Reid, J.T. Roberts and H.M. Hilliard (1998); J.M. Perez *et al.* (1999); and P. Tesker and M. Schneider (1999) point out that a number of studies emphasize the importance of transformative leadership for school principals. It is significantly important for school principals to embrace transformational leadership as it affects the level of teacher commitment. Besides, principal’s leadership has great influence towards the school achievement quality, students’ achievement, and teachers’ commitment (Ibrahim, 1998).

The role of the principal is critical in sustaining teacher commitment by being attentive to personal and school context factors. Moreover, the principal’s role is equally critical in addressing the system context factors that diminish teacher commitment (Day, Elliot & Kington, 2005). Today, principals are being evaluated by student achievement on standardized achievement tests (Kavanaugh, 2005). Therefore, L.J. Matthews and G.M. Crow (2003) noted that the demand of raising student achievement has placed an unprecedented level of public scrutiny on the job performance of principals. To appropriately meet the challenge of tomorrow’s schools, the new approach demands that the principal, staff, parents, and community work together sharing a vision of how to help all students achieve (Lunenburg & Irby, 2006). In brief, an examination of the influence of school leaders on the process and outcomes of schooling is essential to the larger context of educational improvement. Therefore, the study of principal leadership can be informative to schools just as the study of leadership in other organizations is valuable to understanding organizational outcomes (Yukl, 2006).

Traditionally, the teaching role has been one of nurturing and developing students’ potential. However, teachers’ work today comprises a complex mix of various factors that include teaching, learning new information and skills, keeping abreast of technological innovations, and dealing with students, parents, and the community. These are demanding roles and there are growing concerns about teacher well-being and competence. In particular, teachers are experiencing increasing levels of attrition, stress, and burnout (Pillay, Goddard & Wilss, 2005).
On top of that, Sabariah et al. (2002), in their research, discovered that the level of teacher’s organizational commitment was only average in Malaysia. This is definitely not a healthy phenomenon if a nation aims to progress holistically in education system. This average level of teachers’ commitment to their profession absolutely needs immediate and serious attention.

Moreover, teachers’ commitment is reported to decrease progressively over the course of their teaching career (Huberman, 1993; and Fraser, Draper & Taylor, 1998). At the beginning of a teacher’s career, there is an early stage of commitment to teaching associated with the choice of professional identity followed by a stage of experimentation and search for new challenges; teachers often experience a stage of conservatism and which can lead to eventual disengagement. This transition, from an enthusiastic engagement with the profession to a more distanced and limited involvement, reduces a teacher’s willingness to reform classroom practice, engagement to school initiatives and levels of participation in extra-curricular activities. A decrease in commitment levels during the course of the teaching career is also problematic in relation to the retention of experienced teachers in the classroom. Thus, attention should be given to alleviating this issue or it would lower the quality of teachers’ commitment in the educational system (Huberman, 1993).

Besides, N. Fauziah et al. (2008) also discovered that teachers had low to moderate levels of professionalization, and there was no correlation between affective commitment and job environment in a study conducted in Malaysia. It also reported that teachers only had moderate levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Thus, a more dynamic principal leadership style is needed and must be studied in order to improve the teachers’ commitment level.

Most importantly, the level of commitment is directly influenced by the principal’s leadership. Hence, K. Singh and B.S. Billingsley (1996) indicated the importance of principal leadership in enhancing teacher commitment and the effect principals can have on teachers’ collegial relationship in a study. Furthermore, lack of acknowledgement and professional support from school leaders diminished teachers’ commitment (Elliott & Crosswell, 2001). In addition, commitment to the workplace is becoming understood as a hallmark of organizational success (Rosenholtz & Simpson, 1990). The level of teachers’ commitment is seen as a key factor in the success of current educational reform agenda (Crowley et al., 1998).

Furthermore, transformational approaches to leadership have increasingly been advocated for schools and the importance of individual principal-teacher relationship in schools was highlighted (McCormick, 2004). Besides, transformational leadership would contribute to teacher commitment to organization values, exclusively through collective teacher efficacy. Moreover, leadership would have direct effects on teacher commitment and indirect effects through teacher efficacy. Furthermore, transformational leadership had an impact on the collective teacher efficacy of the school, teacher efficacy alone predicted teacher commitment to community partnerships, and transformational leadership had direct and indirect effects on
teacher commitment to school mission and commitment to professional learning community (Ross & Gray, 2006).

Besides, transformational leadership enhances an organization by raising the values of members, motivating them to go beyond self-interest to embrace organizational goals, and redefining their needs to align with organizational preferences (Ross & Gray, 2006). In addition, transformational leadership also contributes to a closely related concept, organizational citizenship which refers to an individual’s willingness to go beyond the formal requirements of the job, to engage in productive functions, and to enhance organizational effectiveness (Koh, Steers & Terbong, 1995; Leithwood, Tomlinson & Genge, 1996; and Nguni, Sleegers & Denessen, 2006).

The researcher is interested in studying the relationship between transformational leadership and teacher commitment in the educational institution, exclusively in the government secondary schools in Miri, Sarawak, Malaysia. Minimal research attention has been directed towards the relationship between transformational leadership practices and teacher commitment in secondary schools in Malaysia, essentially in Sarawak. However, there has been research on the relationship between teachers’ commitment and job satisfaction. Numerous reasons that lead to job satisfaction are high salary, favorable working environment, and rewards. Nevertheless, the major cause of job satisfaction is the principals who embrace transformational leadership quality that enhances its impact to the teachers’ commitment to their profession and, thereafter, bring positive impact to the students’ academic performance.

The deficiencies in our existing knowledge about the relationship between transformational leadership behaviors and teacher commitment are obvious. By examining this relationship between transformational leadership and teachers’ commitment in education institutions, we can increase our understanding on the importance of transformational leadership and its impact on the teachers’ commitment. Moreover, this study provides the basics for assessing and improving the school principals’ leadership qualities in Sarawak, Malaysia. Next, it helps the principals to acquire transformational leadership qualities which perceived to get teachers’ commitment. Besides, it alerts the Ministry of Education of Malaysia to understand the needs of implementing transformational leadership among the school principals to gain teacher commitment in Malaysia.

Teacher commitment has been identified as one of the most critical factors for the future success of education and schools (Huberman, 1993). The level of teachers’ commitment is considered to be a key factor in the success of the current educational reform agenda as it heavily influences teachers’ willingness to engage in cooperative, reflective, and critical practice. This is because teaching is a complex and demanding profession. To sustain their energy and enthusiasm for the work, teachers need to maintain their personal commitment to the job (Day, 2000). This concept of commitment, as investment of personal resources, has long been associated with the professional characteristics of a teacher. Besides, teaching is a
complex and demanding work and there is a daily need for teachers to fully engage in that work with not only their heads but also their hearts (Day, 2000).

**AIM, OBJECTIVE OF STUDY, AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The purposes of this study were to investigate: (1) the level of teacher commitment; (2) teachers’ perception of their principal’s transformational leadership qualities; (3) the relationship between transformational leadership i.e. idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration with teacher commitment i.e. towards organization, towards teaching profession, and towards student learning; (4) the relationship between moderators and teacher commitment; and (5) the differences in the mean scores among the transformational leadership and teacher commitment components in relation to teachers’ demography i.e. age-group, years of teaching experience, status, and service category.

The questions formulated are as follows. *First*, what is the extent of the principal’s practice of transformational leadership (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) in secondary schools in Miri, Sarawak, Malaysia? *Second*, what is the extent of teacher commitment (towards organization, towards teaching profession, and towards student learning)? *Third*, what are the extents of relationship between moderators (teacher efficacy and teaching experience) and teacher commitment? And finally, *fourth*, what are the differences in the mean scores of transformational leadership and teacher commitment in relation to teachers’ demography (age-group, years of teaching experience, status, and service category) in this study?

**Conceptual Framework and Literature Review**

On the “Transformational Leadership Theory” is grounded on the theory by B.M. Bass and R.E. Rigglo (2006). On the other hand, the framework on “Teacher Commitment” is adapted from V. Dannetta (2002).


*First*, it is “idealized influence”. Transformational leaders behave in ways that allow them to serve as role models for their followers. The leaders are admired, respected, and trusted. Followers identify with the leaders and want to emulate them; leaders are endowed by their followers as having extraordinary capabilities, persistence, and determination. Thus, there are two aspects to idealized influence: the leaders’ behaviors and the elements that are attributed to the leader by followers and other associates. In addition, leaders who have a great deal of “idealized influence” are willing to take risks and are consistent rather than arbitrary. They
can be counted on to do the right thing, demonstrating high standards of ethical and moral conduct.

Second, it is “inspirational motivation”. Transformational leaders behave in ways that motivate and inspire those around them by providing meaning and challenge to their followers’ work. Team spirit is aroused. Enthusiasm and optimism are displayed. Leaders get followers involved in envisioning attractive future states; they create clearly communicated expectations that followers want to meet and also demonstrate commitment to goals and the shared vision. “Inspirational motivation” leadership and “inspirational motivation” usually form a combined single factor of charismatic-inspirational leadership. The charismatic-inspirational factor is similar to the behaviors described in charismatic leadership theory (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

Third, it is “intellectual stimulation”. Transformational leaders stimulate their followers’ efforts to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways. Creativity is encouraged. There is no public criticism of individual members’ mistakes. New ideas and creative problem solutions are solicited from followers who are included in the process of addressing problems and finding solutions. Followers are encouraged to try new approaches, and their ideas are not criticized because they differ from the leaders’ ideas.

Fourth, it is “individualized consideration”. Transformational leaders pay special attention to each individual follower’s needs for achievement and growth by acting as a coach or mentor. Followers and colleagues are developed to successively higher levels of potential. “Individualized consideration” is practical when new learning opportunities are created along with a supportive climate. Individual differences in terms of needs and desires are recognized. The leaders’ behavior demonstrates acceptance of individual differences. A two-way exchange in communication is encouraged and management by making around workspace is practical. Interactions with followers are personalized. The individually considerate leader listens effectively. The leader delegates tasks as a means of developing followers. Delegated tasks are monitored to see if the followers need additional direction or support and to assess progress; ideally, followers do not feel they are being checked on (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

On the Teacher Commitment. V. Dannetta (2002) points out that regardless of the efforts of the most capable leaders in a school, accomplishing school goals depends in large part on a better understanding of the sources, nature and development of a teacher’s commitment. An understanding of teachers’ level of commitment is important because it reflects their personal interpretation of how absorbing and meaningful their work experiences are.

Commitment refers to one’s level of involvement in the organization. Commitment describes an outcome in which one agrees with a decision or request and makes a great effort to carry out that decision or request effectively (Yukl, 2006). For a complex, difficult task, commitment is usually the most successful outcome.
from the perspective of the agent who makes an influence attempt (Yukl, 2006).

Teacher commitment has been emphasized in three broad categories: commitment towards organization, commitment towards teaching profession, and commitment towards student learning (Dannetta, 2002). First, “organizational commitment” definitions include the belief in and acceptance of organizational goals and values; willingness to exert effort on the organization’s behalf; and a desire to remain in the organization (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982). Second, “commitment towards teaching profession” is generally the degree to which one has a positive, affective attachment to one’s work (Firestone & Rosenblum, 1988; and Coladarci, 1992). Third, “commitment towards student learning” focuses on the degree to which teachers are dedicated to student learning regardless of the other issues that may be involved (e.g. academic difficulties and social background).

First, on the “commitment towards organization” creates a sense of community, affiliation, and personal caring among adults within the schools and facilitates integration between personal life and work life (Louis, 1998). Many factors impact teachers’ levels of “commitment towards organization”. Specifically, previous studies show that teachers’ “commitment towards organization” is influenced by: beliefs and acceptance of organizational goals (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1979 and 1982; and Riehl & Sipple, 1996); level of involvement in decision making (Kushman, 1992); orderly climates conducive to learning (Rosenholtz, 1989; and Kushman, 1992); and student achievement (Kushman, 1992).

S.J. Rosenholtz (1989) suggested two workplace factors that shape teacher commitment towards organization- psychics rewards and task autonomy. Psychic rewards are important in shaping organizational commitment. For the work to be motivating, people must have knowledge of the success of their efforts (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). The amount of positive feedback one receives from doing work and one’s knowledge of his or her own performance are directly related. Feedback can be obtained directly from the work itself or it can be obtained from external recognition and approved that may be offered by others within the organization. When people are able to gain estimates of their particular worth based upon positive performances, it amounts to psychic rewards (Rosenholtz, 1989).

Increased task autonomy is another organizational condition that S.J. Rosenholtz (1989) suggested can enhance teacher commitment. Professional autonomy has a strong association with teacher commitment and gives teachers a sense of making greater contributions to the organization (Nir, 2002). Again, S.J. Rosenholtz suggested that as people are given more autonomy and discretion to exercise judgment and choice, they become more aware of themselves as causal agents in their own performance. Professional independence and discretion bolster motivation, responsibility, and commitment while a lack of autonomy is cited as a reason for dissatisfaction, absenteeism, and defection (Chapman & Hutcheson, 1982). When specific rules and mandatory teaching practices are counter to the professional practices that teachers know are successful, frustrations develop that can outweigh their rewards and inevitably the academic success of the school suffers (Rosenholtz, 1989).
Second, on the “commitment towards teaching” refers to the teaching profession in a general sense. Accordingly, W.A. Firestone and S. Rosenblum (1988) described this dimension as emphasizing fulfillment from exercising craft skill. They also suggested that higher levels of commitment are experienced when there is a sense of relevance or purpose in one’s work. Teachers with no sense of relevance on their teaching are not as committed as others, possibly due to the frustrations of their work. Not only do teachers leave the profession because of frustration but also because they become attracted to alternative activities (Fresko, Kfir & Nasser, 1997).

Commitment and the degree to which teachers are satisfied and enjoy what they are doing are interactions that take place throughout a teacher’s career (Fresko, Kfir & Nasser, 1997). Meanwhile, W.A. Firestone and J.R. Pennell (1993) noted that the committed teacher is one who is intrinsically motivated because of a sense of meaning in the job responsibilities. The level of commitment is further enhanced when there is a connection to the larger purpose as opposed to a routine task. To maximize intrinsic motivation and commitment, tasks should be neither too complex new too simplistic, but optimally challenging (Deci & Ryan, 1985). It is incumbent upon administrators to discern the difference and provide the appropriate support as needed in various situations.

Administrative support for teachers can enhance teacher commitment to teaching (Firestone & Rosenblum, 1988). Support from administrators contributes to teachers’ performance and willingness to stay in the teaching field (Dworkin, 1987). A primary area of support is student discipline. Teachers expect the principal to control the public spaces in the school and to be sympathetic when teachers have problems with uncontrollable students (Firestone & Rosenblum, 1988). Teachers also expect administrators to reduce paperwork, support them in parental disputes, and minimize outside interruptions to their classroom (Rosenhlotz, 1985).

Third, on the “teacher commitment towards students” can be conceptualized as a commitment to students as unique, whole individuals (Louis, 1998) or as a commitment to student learning. W.K. Hoy and his colleagues’ conception of teacher commitment consist of the committed behaviors directed toward both the social and intellectual development of students (Hoy & Tarter, 1997; and Hoy & Sabo, 1998). Commitment to students as unique, whole individuals is a form of commitment that may motivate teachers to interact with students on a more sensitive level such as adolescent development issues or extracurricular activities (Louis, 1998). So, “commitment towards student learning” involves teacher dedication to helping students learn regardless of academic difficulties or social background (Dannetta, 2002).

As student learning increases, teachers gain intrinsic rewards and thus become more committed (Kushman, 1992). Teacher commitment to students may not necessarily contribute much to student learning (Firestone & Rosenblum, 1988). Although high teacher commitment may not increase academic success, W.A. Firestone and J.R. Pennell (1993) noted that low teacher commitment contributed
to a reduction in student achievement. Teachers with lower levels of commitment develop fewer plans to improve the academic quality of their instruction. They are less sympathetic toward students, have more anxiety, and have less tolerance for frustration in the classroom.

**Methodology and Research Limitation**

Quantitative survey method was applied and four broadly hypothesized relationships were tested with a sample of 1,014 trained non-graduate and graduate teachers serving in twenty-seven secondary schools in Miri, Sarawak, Malaysia. Data were gathered via survey instruments entitled “Transformational Leadership and Teacher Commitment” developed based on conceptual framework on transformational leadership (Bass & Rigglo, 2006); teacher commitment (Dannetta, 2002); literature review; and two components of moderators i.e. teacher efficacy (Guskey & Passaro, 1994) and teaching experience (Adeyemi, 2008).

A survey questionnaire was used to collect quantitative data as E. Babbie (2001) suggested that survey is the best tool to collect authentic data from a big population through a sampling technique. The general theoretical correlation between these three variables and their components were shown in figure 1 below.

The variables were: *transformational leadership* (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration); *teacher commitment* (towards organization, towards teaching profession, and towards student learning); and *moderators* (teacher efficacy and teaching experience).

Next, a survey research was the most suitable tool used in this study as the researcher did not have any authority over the transformational leadership practices in secondary schools in Sarawak. Moreover, any practices, plans or others concerning transformational leadership was beyond the ability of the researcher. Besides, a research design was also best used to analyze a big and scattered population of teachers in Sarawak. In addition, there were many researchers who had used a quantitative survey research to conduct studies on transformational practices and teacher commitment (Amoroso, 2002; Barbuto, 2005; Antonakis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2007; and others).

This study employed a survey questionnaire as it could present sensitive questions for the respondents to answer, and the respondents would also feel more relaxed in giving their feedback since their identities were protected (Sekaran, 2003). Next, it was also more practical and effective to be used for a big population as it could accommodate a bigger sample size that improved statistical accuracy by determining the population parameter and thus reducing the sampling error (Konting, 2005). Besides, it was cheaper and faster to conduct, and easier to enter the data into the computer and analyzed them more fairly using the consistent format (Othman, 2002).
L.R. Gay and P. Airasian (2000) suggested that a sample of 10-20% of the population is sufficient to carry out the research. However, the researcher increased the number of total respondents to 1,014 (53.26%) as J. Pallant (2007) had suggested that choosing a larger sample size than what was needed was necessary. This was to enable a possible sufficient collection of data, should there be any spoilt survey questionnaires such as respondents did not return the instrument or did not attempt in answering the instrument completely.

The samples were confined to school principals, trained non-graduate, and graduates teachers serving in twenty-seven government secondary schools in Miri, Sarawak, Malaysia as it contained sufficient samples whose qualification, certification, job confirmation, service category, and promotion were similar in the Ministry of Education in Malaysia. It was also in accordance to what U. Sekaran (2003) had suggested that certain groups were adequately represented through the assignment of a quota.

Next, it was a convenient sampling as the researcher was a trained graduate teacher serving in a government secondary schools in Miri and it was believed it would yield the most accurate assessment of their principals’ leadership behaviors.
Besides, P.F. Amoroso (2002) suggested that gathering data from teachers working with a principal on a daily basis was determined to be the best source of this specific research design.

It was a stratified random sampling based on the listed government secondary schools in Sarawak as it was suitably used to obtain samples from a big and scattered population (Mertzens, 1998; Babbie, 2001; and Konting, 2005). Besides, it also ensured an availability of special characteristics which were needed to run statistical analysis in a study (Cresswell, 2005). Next, it could also reduce sampling error (Konting, 2005). Furthermore, disproportionate sampling was used as it had a sufficient representation of data which were necessary to examine the comparison in any hypotheses (Sekaran, 2003).

To collect data, a self-developed survey questionnaire was used as it permitted the collection or reliable and reasonably valid data in a sample and was cheap to administer (Anderson & Arsenault, 2002:170). It was motivated to collect data from a large number of respondents (McBurney, 2001:239). Next, J.W. Cresswell (2005) also suggested that the information in an instrument could also be used to answer research questions as required in a study.

The “Transformational Leadership and Teacher Commitment Questionnaire” consisted of six sections (school profile, principal’s and teacher’s profile, the practice of transformational leadership, teacher commitment level, and moderators), and had a total of 117 items. The questions on school profile, principals and teacher’s profile were in nominal scale, and the other sections dictated the responses on a five-point Likert-Scale like 1 = Never, 2 = Seldom, 3 = Moderate, 4 = Often, and 5 = Always; and 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Moderately Agree, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly Agree.

To ensure the clarity and readability of the instructions, and the contents of the questionnaire, it was pilot tested to teachers in Bintulu (another division) in Sarawak, because B.W. Tuckman (1999) had suggested that pilot study was essential to be conducted among the population which would not be taken as the real samples in a study. To achieve a better response rate, the feedback from some respondents were identified and rectified.

To examine the reliability of the instrument, Cronbach’s Alpha was calculated to measure the internal consistency reliability of transformational leadership, teacher commitment, and moderators. The results showed the internal consistency reliability was above 0.90 in final stage excluding “commitment towards student learning”, “teacher efficacy”, and “teaching experience” which were below 0.75. However, all the scales had acceptable reliability as many researchers report that anything above 0.6 is acceptable.

Next, to examine its validity, the research instrument was analyzed using factor analysis. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) values measure of sampling adequacy were well above the acceptable level of 0.6 and thus factorability was assumed (Coakes, Steed & Dzidic, 2006).
The collected data were analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Science) Version 15.0 program for windows for descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive analysis, like mean scores and standard deviation, were used to examine the findings. Inferential statistics like correlation analysis was used to examine the strength and linear relation direction between two variables (Pallant, 2007). Next, Multiple Regression Analysis was used to test the hypothesis that a significant relationship existed between transformational leadership and teacher commitment, and between moderators and teacher commitment. Besides, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) were used to determine the significant differences in mean scores among transformational leadership and teacher commitment components in relation to demography.

It has relied primarily on samples drawn specifically from the trained teachers serving in secondary schools in Miri, Sarawak at a fixed period time only. Hence, the direction of casualty cannot be determined. Next, it is uncertain that the obtained results can be generalized to all the trained non-graduate and graduate teachers in other divisions in Sarawak. Besides, it is not a longitudinal study, and like any other cross-sectioned study, it can only provide a static perspective on fit. Thus, only conclusions or discussions of the general relationships between the variables were drawn in this study.

Moreover, respondents were told that the questionnaires were collected mainly for research purposes which are likely to result in less self-enhancement than when data are collected for administrative purposes (Farh & Werbel, 1986; and Korsgaard, Schweger & Sapienza, 2004). Next, some teachers might have preconceived opinions and expectations regarding differences in their principal’s leadership behaviors and thus they might rate their leadership negatively as a way to seek revenge to blacklist him or her. On the other hand, some teachers might just simply answer the items for the sake of submitting the instruments. Besides, some might have rated their commitment level higher as a way to please themselves and their principal. All these unfavorable behaviors might distort the reliability and validity of the instrument.

Furthermore, some showed reluctance to respond to the instrument as they feared that their principal might check and read their answers and thus affected their annual performance report. Next, different cultural and international contexts may limit the generalizability of results. It is unclear whether the findings may have the same implications for teachers in different cultural environment as the values of the participants in this current study might not accurately represent the values of other countries. Comparative studies across cultures, schools in other divisions or areas are needed in order to truly understand many of the constructs, included in the study.

**Research Findings**

The model was specified and tested using Pearson Correlation, multiple regression, ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) and MANOVA (Multivariate Analysis of Variance)
analysis, and was found to fit the data reasonably. The high Cronbach’s Alpha values ranged from 0.723 to 0.954. It indicated that the items used for measuring transformational leadership and teacher commitment were reliable. On the other hand, KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) values which ranged from 0.617 to 0.868 showed that sampling adequacy was far greater than 0.6 and thus indicating that the instrument was significant (Coakes, Steed & Dzidic, 2006).

The statistical values for skewness and kurtosis recorded between -1.96 to +1.96 and thus the data were of normal distribution and were suitable for data analysis (Chua, 2008). For skewness, it ranged from 0.036 to 0.612; and for kurtosis, it ranged from 0.054 to 0.671 in this study.

On the Extent of Principal’s Transformational Leadership Practice. Teachers perceived an overall low level of their principals’ transformational leadership qualities as the mean scores recorded only 30.09. “Idealized Influence” recorded 41.88, “Intellectual Stimulation” stood 21.83, “Inspirational Motivation” recorded 27.77, and “Individualized Consideration” stood 28.86.

On the Extent of Teacher Commitment. Teachers demonstrated an average level of commitment as the mean scores recorded 55.84. “Commitment towards organization” recorded 93.96, “Commitment towards teaching profession” stood 56.13, and “Commitment towards student learning” recorded 17.43.

On the Extents of Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Teacher Commitment. There were partially significant linear correlations between transformational leadership and teacher commitment (r = 0.443). “Individualized consideration” recorded the strongest linear correlation (r = 0.516), and “inspirational motivation” had the weakest linear correlation (r = 0.463) with “commitment towards organization”. Next, “inspirational motivation” had the strongest linear correlation (r = 0.398), and “intellectual stimulation” (r = 0.335) had the weakest linear correlation with “commitment towards teaching profession”. Besides, “intellectual stimulation” had the lowest correlation (r = -0.18) with “commitment towards student learning”, and it was not significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Significantly, “individualized consideration” (B = 0.370, p<0.05) contributed 26.6 percent of the variance (R Square = 0.266) in “commitment towards organization” as indicated by the F-value of [F(1.1012) = 367.202]. It indicated that “individualized consideration” (B = 0.516, p<0.05) was the main factor which caused the respondents to “commit towards organization”. The combination of both “individualized consideration” (B = 0.370, p<0.05), and “idealized influence” (B = 0.182, p<0.05) caused an increase of 1.2 per cent (27.8 – 26.6 per cent) to the variance (R Square = 0.275) in “commitment towards organization” [F(2.1011) = 194.753, p<0.05]. In brief, “idealized influence” and “individualized consideration” were predictors of “commitment towards organization”.

Next, significantly, “inspirational motivation” (B = 0.264, p<0.05); “individualized consideration” (B = 0.295, p<0.05); and “intellectual stimulation” (B = 0.122, p<0.05) contributed 18.1 percent of the variance (R Square = 0.181)
in “commitment towards teaching profession” as indicated by the F-value of [F(3.1010) = 74.328]. It indicated that “inspirational motivation” (B = 0.398, p<0.05) was the main factor which caused the respondents to commit towards teaching profession. The combination of both “inspirational motivation” (B = 0.229, p<0.05), and “individualized consideration” (B = 0.218, p<0.05) caused an increase of 1.9 per cent (17.7 – 15.8 per cent) to the variance (R Square = 17.7) in “commitment towards teaching profession” [F(3.1011) = 108.948, p<0.05]. Besides, when “intellectual stimulation” (B = 0.122, p<0.05) was included, all the three independent variables contributed 18.1 per cent (r = 0.043) of the variability in “commitment towards teaching profession” [F(3.1010) = 74.328]. In brief, “inspirational motivation”, “individualized consideration”, and “intellectual stimulation” were predictors of “commitment towards teaching profession”.

However, “idealized influence”, “inspirational motivation”, “intellectual stimulation”, and “individualized consideration” were not predictors of “commitment towards student learning” in this study.

On the Extents of Relationship between Moderators and Teacher Commitment. There were significant linear correlations between moderators and teacher commitment. “Teacher efficacy” had the strongest linear correlation (r = 0.377) with “commitment towards organization”, and the weakest linear correlation (r = 0.107) with “commitment towards student learning”. Next, “teaching experience” had the strongest linear correlation (r = 0.292) with “commitment towards organization”, and the weakest linear correlation with “commitment towards student learning” (r = 0.029), and it was significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Next, significantly, “teacher efficacy” (B = 0.308, p<0.05) and “teaching experience” (B = 0.143, p<0.05) contributed 15.8 percent of the variance (R Square = 0.158) in “commitment towards organization” as indicated by the F-value of [F(2.1011) = 94.890]. In brief, “teacher efficacy” and “teaching experience” were factors to “commitment towards organization”.

Besides, significantly, “teacher efficacy” (B = 0.274, p<0.05), and “teaching experience” (B = 0.156, p<0.05) contributed 14.1 percent of the variance (R Square = 0.141) in “commitment towards teaching profession” as indicated by the F-value of [F(2.1011) = 82.919]. In brief, “teacher efficacy” and “teaching experience” were factors to “commitment towards teaching profession”.

Moreover, significantly, “teacher efficacy” (B = 0.107, p<0.05) contributed 10.7 percent of the variance (R Square = 0.107) in “commitment towards student learning” as indicated by the F-value of [F(1.1012) = 11.633]. In brief, “teacher efficacy” was a factor to “commitment towards student learning”.

On the Differences in Mean Scores among Transformational Leadership and Teacher Commitment Components in Relation to Demography. To explain about the differences, there are three sections as follows:

First, Differences in mean scores among transformational leadership qualities in relation to demography. There was a significant difference in mean scores among
transformational leadership qualities in relation to teachers’ age-group \[F(4,1009) = 3.756, p = 0.005\], and years of teaching experience \[F(7,1006) = 2.456, p = 0.017\]. Therefore, the null hypotheses were rejected at the 0.05 level. However, there was a non-significant difference in mean scores between transformational leadership components and teachers’ status \[F(2,1011) = 2.435, p = 0.088\], and service category \[F(5,1008) = 2.117, p = 0.061\]. Therefore, the null hypotheses were confirmed at the 0.05 level.

Second, differences in mean scores among teacher commitment components in relation to demography. There was a partial significant difference in mean scores between teacher commitment components and teachers’ age-group \[F(4,1009) = 1.643, p = 0.161\]. Therefore, the null hypothesis was partially rejected. The general findings were “commitment towards organization” \[F(4,1009) = 3.509, p = 0.007\]; “commitment towards teaching profession” \[F(4,1009) = 0.739, p = 0.566\]; and “commitment towards student learning” \[F(4,1009) = 1.732, p = 0.141\].

Next, there was a significant difference between teacher commitment components and years of teaching experience \[F(7,1006) = 3.286, p = 0.002\]. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected at the 0.05 level. The general findings were “commitment towards organization” \[F(7,1006) = 3.224, p = 0.002\]; “commitment towards teaching profession” \[F(7,1006) = 2.678, p = 0.009\]; and “commitment towards student learning” \[F(7,1006) = 0.989, p = 0.438\].

Moreover, there was a non-significant difference between teacher commitment components in relation to teachers’ status \[F(2,1011) = 0.812, p = 0.444\]; and service category \[F(5,1008) = 1.707, p = 0.130\]. Therefore, the null hypotheses were confirmed at the 0.05 level.

Third, Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA). There were no significant differences in the mean scores for transformational leadership practices in relation to age-group \[F(4,1014) = 1.425, p = 0.120, \text{ Pillai’s Trace} = 0.026\]; service category \[F(20,1014) = 0.918, p = 0.564, \text{ Pillai’s Trace} = 0.021\]; years of teaching experience \[F(28,1014) = 0.982, p = 0.492, \text{ Pillai’s Trace} = 0.031\]; and status at school \[F(8,1014) = 0.895, p = 0.520, \text{ Pillai’s Trace} = 0.008\]. Thus, the null hypotheses were not rejected.

Moreover, there were no significant differences in the mean scores of transformational leadership practices for the interaction effects between demography in relation to transformational leadership practice.

Discussion of Findings

On the Extent of Transformational Leadership Practices. The findings (a low level of transformational leadership practices) did not support the studies which highlighted the dynamism of transformational leadership that could bring changes to the level of teacher commitment. According to B.M. Bass (1990:21), transformational leadership occurs when leaders broaden and elevate the interests of their employees, when they generate awareness an acceptance of the purposes and mission of the
group, and when they stir employees to look beyond their own self-interest for the
good of the group. Together, heightened capacity and commitment are held to lend
to additional effort and greater productivity (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000; Barbuto,
2005; and Spreitzer, Perttula & Xin, 2005).

On the Extent of Teacher Commitment. The findings (a moderate level of teacher
commitment) matched with the studies that teachers in Malaysia had low to
moderate levels of professionalisation, and the study also reported that teachers
only had moderate levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment
(Fauziah et al., 2008).

Many factors impact teachers’ levels of commitment towards organization.
Specifically, previous studies showed that teachers’ commitment towards
organization was influenced by: beliefs and acceptance of organizational goals (Mowday,
Porter & Steers, 1979; and Riehl & Sipple, 1996); level of involvement in decision
making (Kushman, 1992); orderly climates conducive to learning (Rosenholtz, 1989;
and Kushman, 1992); and student achievement (Kushman, 1992).

On the Extents of Relationship between Transformational Leadership and
Teacher Commitment. There were partially significant linear correlations between
transformational leadership and teacher commitment. First, “individualized
consideration” and “idealized influence” were factors to “commitment towards
organization”. This finding matched with a study that “individualized consideration”
is one of the most important factors in describing transformational leadership in
collectivistic culture when an emphasis on teamwork was also expected (Karen
et al., 2005). Next, “inspirational motivation”, “individualized consideration”,
and “intellectual stimulation” were factors to “commitment towards teaching
profession”.

Besides, there were no factors influencing “commitment towards student
learning”. It matched with the previous study that teachers were reluctant to show
“commitment towards student learning” as teachers were most dissatisfied with
student motivation and discipline, lack of recognition, and administrative support
(Darling-Hamond, 1999).

In brief, the findings were partially supporting with the studies that
transformational leadership had a significant positive effect on organizational
commitment (Koh, Steers & Terbong, 1995; and Geijsel, Sleegers & Berg, 2003).
Higher levels of organizational commitment are reported among employees when
leaders are perceived as being more transformational.

Moreover, transformational leadership behaviors were found to have significant
impact on teacher commitment (Amoroso, 2002). Furthermore, K. Leithwood et
al. (2004) also reported that transformational leadership had significant direct and
indirect effects on teachers’ commitment to change.

On the Extents of Relationship between Moderators and Teacher Commitment.
There were significant linear correlations between “teacher efficacy” and teacher
commitment. The findings support with studies that teachers who have higher levels
of teaching efficacy are better able to cope, have higher levels of commitment to
teaching, and experience greater satisfaction with their job (Nir & Kranot, 2006); and the school principal plays an important role in fostering teacher commitment and teacher efficacy (VanderStoep, Anderman & Midgley, 1994). Next, school administrators can also enhance teacher commitment by building teachers’ self-efficacy (Chan et al., 2008).

Besides, the findings supported the hypothesis that “teacher efficacy” and “teaching experience” were factors determining teacher commitment (towards organization, towards teaching profession, and towards student learning).

The findings support the studies “teacher efficacy” and “teaching experience” have significant positive effects on teacher commitment. Furthermore, a key individual variable that has been consistently found to be a significant predictor of teacher commitment is teacher efficacy (Coladarci, 1992; and Ebmeier, 2003). For teaching experience, it has been documented that as teachers’ service durations get longer, their organizational commitment levels increase (Celep, 2000). This was apparent based on increases in the levels of commitment to the school, teaching work, and work group (Solomon, 2007).

In brief, there were significant linear correlations between “teacher efficacy” and teacher commitment. Next, “teacher efficacy” and “teaching experience” were factors to teacher commitment (towards organization and towards teaching profession). However, “teaching efficacy” was a factor to “commitment towards student learning”.

On the Differences in Mean Scores between Transformational Leadership and Teacher Commitment Components in Relation to Demography. To discuss about the differences, there are three sections as follows:

First, Differences in mean scores among transformational leadership components in relation to demography. There were significant differences among age-group and years of teaching experience components in relation to “idealized influence”, “inspirational motivation”, and “intellectual stimulation” but not “individualized consideration” quality shown by their principal. However, there were no significant differences among status at school and service category components with regards to “idealized influence”, “inspirational motivation”, “intellectual stimulation” but there were significant difference in relation to “individualized consideration”. In brief, there were partially significant differences among transformational leadership components in relation to demography.

Second, Differences in mean scores among teacher commitment components in relation to demography. There were significant differences among age-group components in relation to “commitment towards organization” but not “commitment towards teaching profession” and “commitment towards student learning”. Next, there were significant differences among years of teaching experience in relation to their “commitment towards organization” and “towards teaching profession”, but not “commitment towards student learning”. Besides, there were no significant differences among status at school in relation to teacher commitment. Furthermore, there were no significant differences among service category in relation to their “commitment towards organization”, “towards student
learning” but there were significant differences in relation to “commitment towards teaching profession”. In brief, there were partially significant differences among demography and teacher commitment.

**Third, Differences in mean scores among demography on transformational leadership and teacher commitment.** There were no significant differences among demography in relation to transformational leadership and teacher commitment. This is the first paper that studies the influence of four dimensioned transformational leadership (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) and selected moderating variables (teacher efficacy and teaching experience) on the three broad conceptualization of teacher commitment (towards organization, teaching profession, and student learning). To some extent, the findings demonstrated that there was either direct or indirect relationship between transformational leadership, teacher commitment, and moderators (teacher efficacy and teaching experience).

**Conclusion and Suggestion**

Clearly, the findings show supporting evidence for the notion that transformational leadership behaviors are strongly correlated to employees’ sense of commitment. As previously discussed, teacher commitment has been linked with commitment towards organization, towards teaching profession, and towards student learning; it is logical to assume that the practice of transformational leadership behaviors by school leaders enhances teacher commitment in secondary schools in Miri, Sarawak, Malaysia. Since no study has been conducted examining the relationship of transformational leadership and teacher commitment, exclusively among the trained teachers in Miri, this study would be viable and relevant to improve the school academic performance in Sarawak, Malaysia.

This study has highlighted the importance of transformational leadership and moderators (teacher efficacy and teaching experience) in improving the level of teacher commitment; and future endeavors should compare these findings with similar predictors, criterion, and moderators in other areas. Besides, it suggests that the school principals should seriously consider transformational leadership qualities in improving teacher commitment level in the school.

Besides, future research could consider multiple sources of performance ratings such as employing self and peer-evaluations, in addition to supervisory ratings (Barksdale & Werner, 2001). It did not examine the level of teachers’ commitment by the school principals as a confirmation on teachers’ self-assessment of their commitment in schools. Thus, another potential area for research is empirically testing and confirming teachers’ commitment level in schools by the school principals. Moreover, the sample size should also be increased with samples drawn from diverse locations or areas so as to promise generalizability of findings.

Future research should examine the impact of transformational leadership qualities and moderators in order to supplement and complement the findings of the
current research. Notably, from the results, teacher efficacy and teaching experience can be taken as independent variables in determining teacher commitment in schools. Nonetheless, the line of research can still be expanded by exploring other determinants which could be taken as predictors and moderators of teacher commitment.

Furthermore, teachers are influenced not just by their principals but also more generally by their peers (fellow colleagues) with whom they interact on a daily basis in the organization contact (Johanson, 2000; and Lamertz, 2002). Besides, factors like situation and school climate would probably have an impact on teachers’ level of commitment.

Next, it was noted that leaders use interpersonal or inspirational influence tactics when encouraging colleagues to do tasks that they highly resist or when seeking performance beyond expectation (Bass, 1985; and Barbuto, 2005). Thus, future research could investigate the impact of fellow colleagues, characteristics of the situations, the school climate, and the characteristics of the followers and leaders on improving teachers’ commitment level in schools (Yukl, 2006). In addition, data were confined to Miri, Sarawak; and thus the results were limited to generalization to the population as a whole. Therefore, it is recommended to conduct a state or national sample that would likely yield results that is more reflective and generalizable to the state or national population.

Moreover, it was designed to exclusively measure trained teachers’ perception of their principal’s transformational leadership qualities, and their own level of commitment. Expanding this study to include principals may result in a comparative research study that would compare the results of principals and teachers’ responses. It would provide insights about principals’ perceptions of their leadership behaviors compared to the perceptions of their teachers. It will thus be beneficial in the development of collaborative training opportunities.

Besides, it was designed through quantitative methods which did not allow further exploration of teachers’ responses on survey items. It is, therefore, recommended to design a comprehensive qualitative study that includes an interview which allows respondents to write down responses in accordance to the questions. This will provide essential information on the other factors that determine teacher commitment.

Moreover, a study is needed to explore the collaboration efforts used between university administrator training programs and government schools to increase the awareness of the importance of transformational leadership qualities and the sense of teacher efficacy in improving teacher commitment level among newly trained school administrators. These findings add to the field of studies that transformational leadership continues to be a key element in gaining teacher commitment. It also offers suggestions for policy-amendable strategies which would then increase awareness of the significant positive impact that transformational leadership qualities and sense of teacher efficacy have in gaining teacher commitment.
References


School leadership is absolutely crucial to energize and bring dynamism to our schools. It is the vital role of a school leadership to nurture professional growth and bring effective leadership to bear in schools.
The Effect of Contextual Learning in Civic Education on Students’ Civic Skills

Kokom Komalasari

ABSTRACT: The development of Civic Education cannot be isolated from globalization tendency that influences the students’ life. However, the recent fact in Indonesia is that learning is still dominated by conventional system. Thus, the implementation of learning oriented to “contextualized multiple intelligences” concept is still far away from its wish. This study aimed to describe the effect of contextual learning in Civic Education on students’ civic skills. The process of study used quantitative approach with survey method. The population of study was Junior High School students in West Java, Indonesia, taught by Civic Education teachers who had followed Competence-Based Integrated Training. The total sample was 1,004 students based on cluster, proportional, and systematic random sampling. The result of study showed that contextual learning in West Java Junior High Schools belonged to average category. The civic skills of Junior High School students in West Java were belonged to high category. There was significant effect of contextual learning on students’ civic skills, which was shown with correlation by 0.48 and contribution by 23%. Therefore, teachers should apply contextual learning, the government should develop effective training system to improve the teachers’ competence in contextual learning and teacher education institution should develop innovation of learning model involving school.

KEY WORDS: Contextual learning, civic education, students’ civic skills, thinking skill and participative skill, and good and democratic citizens.

INTRODUCTION

The development of Civic Education cannot be isolated from globalization tendency that influences the students’ life. Globalization requires that Civic Education develops civic skills, including multidimensional thinking and participative skills. Civic Education learning is oriented to “contextualized multiple intelligences” concept that opens mind about the need of more creative, active-participative, and meaningful and pleasant learning management. Therefore, contextual teaching and learning should be applied in Civic Education learning.

The recent fact in Indonesia is that learning is still dominated by conventional system. Thus, the implementation of learning oriented to “contextualized multiple intelligences” concept is still far away from its wish. It is proved by serious problem that should be faced in which most of students cannot relate what they have learnt

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with the way to apply such knowledge in their current and future lives. It means that learning is not meaningful for students in solving their civic problems occurred in their lives.

Learning is not able to develop students’ civic skills. It occurs because Civic Education learning does not relate the material with students’ life reality. It is also not contextual and gives more competence to memorize instead of to think critically, analytically, and participatively. Moreover, it caused the students’ apathy attitude and the students underestimate it and think that it is not interesting.

Therefore, contextual teaching and learning approach should be developed as one of alternatives. This approach is assumed to be effective because it considers that learning process will absolutely occur if the students can find meaningful relationship between abstract thinking and practical application in real world context. In such learning experience, fact, concept, principle, and procedure lesson material are internalized through discovery, reinforcement, interrelationship, and integrity processes (Forgarty, 1991:1; and Mathews & Cleary, 1993:2).

Contextual learning is a coordination of lesson material (content) and intellectual skill that the students should have in situation and condition appropriate with the students’ cognitive psychology and the interest of learners’ environment (Blanchard, 2003:2). Furthermore, E.B. Johnson (2002:25) emphasizes that contextual teaching and learning (CTL) helps the students to find the meaning in academic material that they learn by relating academic subjects with the context in their daily lives which are personal, social, and cultural contexts.

The contextual learning approach is assumed to be able to improve the students’ competence, so that Competence-Based Curriculum of Junior High School strictly emphasizes contextual learning in its learning approach. Thus, Pelatihan Terintegrasi Berbasis Kompetensi (PTBK) or Competence-Based Integrated Training is containing material about contextual learning for Junior High School teachers has been held. This training is organized by Direktorat Pendidikan Lanjutan Pertama, Direktorat Jenderal Pendidikan Dasar dan Menengah, Departemen Pendidikan Nasional, Republik Indonesia (Directorate of Secondary Education, Directorate-General for Primary and Secondary Education, Ministry of National Education, the Republic of Indonesia) in 2004-2005. The obligation to implement this contextual learning is continued in Curriculum 2006, which is the development of Competence-Based Curriculum.

The fact urges the writer to conduct research focusing on the effect of contextual learning in Civic Education on civic skills of Junior High School students in West Java taught by Civic Education teachers who have followed PTBK (Pelatihan Terintegrasi Berbasis Kompetensi or Competence-Based Integrated Training). The problems that can be identified are: (1) How is the condition of contextual-based Civic Education learning and civic skills of Junior High School students in West Java?; and (2) Do the factors of contextual-based Civic Education learning have effect on the improvement of Junior High School students’ skill in West Java?
**METHOD**

This study used quantitative approach. The method used was survey, because it had characteristics such as stated by R. Singleton *et al.* (1998:239) as follows: (1) a number of respondents were selected by using probability sampling procedure to represent population; (2) systematic questionnaire was used to ask about the respondents and write down their answers; and (3) such answers were codified numerically and analyzed using statistic technique.

The population of this study was the ninth grade students of State Junior High School in West Java, Indonesia taught by Civic Education teachers who had followed Competence-Based Integrated Training in 2004, consisting of 93 State Junior High School disseminated in 26 regencies/cities in West Java. The sample was determined using cluster, proportional, and systematic random sampling techniques, so that it gained 1,004 sample of Junior High School students in West Java, Indonesia.

The instrument of study used to measure the variable of contextual learning was SSHA (Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes) scale questionnaire developed by W.F. Brown and W.H. Holtzman (1967) that had been adjusted with Indonesia local culture. Meanwhile, to measure the variable of civic skills, it accommodated “Civics Assessment Database” from United States NCLC (National Center for Learning and Citizenship) in 2006 adjusted with Indonesia context and Curriculum 2006 of Civic Education subject. Data analysis used correlation and regression analyses.

**RESULT**

*On the Descriptive Study.* The result of descriptive analysis and tendency testing toward the students' perception about the condition of contextual learning and students' civic skills described interesting phenomenon. The result of data processing about the tendency of contextual learning condition in Civic Education could be seen from the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Contextual Learning in Civic Education</th>
<th>Frequency (N)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>867</td>
<td>87.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>11.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>994</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Komalasari, 2008)
The above table showed that most of contextual learning condition in Civic Education in West Java Junior High School was belonged to average category with the percentage 87.22%, moreover 11.67% was included in high category and only 1.11% was included in low category. Therefore, it could be concluded that most of Junior High Schools in West Java were quite good in applying contextual approach in Civic Education learning.

Table 2:
The Condition of Junior High School Students’ Civic Skills in West Java

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Civic Competence</th>
<th>Frequency (N)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>4.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>18.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>769</td>
<td>77.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>994</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Komalasari, 2008)

The table above showed that Junior High School students in West Java had higher civic skills with percentage 77.36%, while the rest of 18.61% was included in average category, and 4.03% was included in low category. Therefore, it could be concluded that most of Junior High School students in West Java had higher civic competence.

*On the Hypothetical Testing.* Correlation between X and Y (civic skills) variables had coefficient value by 0.48. From the result of correlation coefficient testing, by considering significance value compared with reliability level \(= 0.05\), it could be concluded that value of X and Y variables was \(0.00 < 0.05\). Thus, it could be interpreted that there was significant, positive correlation between X (contextual learning) variable and Y (civic skills) variable.

Further analysis should be conducted to study the feasibility of such regression model through linearity correlation testing of independent variable (X) and each dependent variable (Y). Based on ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) calculation, it gained value for independent variable (X) toward each Y variable by \(0.00 < 0.05\), which meant rejecting Ho and accepting Ha. Therefore, there was linear correlation between X variable (contextual learning) and each Y variable (civic skills), so that it could be concluded that such regression model was right and reasonable to be used.

Contribution analysis of contextual learning in Civic Education toward Y variable (civic skills) could be studied by considering proportion significance and the number of Y variation explained by regression model. Then, to measure the contribution significance of X variable toward Y variable variation could be studied by considering R Square value by 0.23. Based on this data, it could be concluded that the ability of X independent variable to explain variation of Y dependent variable was by 23%, the rest was determined by other factors that were not explained in this regression model.
Discussion

Contextual learning is a teaching and learning concept that helps teachers to relate the material taught and students’ real world situation, and encourages the students to make relationship between knowledge they have and its application in their lives as the members of society and citizen (Berns & Erikson, 2001:4; and Blanchard, 2003:2). Thus, contextual learning enables students to relate the material content and daily life context to find out the meaning (Johnson, 2002:24).

According to A. Blanchard (2003:5), the characteristics of contextual learning include: (1) relies on spatial memory; (2) typically integrated multiple subjects; (3) value of information is based on individual need; (4) relates information with prior knowledge; and (5) authentic assessment through practical application or solving of realistic problem. Further, R.G. Berns and P.M. Erickson (2001:5-8) stated that characteristics of contextual learning are: (1) interdisciplinary learning; (2) problem-based learning; and (3) external contexts for learning.

In detail, E.B. Johnson (2002:24) identifies eight components such as: (1) making meaningful connections; (2) doing significant work; (3) self-regulated learning; (4) collaborating; (5) critical and creative thinking; (6) nurturing the individual; (7) reaching high standards; and (8) using authentic assessment. Besides, J. Sounders (1999) focuses on REACT (Relating: Learning in life experience context; Experiencing: learning in searching and discovery context; Applying: learning the knowledge is introduced in its usage context; Cooperating: learning through interpersonal communication and mutual sharing; and Transferring: learning of knowledge usage in a new context or situation). In this study, contextual learning involves six characteristics such as: (1) relating, (2) experiencing, (3) applying, (4) cooperating, (5) self-regulating, and (6) authentic assessment.

Contextual learning has significant and positive effect on civic skills. Hence, M.S. Branson (1999:9) explains that civic skills are skills developed from civic knowledge, in order that the acquired knowledge can be a meaningful thing, because it can be used in solving nation and state life problems. Civic skills include intellectual skills and participation skills. The most important intellectual skills to create knowledgeable, effective, and responsible citizen are critical thinking skill. The National Standards for Civics and Government dan the Civics Framework for 1988, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) states that critical thinking skill includes the skills of identifying, describing, analyzing, evaluating, determining, and defending opinion related to public affairs (cited by Komalasari, 2008). Meanwhile, participation skills include the skills of interacting, observing, and influencing.

This civic skills dimension is developed to give necessary knowledge and skill to participate effectively in society, experience of participation that is designed to reinforce the awareness of having ability and to have superior achievement of students, and to develop definition of the importance of citizenship active participation role. In order to be able to participate actively, it needs knowledge
of fundamental concept, history, issues, and actual event; and fact related to the substance and ability to apply such knowledge contextually, and the tendency to act appropriate with the character of citizen (Quigley, Buchanan & Bahmueller, 1991:39).

The significance of correlation between contextual learning in Civic Education and civic competence can be analyzed at least from these two matters:

First, contextual learning in Civic Education is natural for the students. It means that it asks the students to act in natural way for human, which is to act appropriate with the way brain or mind functions in thinking. Contextual learning stimulates brain to construct knowledge patterns through interrelationship with students’ life reality context. It is agreed with constructivism concept that our knowledge is our own construction (Glaserfeld, 1989).

Furthermore, E. Glaserfeld (1989) emphasizes that knowledge is not an imitation of reality. Knowledge is a description of existing reality world. Knowledge is always an effect of reality cognitive construction through one’s activity. Someone constructs knowledge scheme, category, concept, and structure needed for knowledge. Thus, knowledge is not about the world which is out of the observer’s reach, but it is human creation that is constructed from his or her experience or world. Knowledge is not a collection of fact from a fact being learnt, but it is one’s cognitive construction toward object, experience or environment. Knowledge cannot be transferred easily from one’s brain (teacher) to other’s brain (students). The student himself should interpret what has been taught by adjusting with their own experiences. Finally, C.R. Semiawan, A.S. Munandar and U. Munandar (2002) put also forward that learning is to construct the knowledge itself, after being understood and assimilated, and a deed from within oneself.

In contextual learning, thinking and participative skills are constructed within an individual through continual interaction process with object, phenomenon, experience, and students’ environment. In practice, contextual learning in Civic Education gives contribution on cognitive, constructivism, and social revolution theories, especially J. Piaget theory (1951 and 1967) about development stages; meaningful learning by Ausubel (1951 and 1967) about development stages; free discovery learning by J. Bruner (1977); and genetic law of development and zone of proximal development by L.S. Vygotsky (1978). The interrelationship of contextual learning and those theories can be analyzed as following here:

Contextual learning in Civic Education gives contribution on J. Piaget (1951 and 1967) theory about cognitive structure development that learning in Civic Education is adjusted with students’ cognitive development level. Children between 12–15 years old (Junior High School age) have reached formal operation level. In this age, mentally they have been able to think logically about various abstract concepts. In other words, formal operation thinking is more hypothetical, abstract, systematic, and scientific in solving problems. However, this age is the initial level of formal operation level, because this formal operation level is in the range of 12-18 years old, so that in developing abstract thinking skill, it should be related with previous level.
which is concrete operation. Thus, the interrelationship with object, phenomenon, and concrete experience in developing abstract thinking should be done.

It implies on learning process of Junior High School students that is in formal operation thinking period which is the need to prepare Civic Education program facilitating students’ thinking skill development. Some efforts that can be done are the use of Civic Education learning methods that encourage the students to ask actively, put forward their ideas, test a material, conduct dialog, and discussion or opinion about citizenship problems. It can be accommodated in contextual learning through the implementation of problem-based learning and project-based learning.

Contextual learning Civic Education implementing interrelationship concept among concepts in students’ life reality gives contribution on meaningful learning theory by Ausubel (cited by Glasersfeld, 1989). Learning is a meaningful assimilation for students. The material learnt is assimilated and correlated with the students’ prior knowledge in cognitive structure form. Cognitive structure is organizational structure existing in one’s memory that integrates separated knowledge elements into conceptual unit. Therefore, in contextual learning, advance organizers concept by Ausubel is developed in designing learning.

The used of advance organizers, as content framework, can improve the students’ competence in searching new information, because it is a framework in abstraction form or fundamental concept resume about what have been learn, and its correlation with the existing material in students’ cognitive structure. Advance organizers can give three advantages such as: (1) can provide a conceptual framework for learning material that will be learns by students; (2) can function as the bridge to relate what have been learn by students nowadays and what will be learn by them in the future; and (3) teacher can help students to understand a thing easier.

Contextual learning in Civic Education applying application concept gives contribution on free discovery learning by J. Bruner (1977) that learning process will run well and creatively if the teachers give opportunity to the students to find a concept, theory, and rule; or understanding through the examples they see in their daily lives. In other words, the students are guided to understand the most specific thing (deductive) into the most complex thing (inductive), to understand that honesty concept is not the earlier concept taught, but the concrete examples of the honesty in daily life.

Contextual learning in Civic Education that apply collaborating and self-regulating concepts gives contribution on social-constructivism theory related to genetic law of development theory by L.S. Vygotsky (1978) emphasizing that every one’s competence will grow and develop through two levels which are: (1) social level in which someone create his or her social environment or can be categorized as interpsychological or intermental; and (2) psychological within related individual or can be categorized as intrapsychological or intramental.

This theoretical assumption puts intermental or social environment as primary and constitutive factor of one’s knowledge construction and cognitive development. Initially, the students participate in social activity or particular citizenship activity
without understanding its meaning. Interpreting or constructing new knowledge begins to occur through internalization process. However, internalization stated by L.S. Vygotsky (1978) is transformative in nature, which is able to cause change and development that is not only a transfer.

Contextual learning also gives contribution on L.S. Vygotsky’s (1978) conception about the zone of proximal development. The development of students’ skill is differentiated into two levels: (1) actual development, and (2) potential development. “Actual development level” can be seen from the students’ skill to complete assignments or solve various problems independently. It is called intramental competence. Meanwhile, “potential development level” can be seen from the students’ skill to complete assignments and solve problems under teachers’ guide or when collaborating with their peer who are more competent. It is called as intermental competence. The range of both, which are actual development and potential development levels, is called zone of proximal development. This zone is interpreted as immature functions or competences that are still in maturing process. These functions or competences will be mature through their interaction with adult or collaboration with their peer who are more competent. It is done in contextual learning through cooperative learning.

Some key concepts that should be taken from L.S. Vygotsky (1978) about the zone of proximal development related to contextual learning are that development and learning are interdependent or interrelated. So, development of one's competence is context-dependent, and cannot be separated from social context; and the fundamental form in learning is participation in social activity. Therefore, before intramental competence is constructed, the students should be helped in their learning process. Adult or peer who is more competent should help with various ways such as giving examples, feedback, and so forth in order to improve their competence.

Therefore, in contextual learning, students learn well because what have been learnt related with what have been known and the activity or events occur in their surroundings. It means that contextual learning enables the students to relate material content and daily life context to find out the meaning (Johnson, 2002:24). In Civic Education material containing more abstract concepts, then it is in line with D. Hull and J.C. Sounders (1996) that contextual learning helps the students to find out meaningful relationship between abstract ideas and practical application in real world context.

The students internalize concept and knowledge through discovery, reinforcement, and interrelationship. Similarly, R.G. Berns and P.M. Erickson (2001) and A. Blanchard (2003) emphasize that contextual learning helps the teachers to relate the material taught and students’ real world situation, and encourages the students to make relationship between their acquired knowledge and its application in their lives as the members of family, citizen, and worker. It is agreed with learning by doing concept by John Dewey (cited by Komalasari, 2008).

Second, contextual learning in Civic Education supports the establishment of “democratic learning”. It means that Civic Education is a means of democratic
learning in improving the students to be intelligent, responsible, and participative democratic citizens. Democratic principles are included not only in content but also applied in the process of civic education learning.

Contextual learning in Civic Education, as democratic learning, adopts some models summarized by R.G. Berns and P.M. Erickson (2001) as following here: (1) **Problem-based learning**, an approach involving student in solving problems by integrating various concepts and skills from various disciplines. This approach includes collecting and integrating information and presenting discovery; (2) **Cooperative learning**, an approach organizing learning by using small learning group in which students work together to reach the learning goals; (3) **Project-based learning**, an approach focusing on main concept and principle of a discipline, involving the student in solving problems and other meaningful tasks, encouraging the students to work independently to construct learning, and, finally, creating real works; and (4) **Service learning**, an approach providing a practical application of new skill and knowledge development for the needs in society through project and activities.

The students are trained their social competence and independence as democratic citizens through cooperative learning and self-regulated learning. Through cooperative learning, the students develop competence as citizens who are able to appreciate difference, cooperate, and have commitment to reach collective goals. Through self-regulated learning, the students develop competence as independent citizens who are confident of their own competence, and have freedom to create and work with their own competence.

The students’ competence is trained as critical and creative democratic citizens through problem-based learning, inquiry-based learning, and project-based learning. Through learning various problems, the students are asked to think critically about the citizenship problems that are necessary to solve, and to think creatively to find out the alternatives of problem solving, and to make decision to select alternative of problem solving wisely.

Through inquiry-based learning, the students are trained to think systematically and scientifically in which in discussing civic issues, the students should study its truth empirically so that they can be responsible for the result. Through project-based learning, the students are trained to think comprehensively about a civic issue. The students are trained to do direct research activity in field, make the report of research finding, and present its finding.

The students’ competence is developed as participative democratic citizens through citizenship-based service learning, extracurricular, and habituation program at school. Through citizenship-based service learning, the students are trained to apply citizenship skill and knowledge to help society. The activity of service learning can be coordinated by extracurricular at school. This extracurricular activity is a means of socio-pedagogy to acquire hands-on experience. Extracurricular activity gives significant contribution to balance between theoretical mastery and behavior habituation practice and skill in democratic living and law-awareness.
Through extracurricular activity, the students are trained to join organization, conduct government in restricted scope, and simulate the process of democracy. Besides that, the students’ self awareness is developed through the application of authentic assessment. Through authentic assessment, the students are trained to have awareness and respect of their own competence, willingness to accept constructive critique, and bravery to give polite critique.

**Conclusion and Recommendation**

Based on the explanation in previous section, this study takes the conclusions as follows:

*First*, contextual learning in Civic Education has significant effect on civic skills of Junior High School students in West Java, Indonesia.

*Second*, contextual learning develops students’ thinking and participative skills through cooperative learning, self-regulated learning, service learning, problem-based learning, inquiry-based learning, project-based learning, and value learning strategies.

*Third*, contextual learning has significant effect on civic skills because it is natural for students and develops meaningful democratic learning to develop the students’ critical thinking and participative skills in their daily lives.

Meanwhile, recommendations of the study are as follows:

*First*, contextual learning in Civic Education should be developed by teachers at schools.

*Second*, Ministry of National Education in Indonesia should cooperate with Teacher Education Institution and schools to develop contextual teaching and learning training and education system for teachers, followed by practice in classroom that is monitored and evaluated, and research on the implementation and effect of contextual teaching and learning for the improvement of learning quality.

*Third*, Teacher Education Institution should develop research activity and development of learning model innovation in order to improve the quality of learning. Besides that, it should involve school and teacher in lecturing activity, through field-work practice program, field observation, classroom-action research, guest lecturer in teaching and learning process of lecturing activity, and so forth.

**References**


Through extracurricular activity, the students are trained to join organization, conduct government in restricted scope, and simulate the process of democracy.
INTERACTIVE ACTIVITIES AS AN ALTERNATIVE TO ENCOURAGE STUDENTS INVOLVEMENT IN ENGLISH READING CLASS

Endang Kusrini

ABSTRACT: The common problem found in reading was the students could not comprehend the text easily, because the students were passive. They never worked together in discussion or presentation. When the teacher asked them to read some texts and to find out the main ideas from the texts, most of the student could not or it easily. An interactive activity as a technique that is possible for them to improve their involvement in learning English, especially in reading class. This technique can help the students to comprehend the content of reading text in group; beside that, they can share, cooperate, and support each other, achieve learning objective, and make the learning enjoyable. Interactive activities will help the teacher to engage the students. Teacher can use interactive activities in classrooms from high school to university. The choice of strategies is affected by a number of considerations: the level of the objectives, the abilities of the students, teacher teaching skills and preferences, the size of the class, and many other factors. However, since school is supposed to help students sharpen their higher-order thinking skills, strategies that promote active involvement in learning should be the goal of every teacher. Interactive lecturing and structured discussions are methods that promote a degree of student involvement. KEY WORDS: Interactive activities, teaching-learning process, involvement the student, and reading comprehension in English.

INTRODUCTION

There are four skills of English that should be mastered by students. One of the English skills that is crucial to be mastered by students is reading. By reading, students can improve their knowledge, get more information of around the world, and improve their critical thinking as well. Beside that, the students increase their language, get new vocabulary, and learn grammatical rules.

Although there are many advantages of reading as mentioned above, most of students still have problem in following reading class. The common problem faced by students are they can’t comprehend the text easily and they tend to be passive in following the lesson. They never worked together in work discussion or presentation and they have low enthusiasm in doing assignment. They got difficulties in answering question.

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There are many factors that can influence the students' problem above. Some of them are low involvement in reading class and uninteresting technique of the teaching-learning process. The common problem found in reading was the students could not comprehend the text easily, because the students were passive, not involve in learning process. Students have low involvement and motivation in learning English in reading class. When the teacher asked them to read some texts and to find out the main ideas from the texts, most of the student could not find it. They also could not answer the questions after reading text.

By considering some problems happened in the teaching and learning process, the writer would like to apply an interactive activity as a technique that is possible for them to improve their involvement in learning English, especially in reading class. This technique can help the students to comprehend the content of reading text in group. Beside that, they can share, cooperate, and support each other, increase learner participation, acheive learning objective, and make the learning as enjoyable as well. What we are going to discuss in this paper is “how interactive activities are able to encourage the student's involvement in reading class?”

The Important of Teaching Reading and the Purpose of Reading

Reading is a dynamic case, most particularly with the readers’ knowledge of the experiential content of the text (Nunan, 1991:70). From this explanation, reading is a process of mind to get information and knowledge with comprehend all of the reading text. According to Donald Leu (1987), reading is a developmental, interactive, and global process involving learned skills. The process, specifically incorporates an individual’s linguistic knowledge, can be both positively and negatively influenced by non linguistic internal and external variables of factors. It means that reading is regarded as complex activity that involves various activities, such as knowing each symbol and analyzing the words into a meaning. Reading comprehension needs an active thinking process in mind to comprehend and understand what has been read (Falasifah, 2008:9).

Reading is a very important in a study and society, because there are many books, references, and instructions etc. which are written in English. The students who have lack of reading skill will have difficulty in comprehending all those references. The student who only confines from his or her teacher at class without having an effort to read many references will not pass in time and succeed. According to Ramelan et al., reading:

[...] is good activities for the learners; reading is also something crucial and indespensable since the success of his study depends for the greater part on his ability to read. If his reading skill is poor, he is very likely to fail in his study or at least he will have difficulty in making progress. On the other hand, if he has good reading ability, he will have a better chance to succeed in his study at school (Ramelan et al., 1990:i).
Ramelan et al. (1990: ii) also said even after leaving school, reading will be of much use for students by reading a lot of literary works on various kinds of subject their mind will be more developed in maturity. Moreover, they will have to remember that there is no journey’s end for education oneself.

From the statement above, we can conclude that reading is very important for students either at school or after they graduated from their study. As the students who get English lesson, reading is very important to English as a target language to build vocabulary. It is realized that reading skill or reading activity will open knowledge widely give more vocabularies and more information. Further, the purpose of reading is looking for and getting information from books or texts. In reading, the students have to understand the idea the context and meaning of the texts on the passages.

According to Anderson, there are some purposes of reading, those are: (1) Reading for details or facts: the students read the text to get or know the inversion that have been done by the writer or solve the problems of the writer; (2) Reading for the main idea: the students read the text book to know “ why is the topic is good or interesting, then the problems on the passage, and make summaries of the passage”; (3) Reading for the sequence or organization: the students read the text to know “what is happening in each part of the passage in every episode and solving the problems of the text”; (4) Reading to classify: the students read the text to classify some information or action of the writer in the text or paragraph; (5) Reading for inference: the students read the text in order to find out the conclusion from the actions or idea in the text; and (6) Reading to compare or contrast: whether having similarity with the readers or even contrast (cited by Nurgiyantoro, 2001).

The one important thing that needs to be considered is the component of reading, we know the component will support the success in comprehending reading material and contributing in important way to read. According to Donald Leu (1987:30-38), there are six components of reading: (1) Decoding knowledge: refer to the knowledge readers’ use the determining the oral equivalent of the written word; (2) Vocabulary knowledge: the knowledge about word meaning used to determine the appropriate meaning for a word in a particular context; (3) Discourse knowledge: it means knowledge of language organization at units beyond the single sentence level, includes the knowledge of structural organization of different types of writing; (4) Readiness aspect: it is traditionally refers to the student’s ability to read and understand a particular selection; (5) Effectiveness aspect: in reading, the effectiveness aspect includes both interest and attitude, this is will increase motivation and facilitate reading; and (6) Syntactic knowledge: it means knowledge of word order rules that determine grammatical function, and sometimes the meaning and pronunciation of word.
DEFINITION OF STUDENTS’ INVOLVEMENT
AND INTERACTIVE ACTIVITIES IN TEACHING READING

“Involvement” is the act teacher of sharing in the activities of a group; the teacher tried to increase his students’ engagement in class activities (http://www.the.free.dictionary.com/involvement, 10/11/2011). “Involvement” is also state of being involved, take part in an activity or a situation (Hornby, 1994:663). Students’ involvement refers to the students who are actively involved in every activity which is conducted in class. This means that the focus is on the students or learner centeredness.

Since learning English as a second language is an interactive process between teacher and learner, teachers need to acknowledge the complexity and variety of social and cultural needs of their students. Learner centeredness will be seen as a broadly based endeavor designed to gear language teaching in terms of both the content and the form of instruction, around the needs and characteristics of learners.

To make students more understand about the lesson, they need to be actively involved in the activities. It is because the students’ involvement has a big contribution to the effectiveness of teaching and learning process. The students are more likely to learn if they take an active part in practice geared to reach an instructional objective.

Teacher tasks is to select activities through which students can master course objective: lessons, discussions, written exercises, reading assignments, test, group work, individualized instruction, field trips, observations, experiments, and other kinds of experiences maybe necessary for students to learn the things the teacher wants them to learn. The choice of strategies is affected by a number of considerations: the level of the objectives, the abilities of the students, teacher teaching skills and preferences, the size of the class, and many other factors.

However, since school is supposed to help students sharpen their higher-order thinking skills, strategies that promote active involvement in learning should be the goal of every teacher. Interactive lecturing and structured discussions are methods that promote a degree of student involvement. Students’ involvement refers to the students who are actively involved in every activity which is conducted in class. This means that the focus is on the students or learner-centered.

On the Encourage Students to Involve in the Class. How to encourage students’ involvement in the class, here they are: (1) Ask friendly questions, “who can help me out on this?” , listen carefully, and find something good to say about even “incorrect” or off – base replies; (2) One instructor suggests having students “take a minute” to list ideas, steps, nothing that one student have something written down, and it seems easier to engage students; (3) Have an open question or polls section at some point during each class; (4) Building expectation into the syllabus will help let the students know how important involvement is; (5) Give extra credit in a variety of ways, so that all personality types are accommodated; (6) At a recent discussion, teachers agreed that the key to promoting interaction is patience; and (7) Several teachers suggest paying particular attention to your verbal and nonverbal feedback.
On the Causal Factor of Students’ Involvement Low. According to Sudikin, at least there are three factors that cause students’ involvement low in teaching and learning process, they are: (1) Students haven't been able to formulate his/her ideas independently; (2) Students haven’t dared to express an opinion or idea for other; and (3) Students are not accustomed to compete in expressing their opinion or idea with their friends (cited in http://www.dit.ie/DIT/lifelong/adult/adlearn_chars.pdf, 10/11/2011).

The mistakes above are not burdened for the students, but the teacher responsible that problem above. Sometime, teacher aware or unaware had implemented and authoritative and avoids questions from students as a recorder, an accept on, and a memorizing.

Based on the explanation above, the teacher need positive respond concretely and objectively to improve students’ involvement in teaching-learning process through interactive activities. Strategies for increasing and maintaining active learners’ involvement are important to establishing and effective classroom. Students who are actively involved in learning activities benefit more from learning time. Learner involvement includes time spent listening to the teacher, time spent attending to activities, and most importantly time actively participating in learning by asking and answering questions.

Active learning through paired and group activities during a class session can promote involvement in learning. Asking students to reflect on their learning experiences through students’ feedback or learning journals also promotes greater involvement. Students who are learning English maybe reluctant to participate in classroom discussions and activities. A positive, supportive environment has tremendous impact on student comfortable, motivation, and success. These strategies can make classroom a more involved in class instead of just receiving the material passively, the students will be more interesting in following the lesson.

Meanwhile, interactive activities are an important aspect of distributed learning situation. Interactive activities for the classroom help to engage the students. Teacher use interactive activities in classrooms from preschool to university. Successful interactive should challenge the ways students think and encourage them to do a more in-depth study of the topic. Some interactive activities, such as simulation work best at a group level. Others can be done on a computer and allow students to work at their own level. Interactive activities for individual students are a great tool for students who are either ahead or behind the class (cited in “How to Create Interactive Activities for the Classroom?” at http://www.ehow.com/how6678977create-interactive-activities.classroom.html, 10/11/2011).

Furthermore, Michael Moore and Greg Kearsley (1996) suggest that there are three basic types of learner interaction. Each of these three types in an integral part of a comprehensive online course. In different situations, the balance between the three main components may be represented as an organism as a whole, especially with regard to its vital processes or functions through three points of a triangle of varying configuration.

First, Learner to Content. One basic model represents the common situation where the subject is at the top, indicating that it determines the structure of the
Teacher and Learner relationship, but the teacher comes next — the servant of the subject, but the master/mistress of the learner. Very broadly speaking, this may be consistent with cognitive approaches to learning. Let’s see the diagram below:

Training is the planned process of engaging the learner with the content. Effective organization and presentation of the content will guide the learner as they process the information into their own schemas. Guidelines for supporting learner to content interaction include: (1) Provide an overview or visual map of the course content; (2) Organize materials to support the sequence of the course objectives; (3) Include the student guide that explains how to work through the content; (4) Link to additional or supplementary resources; and (5) Incorporate self-grading quizzes, thought provoking questions, or active practice exercise.

Second, Learner to Instructor. In another variant, on the other hand, the teacher is clearly in the dominant position, managing the relationship between the subject and the learner. Socially, either the interests of the learner or the demands of the subject or both may be subordinated to the requirements of the teacher. Let’s see the diagram below:
The foundation for learner to instructor interactions is the inclusion of well-developed questions. These questions should guide learners from basic knowledge and recall of material to the application and synthesis of material. Thus, the questions should: (1) be planned and sequenced to support the learning objectives; (2) keep the learners alert and attentive stimulate thinking; (3) provide testing cues; (4) guide learner thoughts; and (5) help determine learners’ levels of understanding.

Third, Learner to Learner. It can be contrasted with a further pattern, which is more analogous to supervision of a dissertation or thesis: the relationship between Learner and Subject is close, and the two are in a dominant position.

The role of the teacher is simply to provide a service to the learner’s work with the subject. As you might expect, this is consistent with humanist approaches. Collaborative learning is powerful and enriching learning experience. Let’s see the diagram below:

This type of interaction encourages the development of an online learning community that supports the sharing of goals, interest, and knowledge among learners. Web-based activities that support learner to learner interactions include: (1) Threaded discussions; (2) Group projects and presentations; (3) Serving as a discussion moderator; (4) Synchronous discussions or virtual chats; and (5) “Whiteboard” design project.

**Types and Steps of Interactive Activities**

These activities are appropriate to all levels with the exception of Role Play and Take a Stand which work best in Beginning-High or Intermediate-Low classes. Each activity is self-contained, so we may randomly choose any activity in the unit in *Classis Classroom Activities Book*, or we can work sequentially within each unit. Within each unit, the activities ordered from easy to more challenging in terms of student task and participation.

The Advantages of Using Interactive Activities teaching learning process are: (1) can create a presentation that will excite and engage students; (2) can increase learner participation; (3) achieve learning objectives; (4) make the learning as enjoyable as possible; and (5) can introduce teamwork skill.

Furthermore, there are 9 steps to using interactive activities successfully by Christie Sterns in “Training Make Cents Inc.: 425 Seriously Fun Ways to Enhance Learning” (2008). Those are:

*First, Having a clear objective for using the activity.* Interactivity increases the time needed to teach something, so it’s not about being interactive just because books tell to you. Interactivity should have a purpose, which is to teach or reinforce an important learning point. With the exception of energizers, you should tie all

### Activity Grouping Description

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Grouping</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Round -Table Label</td>
<td>Small Groups</td>
<td>Students work cooperatively to label picture vocabulary items and check their accuracy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Small Group</td>
<td>Students ask and answer questions about personal preferences and work individually to record the result on a graph.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixer</td>
<td>Whole Class</td>
<td>Students get acquainted as they ask and answer yes/no questions with six classmates and write the responses on an activity sheet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information Exchange</td>
<td>Pairs</td>
<td>An information gap activity where students ask and answer questions to the answers on complementary activity sheets and then work together to check their accuracy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Double Crossword</td>
<td>Pairs</td>
<td>Students ask for and give clues to solve a crossword puzzle and then work together to check their work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picture Differences</td>
<td>Pairs</td>
<td>Students study two almost identical scenes and work together to identify and list the differences on a chart.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drawing Dictation</td>
<td>Pairs</td>
<td>Students take turns describing and drawing pictures according to their partners’ directions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role Play</td>
<td>Small Groups</td>
<td>Students read and assign roles and topic-related conversations, create original dialog, and act out a situation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take a Stand</td>
<td>Pairs</td>
<td>Students read and analyze topic statements, choose a “pro” or “con” position, create original statements and discuss their opinions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Board Game</td>
<td>Small Groups</td>
<td>Students play a game to review previously learned vocabulary taken from an entire unit.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

interactivity to your content and place it strategically in your agenda to drive home a learning message.

Second, Preparing for the activity. Read through the activity to make sure you understand the flow and purpose, and plan how you will introduce it.

Third, Setting the mood. Obtain the materials you need and arrange furniture and equipment to achieve your best results.

Fourth, Beginning with enthusiasm and warmth. Let participants know that they are in for some great learning while having fun.

Fifth, Explaining the purpose of the activity. Let them know why you are doing it and what kind of participation you expect, such as working alone or in teams.

Sixth, Giving clear direction. Clearly explain the steps in the activity to avoid frustration. If many steps are involved, especially if participants will be moving around the room, explain one step at a time and have the participants complete that action. If you provide all the instructions up front, by the time you finish, participants won’t remember the first step and you will waste time repeating yourself.

Seventh, Running the activities. As the activity progresses, encourage and support the participant and answer the questions. Also watch body language and facial expressions to see their reactions to the activity. Are they laughing and having fun, or confused and frustrated? Intervene when necessary.

Eighth, Watching the clock. If an activity is timed, warm the participants every so often: “you have two minutes left”. Then be sure to give them the full two minutes. Don’t cut them off at one minute or let them have another five minutes.

Ninth, Debriefing the activity. Guide the participants to link what they learned to their behavior on the job. Answer questions and lead a discussion when appropriate.

Conclusion

Interactive activities are an important aspect of distributed learning situation. Interactive activities for the classroom help to engage the students. Teacher use interactive activities in classrooms from pre-school to university.

There are three basic types of learner interaction. Each of these three types is an integral part of a comprehensive online course: (1) Learner to Content; (2) Learner to Instructor; and (3) Learner to Learner.

Types of interactive activity such as Round-Table Label, Survey, Mixer, Information Exchange, Double Crossword, Role play, Take a Stand, and Board Game are appropriate to all levels with the exception of Role Play and Take a Stand which work best in Beginning-High or Intermediate-Low classes.

The Advantages of Using Interactive Activities, we can: (1) create a presentation that will excite and engage students; (2) increase learner participation; (3) achieve learning objectives; (4) make the learning as enjoyable as possible; and (5) can introduce teamwork skill.
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Website: http://www.the.free.dictionary.com/involvement [accessed in Purwokerto, Indonesia: 10 November 2011].
THE SOCIAL INTERACTIONAL PATTERN AMONG EDUCATIONAL BUREAUCRACY, EDUCATOR, AND SCHOOL COMMITTEE IN THE EDUCATIONAL CONDUCT IN MADIUN MUNICIPALITY, EAST JAVA, INDONESIA

PARJI

ABSTRACT: A change in educational policy has resulted in changing of the old paradigm (centralization) to the new one (autonomy and democratization) in the educational conduct. Educational authority delegation towards the local authority is expected to encourage the local autonomy, which enable the public inclusion within the school programs development of intra-curricular, extra-curricular, and co-curricular constituents. This study tries to elaborate the educational conduct and the role of School Committee in Madiun Municipality, East Java, Indonesia that have not recently implemented the principles of school-based management. It makes the researcher feel interested in to observe the interaction pattern amongst the educational stakeholders. The objectives of this research are to identify the interaction pattern amongst the educational authority, school educational practitioners, and the School Committee board in conducting education and school matters. This research is served under qualitative approach by using the method of acquiring data of: (1) in-depth interview, (2) active-participatory observation, and (3) documentation. The data analysis is carried out by reflective methodology. The reflective method is applied by making use of grounded theory principles, offering the three steps coding procedure, i.e. open coding, axial coding, and selective coding. The research findings show that the interaction pattern amongst educational authority, educational practitioners, and the School Committee are varieties of communication flow which cannot reach the productive outcome.

KEY WORDS: Social interaction pattern, educational bureaucracy, educators, school committee, and principles of school-based management.

INTRODUCTION

The development of educational policy in Indonesia has changed since the application of Regulation No.22 year 1999 about the Local Autonomy, which has now renewed by the Regulation No.32 year 2004 about the Local Government. A change in educational policy has resulted in changing of the old paradigm (centralization) to the new one (autonomy and democratization) in the educational conduct. The educational authority delegation towards the local authority is expected to encourage the local autonomy. This makes the researcher feel interested in to observe the interaction pattern amongst the educational stakeholders. The objectives of this research are to identify the interaction pattern amongst the educational authority, school educational practitioners, and the School Committee board in conducting education and school matters. This research is served under qualitative approach by using the method of acquiring data of: (1) in-depth interview, (2) active-participatory observation, and (3) documentation. The data analysis is carried out by reflective methodology. The reflective method is applied by making use of grounded theory principles, offering the three steps coding procedure, i.e. open coding, axial coding, and selective coding. The research findings show that the interaction pattern amongst educational authority, educational practitioners, and the School Committee are varieties of communication flow which cannot reach the productive outcome.

KEY WORDS: Social interaction pattern, educational bureaucracy, educators, school committee, and principles of school-based management.

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conduct. Educational authority delegation towards the local authority is expected to encourage the local autonomy, which enable the public inclusion within the school programs development of intra-curricular, extra-curricular, and co-curricular constituents.

The need for the educational reform from centralization towards decentralization even proves important in line with the 21st century's global development. William J. Mathis rationally proposes that: (1) the change in the people mindset resulted from the democratization continually penetrates all life aspects, where schools are expected to fairly serve the people need, as they are the stakeholders; (2) the rapid changes of the worldwide business require schools to prepare students to face them; (3) the development of service and industrial sector will inevitably replace the human resource; (4) the decrease of life standard will be resulted from the running out of the natural resources; (5) the development of the global economic development goes on; (6) the religious doctrines will be more open; and (8) the role of mass media will be stringer (cited by Rosyada, 2004:10).

**On the Social Interaction in the Context of School Committee**

Under sociological perspectives, the change of educational paradigms from centralization towards decentralization belongs to social change. Himer and Moro proposed three dimensions of social change, i.e. structural, cultural, and interactional dimensions. Structural dimension refers to the societal structural change, ending up in role change, new role emergence, social class, and social institution change. Social change, in cultural dimension, refers to cultural shift, like discovery in knowledge, technology, and cultural interaction which results in diffusion and cultural borrowing. Social change, in interactional dimension, also refers to the change of social relationship which covers frequency, social distance, channel, rules or patterns, and construct of relationship (cited by Zainuddin, 2008).

The common form of social process is social interaction which becomes the main factor that brings in activities. Some other forms of social process are specific forms of social interaction. Social interaction has embodied in the form of dynamic social relationships covering those of individuals against the groups.

Theoretically, there have been at least two conditions for social interaction, namely: (1) social contact; and (2) communication (Syarbaini & Rusdyanto, 2009). Social contact is an effort for a physical and mental touch, primarily or secondarily and positively or negatively. The positive social contact will come to cooperation, while the negative one will end in misconducts or even relation cut-off.

Under the framework of the above conception, the inclusion of society in the school management is not only important but also be badly needed. This atmosphere springs the preconception of **democratic** School-Based Management or
Societal-Based School Management. In line with the educational decentralization, educational democracy, and inclusion of society in the policy making process encourage the inaction of the Decision of Minister of Education No.044/U/2002 dated on April 2, 2002 about Educational Assembly and School Committee.

The decision has become the follow-up by description of the legality of the School Committee under the Regulation No.20 year 2003 about National Educational System, especially verse 57(3) that the School Committee, as an independent body, established and has role in improving the service quality by giving consideration of reference and force support, facilities, and the requirement of educational supervision in educational unit level.

Empirically, the existence and role of the School Committee are ambiguously interpreted by the schools (headmasters, teachers, and students) and the stakeholders like parents, the board of school committee, etc. Accordingly, S. Faisal (2007:2) proposed that most of efforts for the societal participation in the management of SMP (Sekolah Menengah Pertama or Junior High School) are not effective yet as expected under the educational autonomy and democracy, where societal participation becomes the core for the SBM (Sekolah Berbasis Masyarakat or School-Based Community). The role of the School Committee in the school management has not performed in the areas of educational access, quality, and relevance. As a model of societal participation in the school management, School Committee and School Assembly have not yet performed their advisory, supervisory, mediatory, and support roles.

In Madiun Municipality, East Java, Indonesia, the existence and role of School Committee and School Assembly are still far beyond the school-based management principles. Schools, as educational institution, have not performed their autonomy in terms of human resource, finance, students' recruitment, and program development management. In term of students' recruitment, for example, the schools do not have their authority in deciding the criteria and system of recruitment.

Interaction and communication among the educational stakeholders are still very poor, which are shown through the educational policies which are not synchronically produced to serve the educational representatives, bureaucracy, and even society. For example, in the students’ recruitment year 2009/2010, the local authority adds 3% of entry grade for teachers'-children candidates. Miscommunication and lack of coordination entail in problems among the stakeholders (Baharuddin, 2005).

The role and function of the Schools Committee are still focused on the school fund recruitment. Evidently, the School Committee perform just the way the BP3 (Badan Pembiayaan dan Pembangunan Pendidikan or Body of Education Development Fund) did; while the School Committee is expected to encourage the educational quality under four roles and functions, i.e. advisory, support, mediatory, and supervisory ones (Pantjastuti et al., 2008).

Under the implementation of School-Based Management, different interpretations against the role and function of School Committee are evidently
found among the schools, School Committee, educational bureaucracy, and representatives. Obvious evidence shows when Student Enrolment Session is conducted every year. The local educational authority wants it is conducted in centralistic manner throughout the Municipality, while the schools hope to hold it respectively at the respective school for the sake of school autonomy.

So, this study tries to elaborate the pattern of social interaction among stakeholders in education, especially in conducting the education, in SMP (Sekolah Menengah Pertama or Junior High School) as well as SMA (Sekolah Menengah Atas or Senior High School) in Madiun, East Java, Indonesia.

**METHOD**

This research has used the qualitative approach. The sample is taken under purposive technique in terms of justifying the subjects and social situation in question that can supposedly give the accurate information about elements in observation. The subject is determined under *snowball sampling* technique. Three groups of sample are determined as follows: (1) groups of bureaucrat, covering Head of Educational Office in Municipality level; (2) groups of educational representatives, covering Headmaster, Vice Headmaster, Teacher Staff, and Students Board; (3) society representatives, covering Educational Assembly Board, School Committee, Parents, and Societal Characters.

The data are accumulated under participatory observation technique, in-depth interview, and relevant document overview. The analysis technique is done under A. Strauss and J. Corbin (1990) model with three steps: open coding, axial coding, and selective coding. Operationally, the strategy of data accumulation and analysis goes through the expected procedure coping with the following procedures: (1) Observation is held to obtain the social interactional pattern; (2) In-depth interview is conducted to get information about the societal response against the change of educational conduct in the first order understanding; and (3) On document overview is used to complete the information taken by interview and observation, for the credibility of the data.

The next step is to conduct broad constant comparative analysis to: (1) get conceptual and theoretical saturation for the data advancement; (2) perform the theoretical sampling under snow-ball model; and (3) apply negative case analysis to oppose the concepts drawn from the research field.

The theoretical development process refers to grounded theoretical invention being combined with the principles of double hermeneutics according to Giddens (cited by Baharuddin, 2005; and Faisal, 2007) under the following process: (1) identifying the role and function of School Committee; (2) indentifying the democratization of schools; (3) performing case study to find out the subjects’ ideas on the School Committees under their respective typical nature; (4) searching for the interrelationship among cases, then to summarize the first-level interpretation to the concepts/category based on the society’s understanding; and (5) formulating second
order understanding at the theoretical level, which becomes a “thesis” of theoretical invention on the meaning of change and rationalities of various sub-groups.

**Research Result**

The interaction pattern among educational bureaucracy, educational representatives, and School Committee as society representatives are critically developed within the “three-centered education” i.e. family, school, and society. Schools are not regarded as independent social institutions anymore, which should be viewed as integrated with society, locally, regionally, and even nationally. Education is not anymore regarded as inclusive which is conducted only by schools, rather than all of the three (schools, families and social environments) where students will develop themselves.

The interactional pattern among educational representatives, bureaucracy, and School Committee in Madiun Municipality, East Java, Indonesia is identified through the areas of planning, application, and evaluation of the educational management all around Madiun Municipality. The interaction can be seen through the organizational structure of educational bureaucracy of Madiun Municipality. Educational programs and policies have become the important parts of the existing interaction pattern.

In the planning stage, the Office of Education in Municipality level has not arranged the comprehensive educational planning; even priorities are still very weakly identified. It can be seen through the emergence of serious educational problems. The problems include the student enrolment system, the specific allocation fund management, educational quality development, and educational efficiency and relevance improvement.

Socialization process of the educational programs is also not well-performed, resulted from the lack of coordination between Office of Education, Schools, and School Committee in Municipality level. Through coordination, which includes all stakeholders such as educational bureaucrats, representatives, and School committee, has never be held. One of the most disgusting evidence is that the Educational Assembly did not work for the last 3 years, following the political content against the strategic policies, including establishment and empowerment of Educational Assembly (interview with the Head of Educational Assembly, 20/5/2009).

The interaction pattern between the educational bureaucracy and the educational representatives proves to be ill, even schools very often get ambiguous interpretations of the Office of Education’s policies. The communication paths made by the educational bureaucrats cannot effectively encourage the development of educational quality in Madiun Municipality. The following example is an evidence of ill-conduct of education in Madiun in the form of letter from MKKS (*Musyawarah Kerja Kepala Sekolah* or Headmaster Working-Dialogue Forum) as the Headmaster of SMAN (*Sekolah Menengah Atas Negeri* or State Senior High...
School) 3 in Madiun, No.61/UUI/MKKS/2009 dated on August 18, 2009 to the Major through the Head of the Office of PKPO (Pendidikan, Kebudayaan, Pemuda dan Olahraga or Education, Culture, Youth and Sport) in Madiun Municipality. The letter stated as follows:

Herewith, we reported that conducting additional tasks as Headmaster, in this case as the Head of UPTD (Unit Pelaksana Teknis Daerah or Local Technical Caretaker Unit), we are required to decide fast, accurate, and correct way. Generally, we used reference of law and rules issued by the central government to decrease the probability of mistake in action (interview with Vice Headmaster of SMA, 18/8/2009).

The statement from the educational representative at school also shows that there are many substantial problems which can be held by the educational bureaucrats. It has appeared in the reality as follows:

As a Headmaster, I have not had a sufficient autonomy in conducting the school yet. In the matter of policy to improve the school quality, the support from PKPO (Pendidikan, Kebudayaan, Pemuda dan Olahraga or Education, Culture, Youth and Sport) Agency at the Municipality level has not been optimal. Besides that, there are some obstacles to improve the school quality, namely law foundation that has not fully accommodated by Local Government yet (interview with Headmaster of SMA, 6/5/2009).

The relevant information is also given by the Vice Headmaster as follows:

To conduct School-Based Management integrally, we need a law umbrella, BHP (Badan Hukum Pendidikan or Education Law Body) for example, so that if there is not existing yet, school still has to depend on the decision of Educational Agency in Municipality level. There is an obstacle in improving the educational quality, namely bureaucracy which is rarely confusing (interview with Vice Headmaster, 19/5/2009).

Through the side of the educational bureaucracy, the local government – Local Government Secretary or the Office of Education in Municipality level, make use the bureaucratic pattern of interaction in their efforts of educational quality development. Even in the student recruitment session 2009/2010, serious problems arouse due to an ambiguous policy of the Major which provided 3% of score for teachers’ children.

Field observation shows that communication and interaction pattern of the bureaucrats seems obviously arrogant, concealing themselves away from criticisms under the regulation, where power commands the process. In most meetings, the Secretary of the Local Government always proposes as follows:

We all should always obey the prevailed rules, especially related to budget, it should be transparent and can be accounted for. If we cannot adjust it, the Headmaster will be substituted (interview with SEKDA, 7/5/2009).

Meanwhile, the communication and interaction pattern between Schools and School Committee commonly runs well, formally as well as informally. In this
case, Vice Headmaster of SMA (Sekolah Menengah Atas Negeri or State Senior High School) in Madiun said as follows:

Recently, the relationship between School and the School Committee has been going smoothly, although its result has not been maximal yet. The School Committee should help to facilitate and give supervision and give fresh ideas to improve the school quality (interview with Vice Headmaster of SMA, 10/6/2009).

Furthermore, the Headmaster of SMAN (Sekolah Menengah Atas Negeri or State Senior High School) 3 in Madiun also proposes the same statement as follows:

In SMAN (Sekolah Menengah Atas Negeri or State Senior High School) 3 Madiun, the School Committee plays truly well just only as rubber-stamp men. We often hold coordination meeting if there is a problem needs shared-solving. So, till now, it has mutual-trust and mutual-respect process (interview with Vice Headmaster of SMAN 3, 3/6/2009).

The interaction between the educational bureaucracy and the School Committee or between the educational bureaucracy and the Educational Assembly has never met the demand. The intensive communication between the educational bureaucracy and the society has neither well-planned nor conducted. The only interaction attended by all constituents of the stakeholders is the general meeting. Unfortunately this forum is not usually made use of as medium of effective discussion on existing educational problems because the Head of the Office of Education in Municipality level, or person in charge, has usually passed down a very formal speech, then he drifted away from the forum before it discussed a thing (interview with Head of School Committee, 20/5/2009).

While the meeting has originally planned to hold the productive and effective interaction to discuss all existing educational problems, like programs content, policies, and strategies in coping with an educational development. There has not been any such meeting among educational bureaucracy, educational representatives, and the School Committee in spite of the essence to arrange educational programs in synergy.

**Discussion**

The role of educational bureaucracy, educational representatives, and School Committee is undoubtedly important in developing the educational quality. Developing the school education and educational institution in common needs coordination, synchronization, and deep understanding against the direction and goal of education.

Evidently, the interaction pattern among educational representatives, bureaucracy, and School Committee in Madiun Municipality level is not well-managed, where each constituent gets on its own way. Educational bureaucracy still regards schools as a part of the bureaucracy (local technical support unit). It entails the restriction against the schools' autonomy in the area of funding, educational cooperation, and human resource recruitment to fit the need of qualification.
The relationship between the School Committee, on behalf of the society, and the school has already well-established; but the quality of the interaction needs to be developed, which is still limited in the discussion of the school budget. Outcome of the discussion about the school budget, they do not have broader opportunity to discuss the school program development.

In this context, Suyatno suggests that the quality of education at schools and local area should become the concern of both, the government and society (cited by Pantjastutti et al., 2008). The quality of education in the future depends very much on local government commitment, including parents and society. The statement fits to the preconception of Bruce Joyce that the central role of the school education is to prepare the citizen to build democratic attitude, personally, and socially; and to ensure the establishment of the democratic and productive social structure (cited by Rosyada, 2004:31).

The interaction pattern among the educational representatives, bureaucracy, and School Committee board is spawned by the perception of each constituent towards the others. As it is suggested by D. Mulyana (2007:179) that perception is termed as an internal process which enables anyone to choose, organize, and interpret stimuli from the surrounding; and it affects the environment. Furthermore, K.K. Sereno, E.M. Bodaken and P.E. Nelson (in Mulyana, 2007:180) assure also that perception includes three activities, i.e. selection, organization, and interpretation. Selection covers sensation and attention; while organization attaches strictly to interpretation which can be defined as putting stimuli together to make meaningful unity.

The research also shows that the educational bureaucracy tends to conceal the decision making process in regard to the public affairs like students recruitment, the process of budget allocation, and the promotion on the strategic positions in and around the Educational Office in Municipality level. Neither the public representatives, the Educational Assembly nor even the School Committee are included within any discussion to solve the educational problems which eventually take place around the community. The unwillingness of the educational bureaucracy to include all of the societal constituents in such discussions has become counterproductive evidence against the quality development of the educational services which meet the society’s demands.

In regard to the inclusion of the societal constituents in the educational conducts, Duhou suggests the arguments as showed below:

First, schools are actually packed to serve the needs of the societal constituents like the government, educational experts, parents, students, and the society which expect for the benefits of schools education. That’s why it becomes very natural when they are all included into the development of schools through discussions and ideas to bring about decisions for the sake of the students’ development at those schools.

Second, educational reform is set in such a way to serve the democratic educational conduct by broadening the inclusion of the societal constituents within the process of decision making. Schools, then, become more accommodative against
the societal aspirations, where in return they can obtain the positive supports from
the society, including societal responsibility against the education matters because
they feel that it is needed and included in the educational development.

And finally, third, the more grounded the educational management is launched
and the broader society is included in it, the more sufficient support the schools
can obtain from the society. This will encourage the rapid development of the
school education, where more educational activities can be funded by the society.
In line with this process, the school management will become more controllable
under broader constituents, because those constituents will require the managerial

The educational bureaucracy should have realized that the societal participation
has actually become the key to the success of the educational autonomy. Societal
participation is basically termed as the inclusion of the society (other constituents)
within the planning, executing, benefiting, and supervising the school programs.
The implication of the above opinion is that by the inclusion of “other” constituents
within the school management will enable them to recognize and understand the
school problems, so as to search for alternative resolutions, to make decision, to
solve existing educational problems, and to be responsible against the educational
development.

Further, A. Ahmadi (2004:80) has also suggested that participation means that
the decision maker includes a group or society in gathering opinions, aids, skills,
goods, and services. Dhaha also said that participation is a form of inclusion of
a constituent in an activity, mentally and emotionally, to serve establishment of
decision on one thing and to account for it (cited by Ahmadi, 2004:81).

In regard to the function of manager or educational structural chairman in
terms of gathering the societal participation needs special conditions, as follows:
(1) Enabling the societal confidence that they have resources such as chance,
fund, opinion, etc. to support the school to pursue its objectives; (2) Facilitating
the exchange of information by paying attention on what is urgently needed for
the school program development; (3) Consulting against some related constituents
opaquely to utilize the resources; (4) Collaborating against the related constituents
in making needed changes; and (5) Monitoring and giving model for the healthy
communication (Ahmadi, 2004; and Rosyada, 2007).

The results of this research show that interaction among the educational
representatives, bureaucracy, and the School Committee is still far beyond the
rigidity under the collective spirit to build the democratic school management.
The Educational Office in Municipality level is to blame for the lack of the healthy
interaction among the educational stakeholders, because it has the sufficient
infrastructure, human resource, and also fund.

Actually, S. Danim (2006:185) suggests that Educational Office should ideally
shift its function from giving command to coordinating and facilitating the school
operation. The responsibilities of the Educational Office are summarized as
follows: (1) Putting the high educational threshold level, which is relevant under the
The logical consequence and change of educational performance, which is from old management style (centralistic) to new management style (de-centralistic), is the task and function of bureaucracy officials to also be changed. The mindset of old management emphasizes more on subordination, direction, organizing, controlling, and one-man show in deciding a decision should be left and changed into the new mindset of new management that emphasizes more on autonomy giving, facilities provision, motivation growth at school, aids giving, and participative decision making (Rohiat, 2008:77).

Further, S. Faisal (2007:6) also comments that the inclusion of society in the educational management requires willingness of the society to devote themselves in the educational development, because the success of societal movement depends very much on the societal mission and vision. According to the result of the research, the headmasters play the dominant roles in establishing the interaction of stakeholders. It means that headmasters own are the strategic position in assisting the success of the School-Based Management.

Besides, David suggests that Headmaster in the School-Based Management has to be able to: (1) Administrators, school boards, teaches unions, teachers, parents, and communities working together to improve teaching and learning; (2) An improved teaching and learning environment throughout the school and improve
student achievement as measured in a variety of ways; (3) Realistic budgeting and alignment of financial and instructional resources as well as time with instructional goals; and (4) Renewed sense of school ownership and accountability among staff, teachers, students, parents, and the community (cited by Danim, 2006:196).

More specifically, S. Danim (2006:211) ensures that Headmaster must be elected out of teacher staff with qualifications as follows: experienced, skillful, and competent. Other qualifications cover strong leadership, cooperative with the Vice Headmaster, and other staff. They will be possibly elected as the School Committee together with other constituents like: teachers, societal characters, NGOs (Non-Governmental Organizations) of educational proponent, alumni, students, business entities, experts, and other relevant constituents. Organizationally, the Headmaster will lead the school, including designing school strategies and objectives, planning, executing, supervising, and evaluating the school programs.

Headmaster should also be able to establish healthy communication with all educational constituents, to manage the resources, to cooperate with parents, to produce effective working policies and practices, and to develop the students’ achievement. While he/she is working operationally with the educational representatives, the Headmaster should also establish the synergic relationship with the Educational Office, Local Government, and other stakeholders.

**Conclusion and Suggestion**

The interaction pattern among the educational representatives, bureaucracy, and School Committee has not yet establish the effective communication which covers substantial dimension of it. The educational bureaucracy tends to make use of one-way interaction that functions as the most powerful constituent. Even the school budget must be approved by the Office of Education, Culture, and Sport in the regional level. They have not yet establish the warm two-way interaction either.

The existing interaction pattern among schools, School Committee, and parents has not either made productive result. Such a meeting is only conducted in the beginning of the academic year when they are involved in the approval of the school budget. The communication between the School Committee and schools is still very limited, even internally the communication among the School Committee’s board does not effective except being facilitated by the school.

In spite of the application of the School-Based Management, the communication among the educational representatives and the educational bureaucracy is still very rare, even that of educational bureaucracy and society. The Educational Office in Municipality level is still exclusive with its power to determine the human resource management. Although schools are given opportunity to propose their staff promotion, but the process of promotion, mutation, and Headmaster selection belong to the Educational Office in Municipality level, excluding the schools proposal.
The ineffectiveness of the integrated social interaction among the educational representatives, bureaucracy, and School Committee is also affected by the misperception against the understanding and the meaning assigned on the School-Based Management and School Committee. The interview results in conclusion that the educational bureaucracy is still exclusive in decision making process.

The effective pattern of social interaction among the educational representatives, bureaucracy, and School Committee is still far beyond the expected result. This result is also spawned by the absence of societal empowerment programs within the framework of Educational Assembly and School Committee. To pursue the effective interaction among the educational constituents, it needs willingness of all of them to develop the quality of education.

Based on the above conclusion, this research report proposes suggestions as follows: (1) the institutional pattern of interaction, coordination, and communication among the educational representatives, bureaucrats, and School Committee is urgently needed; (2) the dissemination of new paradigms and mindsets should be constantly done in relation to the application of local authorization of education in the form of the School-Based Management, promoting the broad autonomy, participative decision making process, and educational quality development; and (3) this requires a forum which can facilitate the educational stakeholders to have effective discussion, meaningful interaction and communication, and comprehensive policy.

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Interview with Vice Headmaster of SMAN (Sekolah Menengah Atas Negeri or State Senior High School) 3 in Madiun, East Java, Indonesia: 3 June 2009.
Interview with Vice Headmaster of SMA (Sekolah Menengah Atas or Senior High School) in Madiun, East Java, Indonesia: 10 June 2009.
Interview with Vice Headmaster of SMA (Sekolah Menengah Atas or Senior High School) in Madiun, East Java, Indonesia: 18 August 2009.


Gambar otonomi daerah (pejabat dinas pendidikan) di Indonesia

A change in educational policy has resulted in changing of the old paradigm (centralization) to the new one (autonomy and democratization) in the educational conduct. Educational authority delegation towards the local authority is expected to encourage the local autonomy, which enable the public inclusion within the school programs development of intra-curricular, extra-curricular, and co-curricular constituents.
Practical Teaching Model with Lesson Study Based: An Effort in Increasing Future Arabic Language Teacher Professionalism

Maman Abdurahman

ABSTRACT: Practical Teaching Program (PTP) is a program which must be taken by all university students in the education program. The purpose of PTP is, for the students (practitioners), to gain educational experience factually in the field, both with the school administration and its teaching-learning process. But in reality, there are numerous of students, who have finished their teaching exam in school who said that there are still confuse if they are going to be a professional teacher in the future. This research tries to explore the implementation of PTP based on Lesson Study (LS) principal and procedure. The method use is qualitative descriptive. This study conducted by Class Action Research: planning, action, observation, and reflection. The subjects of this research are 5 Arabic language students who are undergone PTP in the MAN (Madrasah Aliyah Negeri or State Senior High School for Islamic Education) 1 in Bandung, West Java, Indonesia. The instrument used to measures the professionalism of future Arabic language teacher are test, interview, observation, and direct supervision during the lesson study activity. The result shows that the PTP model of guidance and evaluation process with LS based can increase the professionalism of future Arabic language teacher which related to the pedagogic, professional, social, and personality of the teacher competencies.

KEY WORDS: Practical teaching, lesson study, main supervisor, vice supervisor, Arabic language teacher, and professional competencies.

INTRODUCTION

Among the common issues related to the implementation of Practical Teaching Program at the Faculty of Language and Art Education UPI (Indonesia University of Education) in Bandung are the lack of visit, discussion, and communication in the field between the main supervisor and the vice supervisor even among practitioners. This is caused by their motivation and schedule that couldn’t be synchronize; hence, with the teaching exam, had already finished, the practitioners still are not ready to become a real teacher professionally.

This is supported by the writer experience when guiding the students of practical teaching in 1994 until this very moment, after the practitioner gone through the practical teaching test, generally or more than half of they stated that they are...
not ready to become teachers. Beside the lack of guidance during PTP (Practical Teaching Program), there is also an assessment system which is not effective. The model conducted by the faculty is that a student can perform the PTP test if he/she had already performed 16 class appearances, and is worthy by the supervisors and the Headmaster. From this explanation, we can see the ineffective and inefficient of PTP, both from the guidance process and assessment system.

Based on these research background, the writer is eager to review through class action research in the LPTK (Lembaga Pendidikan Tenaga Kependidikan or Education Institutes for Teacher and Educator) partnership bequest and to give solutions related to the PTP guidance and the Lesson Study which has been proven its affectivity and also being developed by JICA (Japan International Cooperation Agency) and three universities: UM (Malang State University) in East Java, UNY (Yogyakarta State University) in Central Java, and UPI (Indonesia University of Education) in West Java (Abdurahman et al., 2010).

The main research question is does the Lesson Study activity effective in the PTP guidance and evaluation process and can increase the professionalism of future Arabic language teacher? Hence, this research is dedicated to develop the competency of future Arabic language teacher through the Lesson Study activities which is an activity from a collaborative process from a group of teacher who simultaneously planed the learning steps, including the method, media, and its evaluation instrument.

**Theoretical Review**

**On the Benefits of Lesson Study.** Lesson Study (LS), as the strategy of increasing the teacher professionalism in Japan, nowadays has spread to many countries, including advance country such as the United States of America (USA). It was happen since the release of *The Teaching Gap* book in 1999 that contains a review on the learning process in three nations, including Japan. Besides, it also contains the learning process in Japan, German, and USA (Fernadez & Yoshida, 2004). The book explains about the tradition of teachers in Japan who learn from the actual learning which in the future commonly known as Lesson Study. See diagram 1 as follows:

Based on the diagram above, we can see that Lesson Study (LS) can emerge numerous of benefits such as an increase on the teacher's knowledge on the learning materials and its learning, an increase on the teacher's knowledge on ways in observing the student’s learning activities, a stronger relation between the daily learning implementation with long term learning, an increase of the teacher's motivation to continuously develop, and an increase on the learning plan quality, including few components such a teaching materials (hand out) and the learning strategies. Increasing the knowledge of teaching and learning materials can be achieved with observation (Suryadi et al., 2010).
The explorative activities conducted by students are actually potential in increasing both students and teachers’ knowledge. By applying this kind of activities, the students are conditioned to involve in a high thinking process that can emerge an original innovative ideas or questions that encourage a further cognitive conflict which required not only a simple scientific knowledge.

The cooperation conducted by the teacher in developing learning plan, implementation, and reflection can increase the constructive interaction process which is very potential in increasing the professionalism of teacher. The interaction between teachers and other associates, including lecturer in the university, if it is implemented continuously; hence, it could develop a bond in the form of learning communities. Through the activities develop in LS (Lesson Study) which covers plan, do, and see, each community members can give and take; so, each individual can gain benefits that supported an increase of knowledge which covered learning material, learning supplementary in the form of hand out, and learning strategy (Hendayana et al., 2010).

**On the Preparing Lesson Study.** The first important thing in LS (Lesson Study) is conducting the first phase preparation which can be started by identifying learning problems which covered teaching materials (hand out), learning strategy, and the one who is going to play the role as teacher. Of course, the selected learning materials have to be adjusted with the curriculum and the undergoing program in school. A profound analysis on the selected teaching material and hand out have to be conducted together to gain the best alternative which can optimally encourage the students learning process based on the curriculum demand, the
students knowledge and capability, the competency which needed to be develop, and the development possibilities in their relation to the material. In its relation to the teaching material developed, it is also needed to be review about the possibilities of the student responses in anticipating the unexpected student responses. If the designed teaching material it’s too difficult for the students, then, the alternative intervention of teacher in adjusting the student level of capability needed to be well prepared. On the contrary, if the teaching materials are too easy for the students, then, a positive intervention is needed to make the teacher prepared and to achieve the goals of all students (Suryadi, 2006).

Beside the teaching material aspects, the teachers must discuss the learning strategies in group which consist of introduction, main activity, and post activity. This activity analysis can be started by revealing each experience in teaching the same materials. Based on the analysis, we can develop a learning strategy which consist of ways in implementing an introduction, so the students are motivated to actively conducted the learning process, activities between the interaction of students and the learning materials, students interactions, and interactions between teachers and students. How is the brainstorming between students and groups have to be conducted; how is the teacher intervention strategy in the class, groups, and individual level; and how are the activities performed by the students in the end of the learning are important questions in conducting the LS.

Besides preparing the teaching materials and its learning strategy, it is also important to prepare those who are invited as observers at the learning implementation and the reflection activities. Besides with the same subject teacher, in the implementation of LS there is also the possibility to invite other teacher subject, authorities, or the societies. The present of the principal in a LS is very important because the information gain from the learning activities in the class and reflection after the learning can be a valuable input for the LS activity, because of the diversity of observers in the lesson study can produce different point of view for the benefits of the teachers (Hendayana et al., 2010; and Suryadi et al., 2010).

On the Conducting Lesson Study Observation. In anticipating the possibility of numerous observers that come, the class should be organized so the students, teacher, and observer mobility can runs easily and comfortably. In implementing observation, it is recommended to do these following things: (1) Taking notes on the students activities, by writing their names or seats; (2) Taking notes on situation where the students are conducting cooperation or choosing not to cooperate; (3) Finding the examples on how the comprehension construction process develops through the students’ discussion and activities; and (4) Taking notes on the problem solving variation from the students individually or by group, including the wrong strategy.

Besides taking notes on the important aspect of the students’ learning activities, an observer during his/her observation needs to consider or refers to these numerous questions: (1) Do the learning goals clearly stated? Do the activities developed contribute effectively in achieving those goals?; (2) Do the learning steps being
develop related to one another? And does it support the student’s comprehension on the concept being learned?; (3) Do the hand outs or teaching material support the achievement of the previously stated learning goals?; (4) Do the class discussions help the students’ comprehension on the concept being learned?; (5) Do the learning materials develop by the teacher appropriate with student level?; (6) Do the students use their basic knowledge to comprehend new concepts?; (7) Do the questions from the teachers can encourage and facilitated the students mind work?; (8) Do the student ideas appreciated and related to the learning materials?; (9) Do the end conclusions are base from the student opinions?; (10) Do the conclusions appropriate with the learning objectives?; and (11) How do the teachers reinforced on the student learning achievement during the lesson?

On the Steps in the Reflection Stage. The steps in the reflection stage are as follows: (1) The facilitator introduces the reflection participants and mentioning each of their tasks while observing the class; (2) The facilitator conducted a review on the reflection stage agenda, around two minutes; and (3) The facilitator explains the rules in giving comment. The rules consist of these three aspects: during the discussion, only one person who speaks; each participant has the same opportunities to speak; and in giving an opinion, the observer must introduce the observation evident as the base of his/her opinion; (4) The teacher is given the first opportunity to speak, which is commenting the learning process. In that opportunity, the teacher must reveal the situations in the classroom which are the desired or undesired situation and the changes from the previously planned, fifteen until twenty minutes; (5) The representatives from the teacher that become member of the group are being given the opportunity to give additional comment; (6) The facilitator gives an opportunity to each observer to express their opinion; (7) After that, the facilitator invites the expert member to summarize or concluded the discussion results; and (8) The facilitator give his/her best regard to all participants and announce the next Lesson Study (Hendayana et al., 2010; and Suryadi et al., 2010).

Method

The method apply in this study is qualitative descriptive. This study conducted by Class Action Research: planning, action, observation, and reflection. The subjects of this research are 5 Arabic language education students who are undergone the Practical Teaching Program (PTP) in MAN (Madrasah Aliyah Negeri or State Senior High School for Islamic Education) 1 Bandung, West Java, Indonesia. The instrument used to measures the professionalism of future Arabic language teacher are test, interview, observation, and direct supervision during the LS (Lesson Study) activity.

Briefing and planning activities are direct by the head of the research, who is the writer own self. This activity is attend by the model teacher who is going to deliver the material, the Arabic language teacher of MAN 1 Bandung, the lecturer of UPI (Indonesia University of Education), and the representatives of MAN 1 Bandung
i.e. the vice principal of curriculum. They are also present in the reflection activity after the do activity had already finished and it is located in a special classroom provided by the MAN representative.

**Findings and Discussions**

Lesson Study (LS) is an educator model of nurturing through a collaborative and continuous learning review based on the colleague principles and mutual learning in developing a learning community (Hendayana et al., 2010). So, LS is not a learning method or strategy which in line with the teacher’s situation, condition, and problems. On this following, the writer will elaborate the activities of the future Arabic language teacher who use the LS as the guidance model of Practical Teaching Program (PTP) at the Department of Arabic Language Education, Faculty of Language and Art Education UPI (Indonesia University of Education) in Bandung, West Java, Indonesia (Abdurahman, 2007).

*First, the Lesson Study Scenario in Teaching-Learning of Arabic Language.* Based on the Kamus Bahasa Indonesia or Indonesia Language Dictionary, “scenario” is a role play plan or film in the form sequence after sequence written in details (Depdikbud RI, 1988:850). While what is mean by LS (Lesson Study) scenario in the Arabic language teaching and learning process is a sequence of activity plan performed in the learning of Arabic language in the classroom with the entire learning element which consists of implementation, main discussion, classroom setting, participants/individuals involve (the model teacher, students, and observer) from each activity stages in the lesson study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Meeting</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Main Discussion</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Classroom Setting</th>
<th>Observer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>15 May 2010</td>
<td>Jumlah Ismiyah and Jumlah Filiyah</td>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>Students are divided into five groups</td>
<td>Eight people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>30 May 2010</td>
<td>Jumlah Ismiyah and Jumlah Filiyah</td>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>Students are divided into five groups</td>
<td>Nine people</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the table above, we can see that the cycle of the LS (Lesson Study) activities in this research was design for two meetings. The first meeting was held in the 15th of May 2010. The main discussion chosen was Jumlah Ismiyah or Nominal Sentence and Jumlah Filiyah or Verbal Sentence (Arsyad, 2004); with the classroom setting divided into small groups and each consist of seven students. There are eight observers who observe the course of the discussion during the teaching and learning process.
And the second meeting was held in the 30th of May 2010. The main discussion, method, and classroom setting in this meeting was designed the same as the first meeting. The observers who were present during each meeting came from different field, who are LS expert, the lecturers of UPI (Indonesia University of Education), the Arabic language teacher of MAN (Madrasah Aliyah Negeri or State Senior High School for Islamic Education), and the students of Arabic language as practitioners.

Before these two LS cycle was performed, first, the model teacher would be conducted a pre-test to find out the students basic capabilities. And after these two cycles was finished, there would be a post-test to find out the end results of the students achievement after implementing LS in the teaching and learning of Arabic language.

Second, the “Plan” Activities in the Teaching and Learning of Arabic Language. There are several steps that have to be conducted by the practitioner or student in its relation to the plan steps: (1) Planning, it consist of arranging and discussing the lesson plan, the time, the place, the expected end result, and the peoples involve the Arabic language teacher, lecturer, and practitioner; and (2) Having to find the answer: why does the classroom setting made in groups of students in certain amount; what is its advantages and disadvantages; and why does discussion or other particular method is chosen.

Third, the “Do” Activities in the Teaching and Learning of Arabic Language. There are several steps that have to be conducted by the practitioner in its relation to the plan steps: (1) Observer: time, result, individuals involve, place; (2) Do: time, result, individuals involve, and place; (3) The topic or main discussion, based on the input from the teacher, lecturer, and fellow practitioner or maybe the curriculum vice principal; (4) Class: what is it being discussed, including group division, etc.; (5) The time of the teaching and learning process implementation; and (6) Before the do, there is a briefing: time, results, individual involves, and place as shown by this picture in implementing the do stage.

In its implementation, numerous of observer and model teacher lead by an expert in LS (Lesson Study) of UPI (Indonesia University of Education) conducted a short gathering (briefing) before the actual teaching and learning process in the classroom. The briefing is conduct in an empty classroom for less than 15 minutes. In this short meeting, the LS expertise of UPI who act as the leader of the briefing explain in brief about the lesson study to the entire observer. Then, the model teacher will hand over the opportunity to deliver the sequence of activities performed during the teaching and learning process in the classroom.

Left: the expert of LS holding the briefing. Right: the model teacher delivering the activity plan which will be conducted during the teaching and learning process in the classroom.

The first meeting was held in 15th of May 2010. The main discussions in this meeting are Jumlah Ismiyah (Nominal Sentence) and Jumlah Fi’liyah (Verbal Sentence), with the classroom setting of the students divided into small groups, each consists of seven students. There are eight observer participated in observing during the course of the teaching and learning process.
Table 2:
The Briefing Activity in the Lesson Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Meeting</th>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Individuals Involved</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1  | I       | Room: next to the school’s library. | • One model teacher.  
• Two Lesson Study experts.  
• On Arabic lecturer (as an observer).  
• One Arabic teacher (as an observer).  
• Four university students (as an observer). | It is agree that the main discussion: *Jumlah Ismiyah* and *Jumlah F’liyah*; the classroom setting is divide into groups: 1:7 people; all observer taking notes all of the founding in a special format. |
| 2  | II      | Room: next to the school’s library. | • One model teacher  
• Three Lesson Study experts (Arabic lecturers of UPI).  
• Six university students (as an observer). | It is agree that the main discussion: *Jumlah Ismiyah* and *Jumlah F’liyah*; the classroom setting is divide into groups: 1:7 people; all observer taking notes all of the founding in a special format. |

The observation was held as an effort in observing the *(do)* implementation which had the purpose of having a direct view on then student activities, interaction pattern, classroom atmosphere, teacher activities, and other considerable events.

**Fourth, the “See” Activities in the Teaching and Learning of Arabic Language.**

The main activity in the *see* activity is reflection and in the same time evaluates numerous of events related to the implementation of the Arabic language teaching and learning in the classroom. Aspects that needed to be notice by the practitioner in these activities are: time, the expected result in the form of suggestion, individuals involves, and the place used.

Generally, the observers declare their appreciation to the practitioner as a model who directly being observed by their teachers and lecturer without hesitation, even the classroom atmosphere is communicative and the students didn’t feel disturbed although their activities are being observed by others, beside their own teacher. Among the observers, there are few who give an input for the learning media to be written in a rather big Arabic letter so it can be seen by the students in the back seats. This picture shows the reflection ambience.

Table 3:
The Reflection Activity in Lesson Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Meeting</th>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Individuals Involve</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1  | I       | Library | • One model teacher.  
• Eight observers consist of the Lesson Study expert, lecturer, Arabic language teacher, and university students. | • The performance of the practitioner was “good”.  
• The Arabic writing need to be bigger. |
| 2  | II      | Library | • One model teacher.  
• Nine observers consist of the Lesson Study expert, Arabic language lecturer, and university students. | • The performance of the practitioner was “good”.  
• The Arabic writing need to be bigger. |
In its relation to the field of Practical Teaching Program (PTP), based on a written survey and observation, the main supervisor act as a teacher, director, and guide in comprehending/mastering the subject matter, the election and use of media, and evaluation tools. On the clinical supervisor upon the quality of performance (UPI, 2008:12), they generally come two times: first, in handing over the practitioner; and second, when it is time for the PTP test – if it is not attend by the main supervisor, then the test is not qualified.

The quality of practitioner needed to be questioned if there are no communication and discussion with the second supervisor and also with fellow practitioner. If the PTP evaluation and guidance is based on LS (Lesson Study), then by the writer, it is shown to produce numerous of advantages. Why? Because before performing in front of the class, the main and second supervisor, and also fellow practitioner, will gathered to discuss the main discussion in the Arabic language subject matter that it is consider difficult for the students. Then, the scenario, media, hand out, and evaluation tool even the formation of the classroom are made.

After the planning, one of the practitioner comes forward as the model teacher and the rest act as an observers. While the model teacher act in front of the class and the observers observe the behavior of the students, when does the students actually started learning, with the teacher stimulus when does the students actually started and ended the lesson etc. After everything is finish, the teacher, lecturer, and practitioner/observer gathered to discuss the whole teaching and learning, the strength and weaknesses, and the lack of the performance it consider as the material of evaluation – don’t repeat the failure of previous performance and this can be improve by 3-5 performances. In the reflection activity, all elements are present: teacher, lecturer, supervisor, and principal; then at that time, evaluation can be conducted. This can replace the ineffective guidance during 16 meeting appearance in PTP.

Fifth, the Assessment System Program of Lesson Study. University students – who conducted the PTP (Practical Teaching Program) with the LS (Lesson Study) based guidance model, from the planning, implementation, and reflection stages – are assessed of graded by the lecturers from UPI (Indonesia University of Education). The participations of the practitioners from the beginning – either as the model teacher or the observer – are supervised, directed, and assessed by their lecturers.

There are also grade conversions with the conventional PTP practitioner. Hence, university students who take the LS based PTP must recognize its steps and mechanisms, so he/she can be successful in the upcoming future.

The indicators or points assess are: (1) Giving inputs when arranging the lesson plan with fellow colleagues, teacher with the same subject matter, non field study university students/teacher, the principal or vice principal, and lecturer; (2) The student participations when discussing the lesson plan as a strategy and learning scenario; (3) Become a model teacher, at least once, during the whole 16 meetings; (4) Become an active observer who gives input to the model teacher who performs
MAMAN ABDURAHMAN,
Practical Teaching Model with Lesson Study Based

in front of the class, both in the same field of subject or not such as Arabic, German, Indonesian, or English languages; (5) Actively involves in a briefing guided by the school principal or his/her representative and attended by the practitioners, model teacher, observer, and facilitator/LS expert from UPI before the implementation of LS; (6) Actively involves in observing and taking notes of the students activities since the beginning and at the end of the lesson, and giving notes and suggestions to the model teacher, such as a constructive critiques for improvement and evaluation of the next learning quality and as one continuous improvement effort, in the implementation of the LS; (7) Actively delivers his/her findings as an observer. The findings don’t have any personal critiques toward the model teacher, but rather as a positive action towards the model teacher lack of performance and this is also implemented when the observer become the model teacher in the next meeting. It is expected that the next study or teaching and learning will have more improvement in the reflection activity; and finally (8) Arranging a special report during the course of LS in school, since the making of lesson plan until the reflection stage and writing a report about the LS which had already being signed by the lecturer of UPI, school principal, and the related subject teacher.

From the explanation based on the writer observation and research, it is found that the steps or procedures of LS are very effective if it is implemented in the guidance process and PTP evaluation in UPI, or in the entire LPTK (Lembaga Pendidikan Tenaga Kependidikan or Education Institutes for Teacher and Educator) that held the PTP. This is in accordance with the opinion of Rector UNY (State University of Yogyakarta), Prof. Sugeng Mardiyono, Ph.D., who stated that LS is proven to be effective in increasing three aspects which are increasing adding capacity, comprehension capacity, and social sympathy (http://www.uny.ac.id/home/data.php?m, 21/8/2011).

Finally, LS also can increase the cross education control and not just to a single discipline, for example a practitioner who conducted PTP in the field of natural science cannot only be observed by others in the same field of study but rather being observed by those in different area of study, because LS is transparent and open in nature. In addition, LS can also increase accountability, indirect control, and supported the government program related to the certification which can increase the quality of educators.

**Conclusions**

Based on the discussion, it can be concluded that the LS (Lesson Study) based model of PTP (Practical Teaching Program) guidance and evaluation can increase the professionalism of future Arabic language teacher in relation to the teacher pedagogic, professional, social, and personality competencies; and in the end the five practitioners who used LS stated that they are more ready if they are assign to become a teacher by the government.
The assessment system with LS based can be more effective if it is hand over to the team of assessor which consists of: lecturer from university, teacher for school, and observer/principal. The aspects judged are the practitioner activity in planning the teaching and learning process, arranging the lesson plan, handling the material and classes, using the media, and the evaluation tools – all can be seen in the plan-do-see.

The attendances and discussion that last for 3-5 times between lecturer, teacher, and practitioner can increase the quality of the process and the results of PTP; and in the same time can increase the evaluation system. This is all based on the classroom action research conducted by the writer in the Department of Arabic Language Education, Faculty of Language and Art Education UPI (Indonesia University of Education) in Bandung, West Java, Indonesia.

Based on the conclusion, the writer recommends that the principal of LS which covers the plan-do-see is implemented in the guidance and evaluation process of PTP for future teacher (practitioner) in other major of UPI.

References

Appendices:

The Questionnaires of the Lesson Study Activity Implementation in the Arabic Language Subject (1)

Directions:
- Fill in your identity
- Read the questions carefully and fill in with your own opinion

Name : 
Class : 
School : 

After you had participated in the teaching and learning process of Arabic language with the implementation of Lesson Study, please describe your suggestion about these few things or aspects!

1. What is your opinion on the Arabic language lesson before and after the Lesson Study? .........
2. What is your opinion on the Lesson Study activity in the teaching and learning process of Arabic language? .................................................................
3. Does the Lesson Study implementation in the teaching and learning process help you in comprehending the Arabic language lesson, if not? Why? ..........................................
4. Does the Lesson Study activity in the teaching and learning process of Arabic language lesson has its advantages and disadvantages? ............................................................
5. What are the benefits of Lesson Study in the teaching and learning process of Arabic language lesson for you as a student? .................................................................
6. What are the disadvantages of Lesson Study in the teaching and learning process of Arabic language lesson? .................................................................
7. In your opinion, what kind of learning model that can help you, as a student, in comprehending the Arabic language lesson? .................................................................

The Observation Format of the Lesson Study Activity (2)

1. Name of School: 
2. Name of Teacher: 
3. Subject Matter: 
4. Topic: 
5. Class: 
6. Number of Students: 
7. Number of Groups: 
8. Observer: 

After you had participated and became an observer in the entire sequences of Lesson Study, describe your opinion about these few aspects.

1. How is the course of the discussion performed by students from each groups (student activities during the discussion)? .................................................................
2. Which groups and students who are active during the teaching and learning process? ............
3. When do the students performed and didn't performed cooperation? ................................
4. What method/way applied by the students in solving the problems that they encountered? ..... 
5. Does the method/strategy that they used correct or wrong? .............................................
6. When do the students start learning? .................................................................
7. What kind of treatment/activity that introduce the students in learning? .........................
8. When do the students ended their learning? .................................................................
9. What kind of treatment/activity that caused the students to learn? ................................
Interview Manual in the Lesson Study Activity (3)

After you had participated and became an observer in the entire sequences of Lesson Study, describe your opinion about these few aspects.

1. Based on the observation, what will you do if you are a teacher in the future (standing in front of the class)? ………………………………………………………………………………………………

2. What is your opinion about the Lesson Study activity in the teaching and learning process of Arabic language lesson? ………………………………………………………………………………………………

3. Does the Lesson Study activity in the teaching and learning process of Arabic language lesson have its advantages and disadvantages? ………………………………………………………………………………………………

4. What are the advantages of Lesson Study activity in the teaching and learning process of Arabic language lesson? ………………………………………………………………………………………………

5. What are the disadvantages of Lesson Study activity in the teaching and learning process of Arabic language lesson? ………………………………………………………………………………………………

6. What does it take to achieve success in the teaching and learning process of Arabic language lesson? ………………………………………………………………………………………………

7. What are your opinions and notes during the observation? ………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
The Practical Teaching Program (PTP) is a program which must be taken by all university students in the education program. The purpose of PTP is, for the students (practitioners), to gain educational experience factually in the field, both with the school administration and its teaching-learning process.
ABSTRACT: This research aimed to find out: (1) interference forms of Indonesian grammar towards the students’s spoken and written English competence; and (2) grammatical factors influencing grammatical Indonesia interference towards the students’s spoken and written English competence. The research method used was “metode simak dan catat” or observation and note taking method. This method was applied by notifying any expressions being interferenced from any academic activities. Therefore, the data were collected from students’ academic activities such as writing practices, reports, structured academic assignments, and also from discussion, seminars, and presentations. After the data had been collected and analyzed, they went into two main classifications. Those were sentencial interference (63.16%) and phrasal interference (36.84%). Further analyses showed that sentencial interference came into several sub-classifications such as the following: (1) sentence pattern $S + \text{Very} + \text{Verb} + \text{Object}$, 31.21%; (2) sentence pattern of $\text{Noun} + \text{Adjective}$, 12.2%; (3) sentence pattern of unappppropriate form, 6.57%; (4) sentence pattern of unintended or “ketidaksengajaan”, 5.3%; (5) impersonal it sentence pattern, 3.94%; and (6) active-passive sentence pattern, 3.94%. Meanwhile, phrasal interference came with 36.84% data and was classified into the following: (1) unorderly arrangement, 11.84%; (2) adverb formation, 5.3%; (3) inappropriate number, 9.2%; and (4) miscellaneous, 5%. Furthermore, the grammatical factor which influenced the Indonesian interference towards the English learning, both spoken and written, was the fact that the English language learners had little imposition and practice which made them difficult to internalize English linguistic knowledge they learned.

KEY WORDS: Sentencial interference, phrasal interference, linguistic environment, grammatical patterns, acceptable patterns,”bahasa” Indonesia, and English language.

INTRODUCTION

English learning in Indonesia, from time to time, has not been considered a success. The complaints on this unsuccessful result keep echoing in almost all parts of the Indonesia archipelago. Unfortunately, the failure of this English learning happened in almost all education levels, since English is introduced in Elementary School, Junior High School, up to University level. Such complaint also happened to the special Department responsible for running English college, English Department of Teacher Training College.

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The fact that English is considered and treated as a foreign language in Indonesia could be the core reason for all of these mishaps. Social and formal environments do not obviously give encouragements to lead the success of this learning. Students find quite a few social and cultural environments which encourage them to feel that they need to develop their English. Even though, frankly speaking, English is officially considered as the first international language in this archipelagic country in which it turns out as well that through the fast technology development the need to master the language increase much a lot from time to time.

Another factor which brings English learning into the worst condition is the fact that people do not use English as a means of communication in this country, neither in the form of formal nor informal gatherings. Therefore, the use of Indonesia language even becomes the only choice as the means of communication formally and informally in everyday events. It does not surprise us that the use of the Indonesian language becomes much stronger and more dominant in all aspects of life.

By the fact of the Indonesian language use which becomes much stronger and more dominant, another problem followed that the English language they use in the linguistic encounters was much interfered by their Indonesian language. The interference happened in all learning of language aspects, including phonological, morphological, and grammatical aspects. The interference did not just happen in spoken communication, but this also happened in the written communication as well.

This research accomplished to find out the interference of Indonesian language to the English learning which only focused on the oral and written grammatical interference. Writing skill is considered as a unique skill, especially when related to the second language learning. Writing skill is not only considered as the delta of adjoining all language aspects for people to learn a language, such as vocabulary, spelling, and grammar, but this skill also needs a media by which people have to express their ideas.

In the context of the second language learning, people do not have necessary need which pushed them to do writing skill. Therefore, it is not easy for everyone to develop the writing skill. The problem of this writing skill became even worse, especially for students who have academic tasks such as term paper, final academic scientific writing. The problem does not only deal with the students’ problem in using correct English patterns, but it also deals with the fact that the first language, Indonesian language, interferes their English learning as the second language. They often express their opinions and ideas just merely like that when they express in Indonesian language without considering the English grammar input correctly. With this mind-set, the language products they produced were not acceptable; therefore, people did not understand the writing products they made due the grammar irregularities.

This research focused on the following problem as to: (1) find out the interference forms of Indonesian grammar to the English learning, both oral and written English;
and (2) find out grammatical factors influencing people to have interfered English, both oral and written.

**Theoretical Review**

*On the Second / Foreign Language Learning.* Language acquisitions in human life have become interesting phenomena to observe. When we observe in depth, the first language learning (mother tongue) happened as a natural learning. The learning proceeded gradually in line with the development of the natural physical growth of people. Besides that, coming into the curious stage of life, children have got the highest and most productive time not only to digest and master the grammar of the mother language, but to also that language perfectly in accordance with their age. Therefore, the first language acquisition is far much better than the second or foreign language one. Let alone, socio-culturally, the second or foreign language learning does not have equal support from the environment which encourages the learners to adapt the situation perfectly as they have when they learn the first language.

In the society which develops more and more pluralistic, it is not enough for someone to master just one language. There are many reasons why they have to study and master one language, either considered as a foreign or second language. A foreign language learning is conceived whenever people do not learn the language by its origin. S.M. Gass (1989:26) stated that foreign language learning takes place when the language to be learned is not the native language of the society; for example, learning English as a foreign language in Japan. Second language learning takes place in a country when that language is spoken. With such a statement, it is quite clear that learning English in Indonesia can be considered as learning a foreign language.

Either second language learning or foreign language learning will certainly bring significant success for the learners. People will not only learn and achieve the success of communication in the international forum on all aspects of life and science, but they will also learn how to achieve the language itself. Again, S.M. Gass (1989:3) further insisted that the study of second language acquisition was a viable topic of study in and of itself; its justification no longer came from the concern of language pedagogy. Instead, its justification came from the insight that it provided about the nature of the process of acquisition.

There are many factors which contribute to the success of learning a second language. Besides socio and cultural factors, the first language acquisition also influences the success of a second foreign language. This condition is also highlighted by J.P. Harmer (1990) as saying that the second language acquisition is much influenced by the first language acquisition. J.P. Harmer (1990:215) also said that L2 (Second Language) acquisition is considered to be completely determined by previous cognitive and linguistic knowledge. Research result showed that people could possibly use interactive strategy taken from achieving the first language (mother tongue) to that of learning the second or foreign language. This
is as what J.P. Harmer (1990:220) stated as saying that the successful strategies used in mastering the first language people use them much for their second or foreign language.

Within this context, Sridhar stated that the first language interference can be used as the learning language strategy and can be taken as an input in learning either the second or foreign language (cited by Ramelan, 1991). Because of having different language learning sources, the transfer of language rules and interference of the first language have different stages from one language learning to another language learning. The transfer of language rules happen whenever there are similarities between the first language and the second or foreign language. Interferences may come out whenever the learners find some irregularities between those two languages.

However, Zoblin (1990:65) underlined that the transfer and interference may develop well when the language learner “has little contact with L2 speakers in natural setting”. Therefore, within this context, Nababan (1991:31) clearly stated that Indonesian language interferes much the second or foreign language learning in Indonesia, by saying that in Indonesia, the enveloping language is Indonesia in the major cities and the local vernacular and Indonesia in the smaller towns.

As a foreign language, English does not certainly give facilities to the people learning the language to master it fast. As pointed clearly by Suwarsih Madya (1991:67) stating firmly that Indonesian students benefit very little from the environment. Besides the unfavorable environment, the clear difference between the first and the foreign language will certainly serves as the source of interference. The first language acquisition which interferes the second or foreign language learning is considered as the habit interference.

**On the Grammatical Interference.** Interference happens in a linguistic production, especially in the use of second or foreign language which is caused by the first language acquisition. S.P. Corder (1980:65) stated that another attitude to errors is that they are all the result of the influence of the mother tongue on the learning process “interference” as it was called from the habits of the first language.

From the linguistic forms view point, language interference can be classified into several types. Those are phonological, morphological, and grammatical interference. The communication necessity seems to stress that grammatical interference poses the most significant contribution. The ungrammatical sentences will certainly pose problems to the listeners which in turns they will bring about problems or misunderstanding. Therefore, the successful performance of someone depends very much on the knowledge and fluency of the second language. To make it worse, the aspects of the two languages are certainly not similar or identical. Grammar involves other aspects to learn as S.M. Gass (1989:12) stated the following that “grammar is not monolithic”. Rather, it is a module that interacts with other modules, such as conceptual knowledge, pragmatic knowledge, and perception; and is governed by human processing constrains.
However, someone’s language knowledge is not always identical to that of the art in producing or expressing the language using that knowledge. It is quite possible that much knowledge will not surely lead language learners to produce proper and acceptable language. S.M. Gass (1989:19) reiterated that humans have knowledge of language quite apart from their ability to use that language. It has high possibility that knowledge will not go hand in hand with the ability. But it is exactly correct that ability expresses knowledge, especially when it comes to the grammatical knowledge. Again, S.M. Gass (1989:5) underlined that a theory of language acquisition must be constrained by knowledge of what a grammar consists of, and a grammar of a language must be something that humans are capable of constructing, given the general characteristics of the information available to the learner.

In the process of second language learning, S.M. Gass (1989:5) stated “utterances which are ungrammatical or otherwise ill-formed, when judged by the generally accepted rules of the language they are learning”. Those unacceptable expressions are used and learned whether they belong to mistakes of interference or non-interference. Principally, there have clear different characteristics between mistakes caused by interference and those mistakes caused by non-interference. This difference leads us to have through understanding on the causal factors. Further, S.M. Gass (1989:6) clarified as stating that in second language acquisition, learners are confronted with the dynamic interplay of the two (or more) linguistic systems.

For further development, Judith Chun clarified that interference has then developed into a study which is well known as error analysis (cited by Madya, 1991). This later on will give significant contribution to the development of language learning. Error language learning will certainly lead us to have the skill to identify learning strategy through analyzing errors language learners make both on spoken as well as written language.

Judith Chun stated, further, that error analysis will obviously help language teachers access and learn students’ progress more critically through remedial assignments given to students in developing their language learning (cited by Madya, 1991). Within this context, language learners will be able to anticipate or even avoid mistakes they most commonly do. This will help a lot not only for him but for the sake of designing further language lessons.

With such this description, it is not surprising that students’ mistakes in learning the language have now become the focus in the trend of learning the second or foreign language. It is also reasonable that within these years, error analysis has been one of the compulsory subjects students have to learn. The helpful relevance on the error analysis and the strategy to plan learning material on the second or foreign language learning has made error analysis as the the source of researches considered significant as stated by Ho Peng (cited by Ramelan, 1991).

Considering those several descriptions on the language interference above, it can be concluded that the difference of language systems will result in producing language interference in the use of a language or in second or foreign language
learning. Grammatical interference plays a very important role and much discussed in the language learning as grammar becomes the most strategic factor in making or expressing a sentence or utterance. Therefore, this research only focused on the grammatical interference.

**Result and Discussion**

This chapter discusses the way the data were achieved and how they were analyzed in this research. After the data had been gathered or collected, the data analysis was done by grouping them referring to the structural patterns/forms of each data. Through the structural forms or patterns, the data were then classified into two main classifications. Those were data belonging to sentencial structure dan phrasal structure. However, the data were not classified in accordance to the way how the data were achieved or from the data sources whether from oral or written source as the main goal of this research was to know the typical interference in learning a second or foreign language. The data sources were not the main points or goal in this research analysis.

**On the Types of Sentencially Grammatical Interference.** The type of grammatical interference on the sentencial structure was in the form of linguistic mistakes highly influenced by the first language acquisition in the form of sentencial interference. Therefore, the final results achieved from the data analysis were in the form of structural mistakes of English sentences. Further, analysis showed us that sentencially grammatical interference was classified into two subtypes, either in the form of full sentencial interference or partial sentencial interference. The sentencially grammatical interference taken from this research can be presented in detail as the following:

**First, Sentencially Grammatical Interference:** $S + S_	ext{sangat} + \text{Verb} + \text{Object}$. This type of sentencial interference in kind of this sentence pattern has the most number of data. This typical interference could be the most common mistakes students make in their English learning. It can be concluded that this typical interference dominated the number of data reaching more than 23% of the total data. With such pattern, Indonesian speakers express Indonesian utterances acceptably. The utterance can be as the following: “Dia sangat mencintai adiknya”.

With such grammatical pattern as the example, an Indonesian learning English could possibly express the idea just like in that Indonesian pattern as the following: “She very loves her brother”.

Of course, such an utterance is not grammatically acceptable in English. The English grammatical rule tells us that the word *very* cannot be used to explain a verb as in “very loves”. *Very* in English is used to modify an adjective. Therefore, the morpheme *very* is linked directly before an adjective, for instance: *very* busy, *very* beautiful, *very* angry, *very* important, *very* much, *very* little, *very* handsome, etc. In short, the word *very* can’t stand alone. On the contrary, the word which can be used to modify an English verb is *very much*. But, such expressions usually come after the verb concerned. In another word, the structural order would be $\text{VERB +}$
VERY MUCH. So, Indonesian sentence mentioned earlier “Dia sangat mencintai adiknya” has the similar expressions in English as “She loves her brother very much”. In detail, the following is the list of data belonging to this type of interference:

I was very regret because I didn't care with my parents.
At that time, I very liked horror films.
I very enjoyed when I was watching it.
I went to home because I was very miss with my parents and my cousin.
I have many friends that very care and love me.
I very like music because music can help me forgetting to my sadness and bareness.
I am very like R & D because R & D music is very enjoyable when I listened to it.
She is very like children.
He very enjoy with his lived.
I very much enjoyed the party.
He very cares to me.
I want with her together and I very loved her.
How I very hate this city?
The tourists very enjoy stay in Borobudur Temple.
When I was a little girl, I have many friends that very care and love me.
I have special figure who very influence my life.
All students love her and other teacher very respected her.
Commonly, environment surrounded the teenagers in Bandung very influence to teenager development and behaviors to days.

Second, Sentencial Interference Nominal 1 (Nominal + Adjective). Most Indonesian students learning English have the understanding that the sentence pattern of Nominal + Adjective is the productive sentence pattern by which it can generate by no means acceptable English sentences. They don't generally know that such sentence pattern is an English sentence pattern interfered by the Indonesian sentence pattern. That sentence pattern is in fact still understandable, especially to the Indonesian speaking community learning English. But to English speaking people, such sentence pattern sounds very strange. The following sentence data shows how students learning English have tried to express their ideas in English. However, as a result, their sentences were much interfered by the Indonesian grammatical patterns. The sentences are as the following:

He is falling down and his hand is broken.
Mom, my paper is left on my desk at home.
They said that my leg was broken.
Hasti’s hand was broken.

The sentence “He is falling down and his hand is broken” has several grammatical mistakes. The sentence should be expressed in “the past tense”. But the part of the sentence which shows us grammatical interference is on “his hand is broken”. That English sentence comes from the Indonesian language: “tangannya patah”. To make the English sentence acceptable, such idea should be expressed into “he broke his hand” with the grammatical pattern “Subject + Verb + Object”. So, such an idea could be expressed in complete into “He fell down and he broke his hand”.

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The next sentence, “Mom, my paper is left on my desk at home” has similar pattern case. The source of mistakes does not come from language interference, but it also comes from the incorrect tense as well. That sentence should also use past tense. The sentence pattern should use basic pattern “Subject + Verb + Object”. Therefore, the sentence then should be as the following “Mom, I left my paper on my desk at home”.

From the Indonesian concept, such English sentence patterns “Mom, I left my paper on my desk at home” sounds unusual and funny. Such pattern seems to inform us that the subject or the doer did the activity on purpose or by design. And that’s the idea of grammatical arbitrariness in English language which could be understood differently by other language users, such as Indonesian.

Third, **Sentencial Interference Nominal 2 (Nominal + Adjective)**. Indonesian sentence pattern (Nominal + Adjective) as in the following examples: “Kita perlu …”; “Mereka sangat sulit untuk mendapatkan …”; and “Dia tidak perlu untuk …” is an acceptable sentence pattern of Indonesian language. But the case would pose different matters when such pattern then is transferred into English within the same pattern. English grammatical patterns do not have such pattern. Therefore, when it is expressed into English into: “We are necessary …”; “They are very difficult to get …”; and “He is not necessary …”, of course, those sentences are not grammatically correct in English.

The correct English grammatical pattern people can use is “Impersonal It”. This can be used to express ideas or opinion which is properly related to the situation. The correct pattern is: “It + be (is, was) + adjective + for + Pronoun + to …”. The example which can illustrate the situation is as the following: “It is necessary for you to study hard before you get the exams”. The following list shows English sentences which are interfered by the Indonesian grammatical patterns:

- We were very difficult to get them.
- We are too late to get the information.
- The society isn’t easy to avoid the influence from the culture of other society.

Those sentences can be revised easily using that English sentence pattern into the following:

- It was very difficult for us to get them.
- It is too late for us to get the information.
- It isn’t easy to avoid the influence from the culture of another society.

Fourth, **Gramatical Interference without Linking Verbs**. This type of interference is a complex interference which has no clear grammatical patterns such as those discussed earlier. However, the form of interference can be analyzed easily that those sentences do not have complete sentence structure. In that case, such sentences are considered as uncomplete sentence and, therefore, those sentences are accepted as unacceptable utterance.
The sentences belong to sentences which are interfered by the Indonesian concept without paying attention to the accepted English grammatical patterns. The speakers just express the English sentences by translating word to word from Indonesian into English without refereeing to the basic English sentence patterns. Their ignorance of the speakers to the existing patterns was due to the limited linguistic knowledge of English.

Another factor leading to the interferent mistakes shows the fact that the data was commonly taken from oral data. It is possible that the speakers uttering the expressions were under psychological pressures which lead them to have no chance to revise their ideas into the acceptable sentences. The following example underlined the statement: “She very closed with me”. That expression could be concluded as one interfered by the Indonesian grammatical pattern in such a way that leads to unacceptable sentences. The Indonesian sentence which interfered could be: “Dia sangat dekat dengan saya” into “She very closed with me”.

The speaker did not only recognize that the sentence was not grammatical; he/she did make a wrong diction by taking the word “closed”. “Closed” lexically means “tertutup”, while “dekat” should be expressed into “close”. Inappropriate choice of words was the word “with” which was the interferent of the word “dengan”. Yet, the correct choice of the word “dengan” should be “to”. Therefore, the correct sentence of “Dia sangat dekat dengan saya” would be expressed as “She was very close to me”.

The complete data of the sentences in the case alike are in the following list:

- She very closed with me.
- I was shock because my IP in this semester very bad.
- My PA very angry with me.
- She cry when meet me and talk all of her problems.
- Have long we not meet.
- How far from here?
- I will tell it about when I holiday in Semarang.

**Fifth, Active-Passive Grammatical Interference.** An active-passive grammatical pattern is one of the factors leading to language interference in learning English. This means that the language learners tend to produce active-passive sentences in line with the Indonesian trend in making sentences without any reference to that of the English patterns. This leads them to produce English expressions which are unacceptable to the English community. In the communication culture, not all passive sentences are well accepted. Usually, English speaking people tend to use active sentences and, therefore, avoid using passive ones. Active sentences are more welcome than that of the passive ones. The following example is more acceptable: “I have taken the medicine” than that expressed in the passive ones: “The medicine has been taken by me” to mean that the same thing that he has taken the medicine.

Several sentences were on the spot in this research stressing that students learning English as the subject of the research did not understand well using the active-passive sentences. As the example: “It (back to campus) is made me can forgot
my problems”. The idea should not be expressed in the passive voice as this only makes the listener find the sentence more difficult to catch. The idea can then be express into: “Coming back to campus has made me forget my problems”.

This type of interference does not have large distribution. Yet, that shows us enough evidence that we have to pay good attention to this language phenomena in order to have good communication skill using the language we learn. The following sentence also points out that the speaker has been interfered by the Indonesian language badly that the sentence is totally unacceptable: “Because she very loved by her cousin”.

Indonesian concept which interfered the English could be the following: “Karena dia sangat dicintai oleh keponakannya”. Such concept was, then, transferred into unacceptable English above. When the speaker has good knowledge and ability, he would then express that into an active sentence. Therefore, the acceptable expression would be as the following: “Because her cousin loved her very much”.

The whole sentences belonging to this type of active-passive interference can be presented as the following:

It (back to campus) is made me can forgot my problem and I can do my live better.
And my friend is very cool because all of my story is listen of my friend.
Because she very loved by her cousin.
She is a smart girl, without it is also beautiful.

Sixth, Grammatical Interference in Parallelism. This type of interferent mistakes is quite common for students in learning English. Students learning English have no similar concept found bahasa Indonesia as they have to learn in English. Students learning English find quite many forms for certain lexis. English shows that there are many forms of verbs by which each has its own different function. For example, the verb “break” has the forms of: break, to break, breaking, broke, broken. These different forms bring about problems for the learners. The following is an example of such interferent mistake:

They are just having fun, example: watching TV, sleeping in the boarding house, shopping in the mall, take a walk, or make a date with boy friend or girl friend.

This typical erroneous expression is much interfered by the Indonesian concept that Indonesian grammatical patterns do not have various forms of the verb like those in English. Therefore, to correct this type of mistakes is not too difficult. To do that, we just change the verbs which are not parallel into the correct ones proportional to the context the sentence needs. The following is the correct version of the sentence:

They are just having fun, example: watching TV, sleeping in the boarding house, shopping in the mall, taking a walk, or making a date with boy friend or girl friend.

On the Grammatical Interference in Phrases. This type of interference can be classified into phrasal interference. This has the argument that the English mistake
students make does not necessarily contribute to the central or core sentence. This type of interference relates much to the word formation, choice of words or diction, word order, and agreement between number and the modifier which comes before the word concerned. To show in detail, the following presents the complete types of such interference on phrases:

First, **Word-Order Grammatical Interference**. This type of interference relates to the fact that Indonesian word order is very much different from that of the English. Therefore, students learning English should much pay attention to word order pattern of English and the difference between the Indonesian and English word order patterns. It is quite often that Indonesian word orders interfere the English sentences the students produce. Unfortunately, the word order patterns of both English and Indonesian are considered arbitrary. Therefore, there is no logical argument which can lead to have easy description for language learners to understand easily.

“I and my friend” is an example of word order which is interfered by the first language, Indonesia language. This type of expression on word order is considered unusual in English, which is, of course, unacceptable found in this research. Indonesian word order confirms that it is just common to express the writer or speaker as the first to mention, like “Saya dan ibu” or “I and my mom” and “Saya dan kawan-kawan” or “I and my friends”.

These examples underline that most students learning English produce similar word order in English, which is of course, erroneous. More data on this type of mistakes are on the following list:

- I and my friend.
- I am and my friend.
- Me and my sister.
- Me and my family.
- I with three my boarding house’s friends.
- Me and my friends.
- I and my family.
- After I and my family finished my lunch.
- Everyday after went to school, I and my friend play in the garden.

It is just easy to correct such mistakes as long as the students learning English have known well the word order pattern in English. To correct this mistake can be done just by change the word order.

Second, **Grammatical Interference in Adverbs**. This type of interference happens when the learners just translate a pair of Indonesian words into English without referring to the grammatical rules in English. Certainly, the English expressions produced do not have acceptable meaning, because such pair of Indonesian words has already got its own similar expression. Therefore, the students do not have to translate such Indonesian expression into English using their own expressions. The frequent expression which interferes students’ English is adverb. An adverb is a word which modify a verb, therefore, English adverb is usually transferred
into “dengan …”. For example, an expression “Ia membaca dengan perlahan-lahan” will be expressed into English “He read with slow”. The correct sentence for that expression is “He read slowly”.

The following sentence “We make sentences with good” has the same linguistic phenomena. Students, then, translate that into an adverb “with good”. That must come from the Indonesian interference “dengan baik”. Therefore, to correct such mistakes, students can just change the expression “with good” into “well”. The expression “well” is the adverb form of the adjective “good”. So, the correct sentence of the expression above would be the following: “We make sentences well”.

Another form of interference is on the choice of word or diction. The wrong diction of the utterances will bring about problems for the listeners. The form of interference is obvious as in the following sentences:

As long as

in the trip, we are very happy.

As long as

holiday, I was very bored because I didn’t do many activities.

The interferent mistakes on the above sentences can be stemmed from the Indonesian grammatical concept. It seems the speaker is about to say: “Sepanjang perjalanan, kita sangat senang”. The word “panjang” is usually translated into English “long”. That’s the reason the speaker says “sepanjang” into “as long as”. Such choice of words was not exactly perfect. The idea “selama liburan” or “sepanjang perjalanan” has the equivalence into “during” in English.

Third, Grammatical Interference in Agreement. The next form of interference refers to the relationship between one word to another word on their agreement. Therefore, people call it interference on agreement. Grammatical agreement does not exist in Indonesian language. Therefore, students learning English frequently make this type of mistakes, especially beginners. That trend happens because the English rules have not internalized into their linguistic concept. So, what they can do in trying to express their ideas into English is expressing the ideas using their Indonesian concept.

Agreement concept in English refers to the noun quantifier and the noun forms which come after the quantifier. For example, quantifier some, few, many, two, a lot of or lots should usually come before plural nouns, like: students, books, mistakes, classes, boys, ladies, etc. Then, some examples of their combinations would be like few students, many books, a lot of mistakes, some boys, etc. Indonesian language does not have such linguistic rules. Therefore, when the situation comes, Indonesian students learning English would tend to produce such interferent expressions. One of the examples is like the following: “My boyfriend is very handsome, cute, and a clever boys”.

The sentence above has several mistakes. The first mistake is on the interferent expression pointing to the article “a”. That article should only be followed by a singular noun “boy” not “boys”. The next problem is the student’s failure in arranging those multiadjectives into one correct phrase as the following: “a very handsome, cute, and clever boy”. The sentence would then be like this: “My boyfriend is A very handsome, cute, and clever BOY”.

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The following data also shows similar problems; no correct agreement between the subject of the main sentence and that of the sub-sentence. The problem will certainly disturb the understanding of the listeners or the speaking partner. Therefore, the agreement between referents must undoubtedly be considered well. The sentence in point is as follows: “As we know if the woman go to supermarket, they will spend a lot of time to chose something which they will purchase, like me”.

The agreement of referents on the sentence above is between the woman as the subject of the sub sentence and the subject of the main sentence “they” in “they will spend” and “they” in “they will purchase”. They don’t agree to each other because “the woman” is a singular noun, while “they” refers to plural noun. Another problem is on the use of the article “the”. The correct article should be “a” as the expression does not show the definite subject to talk. So, the correct version of the sentence would be: “As we know if a woman, like me, go to a supermarket, she will spend a lot of time to choose something which she will purchase”.

The following is the complete data found to have similar case discussed in this research. The disagreements found in this analysis in each of the sentences are shown by italicizing the words:

My boyfriend is very handsome, cute and a clever boys.
As we know if the woman go to supermarket, they will spend a lot of time to choose something which they will purchase, like me.
A sweet memories when I was a little girls.
She is beautiful girls and can sing well.
I was very bored because I didn’t do many activitie.

Fourth, Grammatical Interference in Diction. The form of this type of interference refers to the failure of the students learning English to identify the question they are to ask. They fail to reflect to their ability whether the question they will ask may need a “yes” or “no” answer or those questions need further clarification depending on the question word they use. Basically, a question could either go to a yes or no question or a question word question. Interestingly, Indonesian language does not offer any choice as that of English. In Indonesian, those two types of questions both use the question words “apakah” or “apa”. “Apakah” and “apa” are considered similar or synonymous. The following are examples to clarify the statement: “Apakah kamu menyukai dia?” or “Do you like him?” and “Apa yang kamu sedang pelajari?” or “What are you studying?”.

Those two questions look alike. Both begin with the question word “apa”. Yet, basically they refer to different ideas. The question “Apakah kamu menyukai dia?” is enough to have yes or no answer. This question is considered to be a “yes/no question”. The other question “Apa yang kamu sedang pelajari?” is not enough to have a yes or no answer. Therefore, that question needs a clarification referring to the question word “What”. This type of question is generally considered as “Question word question”.

The question form referring to the question “Apa” brings language interference to students learning English to formulate the correct questions. They most readily
use “What” to mean “Apa” in whatever situation; whether a yes or no question or question word question. The following list shows the complete data found in this research. The list is as follows:

- Whether Susi study in UMP, too?
- What is the right?
- What are you like me, too?
- In there, whether you have get a job?

Those four questions are yes or no questions. But, due to the fact that the speakers are much interfered by the Indonesian concept, each of those questions begin with the question word “What” or “Whether” as the interference of the question “Apa” or “Apakah”. To correct those sentences, language learners have to change the question word “What” to that of the correct auxiliary appropriate to the tense of each of the sentence.

**Fifth, Miscellaneous Grammatical Interference.** The next type of interference refers to the active-passive used in the infinitive forms. The form of active-passive infinitive is much interfered by the Indonesian grammar. The interfered forms can be seen on the following expressions: “There are many places to be visited together” and “The paper has to collect in that day”.

The expression “to be visited” comes from the interference source “untuk dikunjungi” which sounds passive. Yet, to express that idea correctly, language learner just uses “to visit”. So, the correct sentence would be: “There are many places TO VISIT together”.

The next interference form refers to the habit of translating word to word sentences into English ones using Indonesian concept. This is due to the reason that students have the trend to express their Indonesian ideas into English without considering or referring the use of English grammar. As the example is of the following sentence: “Reason me choose study in Purwokerto is for getting experience”. The words in italics are expressions interfered by the Indonesian concept: “Alasan saya memilih belajar di Purwokerto adalah …” which then is translated into “Reason me choose study in Purwokerto is …”. This should be “The reason I chose to study in Purwokerto is …” or “My reason in choosing to study in Purwokerto is …”.

The next expression is also interfered by the Indonesian concept. The idea “Saya bingung” is just translated word to word into “I confused”. Bingung is an adjective. The correct pattern of the correct combination when combined with the subject needs a linking verb “am”. The correct sentence would go into: “I am confused”.

**Conclusion and Suggestion**

From the data analysis, it can be concluded that the grammatical interference of bahasa Indonesia into English can be classified into two main classifications. Those were grammatical interference on sentences and phrases. Grammatical interferences on sentence forms can also be classified into sub-classifications as those in the
following: sentence pattern $S + \text{Very} + \text{Verb} + \text{Object}$ (31.21%); sentence pattern of $\text{Noun} + \text{Adjective}$ (12.2%); pattern of unappropriate form (6.57%); sentence pattern of unintended or $\text{ketidaksengajaan}$ (5.3%); impersonal it sentence pattern (3.94%); and active-passive sentence pattern (3.94%).

Meanwhile, phrasal interference rose with 36.84% data and were classified into the following: unorderly arrangement (11.84%); adverb formation (5.3%); inappropriate number (9.2%); and miscellaneous (5%).

Furthermore, the grammatical factor which influenced the Indonesian interference towards the English learning, both spoken and written, was the fact that the English language learners had little imposure and practice that made them difficult to internalize English linguistic knowledge they learned. Therefore, to make the English grammar internalize in the students’ mind-set, they have to get much linguistic imposures, both in spoken and written environment.

**References**

The fact that English is considered and treated as a foreign language in Indonesia could be the core reason for all of these mishaps. Social and formal environments do not obviously give encouragements to lead the success of this learning.
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