

Vol. 4 No. 1, January 2020

e-ISSN 2548-8430

p-ISSN 2548-8422



International Journal of Indonesian Education and Teaching

IJIET

Published by
Institute for Research and Community Services
Sanata Dharma University

International Journal
of Indonesian Education and Teaching

Vol. 4

No. 1

Pages 1-167

e-ISSN 2548-8430

p-ISSN 2548-8422



Table of Contents

IMPLEMENTING GENRE PEDAGOGY IN CONTENT INSTRUCTION: LESSONS FROM SWEDEN Robert Walldén.....	1
CULTURAL MANAGEMENT EDUCATION IN SOUTHEAST ASIA Benny Lim, Shaw Hong Ser.....	10
PARENTAL EXPECTATIONS AND PRIMARY EDUCATION CURRICULUM IN NEPAL Rajendra Kumar Shah.....	26
HYPOTHETICAL APPROACHES TO SCAFFOLDING FOR LEARNING OF STUDIO PAINTINGS Michael Olubunmi Odewumi.....	45
A BORDERLAND DISCOURSE ANALYSIS ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE STUDENTS AND GRADUATES TEACHING BIPA Thomas Wahyu Prabowo Mukti.....	56
CULTURAL FACTORS IN LEARNING MATHEMATICS: THE CASE ON ACHIEVEMENT LEVEL AMONG BADJAO STUDENTS Leomarich Casinillo, Maria Cecilia Camulte, Darwin Raagas, Teresita Riña.....	71
ANALYSIS OF THE COMPETENCY OF FRESH GRADUATED HIGHER EDUCATION IN SUPPORTING INDUSTRIAL ERA 4.0 Edy Sahputra Sitepu, Agus Edy Rangkuti, Ferry Fachrizal.....	82
STUDENT ATTITUDES TOWARDS NATURAL SCIENCE: REVIEW OF PLEASURES AND CAREER INTERESTS AT JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL 17 JAMBI CITY Nirmala Sari, Erika Erika, Neldawati Neldawati.....	102
PERSONALITY TRAITS, MOTIVATIONAL ORIENTATIONS AND SPEAKING ACHIEVEMENT IN THE EFL CONTEXT Sefvirda Arniatika.....	110
REDEFINING IDENTITY: THE INTERNATIONAL SCHOOL LANGUAGE TEACHERS' NARRATIVES OF THE PAST AND PRESENT ENTERPRISE Veronika Swanti.....	121
PRIMARY TEACHERS AND CULTURAL – BASED ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS; VOICES, ISSUES, AND DEMANDS Agci Hikmawati, Rindu Handayani.....	133
FACTORS AFFECTING PERFORMANCE OF COURSE CENTER MANAGEMENT IN URBAN AREAS Anwar Sanusi, Victor Wiley, Thomas Lucas.....	142
DEVELOPMENT OF POETRY TEACHING MATERIALS BASED ON CREATIVE PROCESS Suherli Kusmana.....	155



International Journal of Indonesian Education and Teaching (IJJET) is published by the Institute for Research and Community Services of Sanata Dharma University twice a year: in January and July. This journal publishes research and conceptual articles on education and teaching.

Editor in-Chief

Paul Suparno, S.J.

Associate Editors

M. Andy Rudhito

C. Teguh Dalyono

M.M. Sri Hastuti

Executive Editors

Yuliana Setiyaningsih

Barli Bram

L. Sumarni

Rishe Purnama Dewi

Editorial Review Board

Ali Saukah	Malang State University, Malang
Rudi Santosa	Widya Mandala University, Madiun
J. Sudarminta	Driyarkara School of Philosophy, Jakarta
A. Supratignya	Sanata Dharma University, Yogyakarta
Marilyn Susman	Loyola University Chicago, United States of America
Wanty Widjaya	Deakin University, Australia
Wuri Soedjatmiko	Widya Mandala University, Surabaya

Office Secretaries

Agnes Lusia Budi Asri

Robertus Marsidiq

Editorial Address

Faculty of Teacher Training and Education (FKIP)

Universitas Sanata Dharma

Jl. Affandi, Tromol Pos 29, Mrican, Yogyakarta 55002, Indonesia

Telephone (0274) 513301, 515352, Fax (0274) 562383

Email: ijjet@usd.ac.id

Website: <http://e-journal.usd.ac.id/index.php/IJJET>



International Journal of Indonesian Education and Teaching
<http://e-journal.usd.ac.id/index.php/IJJET>
Sanata Dharma University, Yogyakarta, Indonesia

IMPLEMENTING GENRE PEDAGOGY IN CONTENT INSTRUCTION: LESSONS FROM SWEDEN

Robert Walldén

Malmö University, Sweden

robert.wallden@mau.se

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.24071/ijiet.2020.040101>

received 20 July 2019; accepted 18 November 2019

Abstract

Drawing upon studies conducted in Sweden, this article discusses possibilities and limits of implementing genre pedagogy in content instruction. The wider educational concern is how knowledge of genre and language can be used to promote a deeper engagement with content knowledge. The linguistic theory underpinning genre pedagogy and the pedagogic-practical teaching/learning cycle is explained. Then, two empirical studies of genre-based teaching in Geography in Grade 6 are reviewed, with a particular focus on the texts used as models for the students' own writing. The studies show two contrasting sides of genre-based intervention: one in which generic structures and other features of texts are used productively to engage with content knowledge and one in which attention to generic structure and logical connections comes at the expense of the negotiation of content knowledge. The article concludes with recommendations for implementing genre pedagogy.

Keywords: disciplinary literacy, geography teaching, elementary school, systemic-functional linguistics, second language instruction

Introduction

The aim of this paper is to discuss limits and possibilities of implementing genre pedagogy in content instruction. The overarching educational concern to be addressed is how knowledge about language can promote a deeper engagement with instructional content. After a general introduction to the concept of genre pedagogy, the discussion will draw upon studies and interventions conducted in Sweden pertaining to the teaching of Geography in Grade 6.

Genre pedagogy, or genre-based instruction, originated in Australia during the 1980's in order to enhance the prospects of educational achievement among marginalized groups (Rothery, 1996; Feez, 2002; Rose & Martin, 2012). This pedagogy was also a reaction to prevalent progressivist or constructivist approaches, which were accused of obfuscating what needed to be learnt by using unclear criteria, vague boundaries between disciplinary domains and non-interventionist teaching approaches. Genre pedagogy was promoted as a subversive visible pedagogy which, based on Bernstein's sociology of education (Bernstein, 1990/2003, 2000) and Systemic-Functional Linguistics (SFL)

(Halliday & Mathiessen, 2014), sought to make implicit demands for school achievement explicit through the teaching of linguistically defined genres (Rose & Martin, 2012; Martin, 1999). In Sweden, genre pedagogy has gained considerable traction in the last decade in promoting second language learners' prospects of developing content knowledge and linguistic skills simultaneously (Walldén, 2019a). The overall instructional aim is to combine high levels of support with high levels of cognitive challenge (Mariani, 1997; Gibbons, 2006). In this paper, I will explain the theory behind genre pedagogy and, drawing upon two classroom studies, discuss examples of successful and less successful implementations.

Genre theory

To give a comprehensive view of the linguistic theory underpinning genre pedagogy is beyond the scope of this paper. However, I will draw attention to salient points relevant to the following discussion.

According to Martin's genre theory (Martin & Rose, 2008; Martin, 1992; 2001), *genre* is defined as a staged, goal-oriented social process. Crucially, genres are understood in terms of internal features rather than external ones pertaining to the rhetorical situation (Feez, 2002; Paltridge, 2014). Therefore, the names of the *genres* reflect broad communicative purposes, such as *arguments* and *explanations*. The *staged* part of Martin's definition concerns the generic structures. For example, discussion (a subgenre of argument) can be expected to adhere to the following structure: introduction of the *issue*, review of competing *sides* and a concluding *position statement* (Christie & Derewianka, 2010). Similarly, a *factorial explanation* (a subgenre of explanation) starts with the introduction of a phenomenon and moves on through the *explanation* of different *factors* leading up to said phenomenon (Martin & Rose, 2008).

Generic structures such as these can be used for dealing productively with content knowledge in different disciplines. However, Martin's theory has been criticized for locking communicative goals to specific generic structures and thus limiting the possibilities of expression (Holmberg, 2012; Hasan, 1995/2016; Freedman, 1994; Watkins, 1999). It certainly seems possible to advance an argument by drawing upon non-argumentative generic structures, such as explanations or narratives. Such concerns, which are also frequently expressed in Sweden (Liberg, Wiksten Folkeryd & af Geijerstam, 2012; Liberg, 2008; Hertzberg, 2006), seem to overlook the fact that Martin describes the relationship between generic structure and communicative purpose as probabilistic rather than deterministic (Martin, 2001). Moreover, Martin uses the term contextual metaphor to describe precisely how a certain generic structure can be used to fulfill a less typical communicative purpose (Martin & Rose, 2008).

It is also crucial to note that, according to Martin's theory, generic structure is only a part of what constitutes a genre. Using a genre successfully also involves linguistic choices relating to the *register* variables of *field*, *tenor* and *mode* (Rose & Martin, 2012; Martin & Rose, 2008; Martin, 2001). *Field* concerns the *experiential* content of the discourse as well as logical connections. In disciplinary writing, students are often required to handle technical and abstract vocabulary, and to describe relevant processes and activities pertaining to the disciplinary

domain explored. The linguistic category of *grammatical metaphor* is an important resource in accomplishing this. It involves experiential metaphors, which transform processes (such as “to pollute”) into things (“pollution”) or qualities (“polluted”), and logical metaphors which expresses logical connections as things (e.g. “result”, “consequence”) or prepositional phrases (e.g. “due to”) instead of as conjunctions (e.g. “because”). Grammatical metaphors are necessary for producing the kind of heavily nominalized discourse integral to engaging with knowledge in different disciplines (Martin, 1990/1993; Martin, 2009, 2013).

Disciplinary literacy often requires the students to develop an expert voice by communicating knowledge in an authoritative fashion. While employing abstract and technical language and formulating logical relations are important, there are also choices related to the *register* variable of *tenor*: how the text reflects and construes the relationship between writer and recipient. For example, an expert voice likely involves the use of declaratives rather than questions and exclamations, and the use of *objective modality* (“it seems necessary to”) or passive voice (“X is recommended to”) rather than more subjective wordings (“I think it’s important to”, “X should”) (Schleppegrell, 2004; Martin & White, 2005). Another convention in more distanced for of wiring is restricted use of personal pronouns in first and second person. Finally, a measured use of evaluative language can be expected to either promote or undermine the perspective discussed in a text (e.g. “a *valid* objection”, “a *far-fetched* conclusion”) or to construct a moral position in an explanation (“a *dire* consequence”) (Christie & Derewianka, 2010; Martin & White, 2005). Of course, the grade in which the instructions takes place must be considered: what constitutes a weak expert voice in later years of schooling might pass as entirely appropriate in earlier years (Christie & Derewianka, 2010). The important point is that the teaching offers opportunities for all students to expand their meaning-making capabilities in ways which are valued highly in the assessment of disciplinary writing.

As for *mode*, disciplinary literacy often requires that students regulate the information flow in their text in a predictable and planned manner. In discussions, marked *textual themes* can be used to guide the reader through the staging of the text: “On one hand...”, “On the other hand ...”, “In conclusion ...” (Martin & Rose, 2008; Christie & Derewianka, 2010). In explanations, theme progression can be used to promote coherence, e.g.: “Pollution can *also be a result of natural disasters*. For example, hurricanes often lead to water contamination from sewage.” In such cases, the news (or rheme) of the preceding clause becomes the theme of the next (Martin, 1992; Schleppegrell, 2004). Also central to the information flow is how technical/abstract wordings are introduced, unpacked and re-packed throughout the text and the overall staged structure of the text (Martin, 2013).

Linguistic choices relating to *register* variables do not correlate as strongly to *genre* as generic structures, but they should be seen as equally important for the production and comprehension of disciplinary discourse. In Martin’s theory, *genre* works on a higher level of abstraction than *register* and coordinates other linguistic resources to achieve communicative goals (Martin, 1992).

Putting Genre Pedagogy into Practice: the Teaching/Learning Cycle

Genre-based teaching is commonly based on a process called the *teaching/learning cycle* (TLC) (Rothery, 1996; Callaghan & Rothery, 1988). In the version of the TLC which has gained traction in Sweden, instruction is organized in four phases: *building field knowledge, deconstruction and modelling of target genre exemplars, joint construction of a target genre exemplar and individual construction of text*. While the first phase constitutes an initial and open-ended exploration of the knowledge field, the phases of deconstruction and joint construction are characterized by the identification and joint application of such linguistic features as discussed in the previous section. The TLC ensures a high degree of scaffolding before the students are asked to construct an individual text. It is also an organizing principle used by the teachers in the studies discussed below.

Method

The discussion of different implementations of genre pedagogy will draw upon two empirical studies of genre-based teaching: The first study is a licentiate thesis by Sellgren (Sellgren, 2011). It is based on action research and explores the author's own genre-based teaching in Grade 6 during a curriculum area about factorial explanations in Geography. The findings will be juxtaposed with those of my own PhD thesis (Walldén, 2019a). The materials relevant to the present article were gathered through observations and voice recordings during a curriculum area about maps and population in Grade 6 which lasted for seven weeks. The participant teacher employed genre-based pedagogy, integrating the subjects Geography and Swedish as a Second Language. The empirical findings are analyzed extensively in the thesis and in another article accepted for publication (Walldén, 2009b). Thus, in the present article I will restrict myself to discuss linguistic features of the texts used in this curriculum area. Since both of the mentioned studies focus on genre-based teaching of second language learners in Grade 6, they make for an interesting comparison. The analysis of the texts will draw upon the systemic-functional theoretical constructs introduced in the previous section. The texts cited have been translated from Swedish to English by the author of this article.

Findings and Discussion

Below, an excerpt of a textbook explanation (Haraldsson, Karlsson & Molin, 2008) used in Sellgren's study is shown. It was used for learning about pollution in the relevant curriculum area, and also constituted a model in the deconstruction phase (Sellgren, 2011).

The Baltic Sea currently is one of the world's most polluted seas. Fertilizers from agriculture, exhaust gases from traffic and a lack of sewage treatment works are some of the causes. Since the Baltic Sea is an inland sea, it also takes a long time before the water is

exchanged. This makes the pollution which is released there remain for longer. (p 37)

Conforming to the generic structure of factorial explanations, the text introduces the *phenomenon* (pollution of the Baltic Sea) and explains relevant *factors*. Thus, the generic structure is used for introduction the concept of pollution and unpacking it in more concrete terms. The text also includes technical language (e.g. “pollution”, “exhaust gases”, “inland sea”) and some instances of logical metaphors: “some of the *causes*”, “This *makes* ...”. The text construes an authoritative expert voice and seems a suitable model for students’ writing in Grade 6. Next, an excerpt of a jointly constructed text is shown (Sellgren, 2011).

The Baltic Sea is a threatened sea and one of the world’s most polluted seas. It is a dirty sea because of us humans. One of the major causes of the problem is industries releasing harmful substances which destroy the environment, e.g. carbon dioxide and toxic substances which go straight into the sea through streams and rivers. (p 46)

Some instances of repetition (e.g. ”sea”), everyday vocabulary (e.g. “dirty”), personal pronouns (“us”) and repeated hypotaxis (“which ... which ...”) causes this jointly constructed text to appear less planned, technical and authoritative than the textbook explanation. However, this is to be expected as the current text emerged as a product of teacher-directed whole-class interaction and was likely intended to more closely mirror the kind of writing attainable by the students. It still includes technical language (“threatened sea”, “carbon dioxide”) and instances of logical metaphors (“causes”) and uses the generic structure in a similar manner to the textbook version. As a jointly constructed model before the students’ individual construction of text, it has clear merits. Most importantly, the generic structure and other linguistic features of factorial explanations are used productively to engage with content knowledge.

The findings of my own thesis give a contrasting perspective on genre-based interventions. At the initial phase of building field knowledge, there was a clear focus on technical terms relevant to the field of geography such as “climate zones”, “precipitation” and “terrains” (Walldén, 2019). There were also abstract terms related to living conditions such as “undernourishment” and “infant mortality rates”. However, meanings of these terms and concepts were mediated through spoken language and visual resources rather than texts. This is not unexpected in an initial phase of building field knowledge, and, as the teaching progressed into phases of deconstruction and joint construction, there was an expected shift to written texts. These texts, however, did not draw upon the content knowledge previously negotiated.

The target genre chosen by the teacher was the discussion genre. An excerpt from the first model text she introduced is shown below. In this text, the writer discusses the advantages and disadvantages of moving to a city in northern

Sweden. The excerpt shows the two concluding stages of the text: (contrasting) side and position statement.

On the other hand, it is dark and cold for a big part of the year. It is usually between 20 and 30 degrees below zero in January and February. Before the winter really gets going and for big parts of spring, it is slippery for both cars and pedestrians. It is far up in Sweden, so there are not many friends who will want to come for a visit.

I think it will be difficult for me to get used to cold and dark Luleå. If I move, it will depend on how good a job offer I get. A good job could offer secur[ity] and make it easier for me to appreciate Luleå.

The text, consisting mostly of everyday vocabulary, offers little in the way of technicality and abstraction. In addition, the subjective orientation of the text (“I think”, “easier for me”) is less conducive for modelling an expert voice. Even if the text moves through the expected stages of discussions, it does not seem to serve the purpose of advancing an argument in order to convince a recipient. Rather, the writer appears preoccupied with a personal choice.

Apart from modelling a potentially useful generic structure, the text also employs textual themes to guide the reader through the stages: “on the one hand ...”, “on the other hand ...”. These logical connections are also prioritised when the teacher leads a deconstruction of the text. Textual themes are valuable resources for organizing discourse in a planned manner according to what is required in written modes of communication, but in this case, they are not used to advance an argument or to engage with content knowledge.

A similar priority in instruction is evident in a jointly constructed text. The topic is whether mobile phones should be allowed during school breaks. As before, the two final stages are shown.

On the other hand, it is not good to use mobile phones during breaks since you could get pointed out on social media which could cause students to feel bullied.

There both advantages and disadvantages with using mobile phones during breaks. I have concluded that I think it is a good thing to use mobile phones during breaks.

The use of the textual theme “on the other hand” re-occurs here, and the final stage which sums up the discussion is also marked clearly (“There are both ...”). There is also an instance of grammatical metaphor (“cause”) and some abstract wordings (“pointed out on social media”). However, this text has even less relevance to content knowledge in geography. In addition, the position statement is not explicitly based on the previous discussion. Just as in the model text, the claims are grounded in the subjectivity of the writer (“I have concluded”... “I think”) with little sign of trying to convince a recipient.

In this curriculum area, the teacher also wanted the students to use “linking words” to engage in “developed reasoning”. In this sense, the students were also asked to draw upon features of explanations. On one occasion, the teacher constructed criteria for reasoning together with the students. The wording which illustrated “well-developed” reasoning is shown below.

There is not a lot of food in Ethiopia *because* it is a poor country.
This causes many to die *because* there are not any medicines.

During a lesson which was not observed, the students had watched a movie about living conditions in Ethiopia. My markings of logical connections reflect the ones made by the teachers herself as she wrote down the students’ suggestions on the whiteboard. While the wording certainly uses numerous logical connections, including a logical metaphor (“causes”), it does not seem coherent and hardly reflects content knowledge about living conditions in Ethiopia.

By the end of the curriculum area, the students were asked to choose a country from a limited set and write a discussion about whether they would like to live there. Thus, they were required to infuse knowledge about the discussion genre with content knowledge about living conditions. However, and in contrast to Sellgren’s study, the modelling of genre structure and logical connections during the phases of deconstruction and joint construction seemed to come at the expense of that content knowledge.

Conclusion

Based on the above studies, it is possible to give some recommendations for genre-based interventions in the teaching of content knowledge. First, it seems desirable to let explicit attention to features of genres and language emerge naturally from the need to engage with disciplinary discourse. In many cases, it can be preferable to depart from the register variable of field rather than from a certain generic structure. My doctoral study (Walldén, 2019a) showed that the discussion genre, which is often associated with quite advanced instances of disciplinary discourse (Martin & Rose, 2008; Christie & Derewianka, 2010; Coffin, 1997), can be trivialized if genre exemplars are tailored to accentuate the generic structure rather than employed for producing meaningful discourse. The generic structure should, as Martin (2001) himself points out, be seen as a probabilistic in relation to the communicative goal rather than deterministic and it only becomes a useful resource when coupled with other appropriate linguistic features.

The theoretical base of genre pedagogy is highly technical, and teachers who seek to implement genre pedagogy, and similar approaches, cannot be expected to grasp all of its complexities. However, I would argue that rudimentary knowledge about the register variables, and the linguistic features associated with them, is a necessary corrective to the restricting fixation on generic structure which can otherwise arise. Apart from field, the analysis of features relating to tenor was revealing as it divulged why some of the model texts failed to model expert voices and how to advance an argument. While it can be very useful to master certain

conventions for structuring texts, such as generic structures and textual themes, these features must be employed with a thorough understanding of the relevant field and what the text is to achieve in relation to the recipient.

References

- Bernstein, B. (1990). *The structuring of pedagogic discourse*. London: Routledge.
- Bernstein, B. (2000). *Pedagogy, symbolic control and identity: theory, research, critique* (rev. ed.). Oxford: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.
- Callaghan, M., & Rothery, J. (1988). *Teaching factual writing: A genre-based approach, the report of the DSP literacy project, Metropolitan East Region*. Erskineville: Metropolitan East Disadvantaged Schools Program.
- Christie, F., & Derewianka, B. (2010). *School discourse: Learning to write across the years of schooling*. London: Continuum.
- Coffin, C. (1997). Construing and giving value to the past: An investigation into secondary school history. In F. Christie & J. R. Martin (Eds.), *Genre and institutions: Social processes in the workplace and schools* (pp. 196-230). London: Continuum.
- Feez, S. (2002). Heritage and innovation in second language education. In A. Johns (Ed.), *Genre in the classroom: Multiple perspectives* (pp. 43-69). Mahwah N J: Erlbaum.
- Freedman, A. (1994). "Do as I say": The relationship between teaching and learning new genres. In A. Freedman & P. Medway (Eds.), *Genre and the new rhetoric* (pp. 191-210). London: Taylor & Francis.
- Gibbons, P. (2006). *Bridging discourses in the ESL classroom: Students, teachers and researchers*. London: Continuum.
- Halliday, M. A. K., & Mathiessen, C. (2014). *Halliday's introduction to functional grammar* (4th Ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Haraldsson, K., Karlsson, H., & Molin, L. (2008). *Koll på Europa*. Stockholm: Bonnier Utbildning.
- Hasan, R. (1995/2016). The conception of context in text 1995. In J. Webster (Ed.), *Context in the system and process of language* (pp. 131). Sheffield; Bristol: Equinox.
- Hertzberg, F. (2006). Genreskriving under senare skolor: Att berätta räcker inte. In L. Bjar (Ed.), (pp. 295-313). Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Holmberg, P. (2012). Skolskrivande, genre och register: En jämförelse mellan två systemisk-funktionella kontextmodeller. In T. Hestbaek Andersen & M. Boeriis (Eds.), *Nordisk socialemiotik: pædagogiske, multimodale og sprogvidenskabelige landvindinger* (pp. 221-245). Odense: Syddansk Universitetsforlag.
- Liberg, C. (2008). Genrepædagogik i ett didaktiskt perspektiv. In P. Juvonen (Ed.), *Språk och lärande. Rapport från ASLA:s höstsymposium, Stockholm, 7-8 november 2008* (pp. 11-26). Uppsala: ASLA.
- Liberg, C., Wiksten Folkeryd, J., & af Geijerstam, Å. (2012). Swedish – an updated school subject? *Education Inquiry*, 3(4), 471-492. doi:10.3402/edui.v3i4.22049

- Mariani, L. (1997). Teacher support and teacher challenge in promoting learner autonomy. *Perspectives, A Journal of TESOL-Italy*, XXIII(2).
- Martin, J. R. (1990/1993). Technicality and abstraction: Language for the creation of specialized texts. In M. A. K. Halliday & J. R. Martin (Eds.), *Writing science: Literacy and discursive power* (pp. 203-220). New York: RoutledgeFalmer.
- Martin, J. R. (1992). *English text: System and structure*. Philadelphia; Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.
- Martin, J. R. (1999). Mentoring semogenesis: 'genre based' literacy pedagogy. In F. Christie (Ed.), *Pedagogy and the shaping of consciousness: Linguistic and social processes* (pp. 123-155). London: Continuum.
- Martin, J. R. (2001). Language, register and genre. In A. Burns & C. Coffin (Eds.), *Analysing English in a global context: A reader* (pp. 151-166). London: Routledge.
- Martin, J. R. (2009). Construing knowledge: A functional linguistic perspective. In F. Christie & J. R. Martin (Eds.), *Language, power and pedagogy: Functional linguistic and sociological perspectives* (pp. 49-79). London: Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Martin, J. R. (2013). Embedded literacy: Knowledge as meaning. *Linguistics and Education*, 24(1), 23-37.
- Martin, J. R., & Rose, D. (2008). *Genre relations: Mapping culture*. London: Equinox.
- Martin, J. R., & White, P. R. R. (2005). *The language of evaluation: Appraisal in English*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Paltridge, B. (2002). Genre, text-type and the English for Academic Purposes (EAP). In A. Johns (Ed.), *Genre in the classroom: Multiple perspectives* (pp. 73-90). Mahwah N J: Erlbaum.
- Rose, D., & Martin, J. R. (2012). *Learning to write, reading to learn: Genre, knowledge and pedagogy in the Sydney school*. Sheffield: Equinox.
- Rothery, J. (1996). Making changes: Developing educational linguistics. In R. Hasan & G. Williams (Eds.), *Literacy in Society* (pp. 86-123). Harlow: Addison Wesley Longman Limited.
- Schleppegrell, M. J. (2004). *The language of schooling: A functional linguistics perspective*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Sellgren, M. (2011). *Den dubbla uppgiften: Tvåspråkiga elever i skolans mellanår arbetar med förklarande genre i SO*. Stockholm: Stockholm University.
- Walldén, R. (2019a). *Genom genrens lins: Pedagogisk kommunikation i tidigare skolor*. Malmö: Malmö University.
- Walldén, R. (2019b). Scaffolding or side-tracking? The role of knowledge about language in content instruction. *Linguistics and Education*, 54.
- Watkins, M. (1999). Policing the text: Structuralism's stranglehold on Australian language and literacy pedagogy. *Language and Education*, 13(2), 118-132.



CULTURAL MANAGEMENT EDUCATION IN SOUTHEAST ASIA

Benny Lim¹ and Shaw Hong Ser²

Berjaya University College, Malaysia¹ and Chulalongkorn University, Thailand²
drlimbenny@yahoo.com¹ and shawhongser@hotmail.com²

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.24071/ijiet.2020.040102>

received 7 November 2019; accepted 25 November 2019

Abstract

Cultural Management could be defined as the process of planning, organizing, leading, and controlling material and nonmaterial culture to meet predetermined goals and objectives. Areas under the umbrella of Cultural Management include Arts Management, Museum Management, Cultural Heritage and Tourism, Cultural and Creative Industries, and Design Management. Over the last two decades, there has also been a growing number of academic programmes befitting the umbrella of Cultural Management, offered at undergraduate and postgraduate levels by institutions of higher education in Southeast Asia. This paper explores the current state of Cultural Management education in Southeast Asia, and thereafter, highlights possible synergies to align with ASEAN's agenda. Several qualitative research methods were adopted, including content analysis, followed by thematic analysis, participant observations, and semi-structured interviews. This paper formally documents and discusses the Cultural Management curriculum of 10 Southeast Asian nations, using three key themes - top-down, bottom-up, and a combination of both top-down and bottom-up focus. Thereafter, the paper proposes two ways in which institutions of higher education in Southeast Asia could better synergize to meet the six strategies listed in the ASEAN Strategic Plan for Culture and Arts 2016-2025.

Keywords: cultural management, arts management, museum management, cultural and creative industries, cultural heritage and tourism, ASEAN

Introduction

Cultural Management could be defined by the two words that make up the term. 'Cultural' relates to what is understood as a shared experience by a particular group of people, defined by common material culture such as geographical location, monuments, daily functional items, as well as intangible nonmaterial culture, which includes traditional practices, rituals, religion, social habits, and the arts (Jowett, & Lavalley, 2007). On the other hand, 'Management' involves planning, organizing, leading, and controlling resources, with intention to meet specific goals (Lewis, Goodman, Fandt, & Michlitsch, 2006). Planning often includes analysis of the micro-environment, such as resource analysis, and the macro-environment, while organizing looks into clear allocation of authority and resources for the necessary tasks to meet the mission. The leading function

serves a step towards enhancing productivity through motivation, communication, and strategic management. Managers take on specific leadership traits to ensure that staff members carry out their tasks effectively and efficiently. Finally, good management requires constant review and control to ensure a working mechanism for continual improvement. Combining definitions of the two terms, Cultural Management could be defined as the process of planning, organizing, leading, and controlling material and nonmaterial culture to meet predetermined goals and objectives for common communities.

As the creative economy grows significantly in Asia, there are growing demands for talents serving the cultural and creative industries (Araya, 2010). Consequently, many institutions of higher education in the region offer academic programmes in the field of Cultural Management. In South Korea, Hanyang University offers an MBA in arts, culture and entertainment, while Kyung Hee University offers both Bachelor's and Master's programmes in arts and cultural management. Other prominent programmes include Keio University's Master in Arts Management in Japan, the Chinese University of Hong Kong's Master in Cultural Management, and the National Taiwan University of Arts' Master and Doctoral programmes in Arts Management and Cultural Policy. In addition to these distinctive universities, many other institutions of higher education in Asia have also established research and education platforms to cultivate professional graduates for the rapidly developing cultural and creative industries. Zooming into Southeast Asia, there has been a growing number of academic programmes in relation to Cultural Management in the last 20 years, offered at undergraduate and postgraduate levels by institutions of higher education. Using top-down/ bottom-up management approaches, this research seeks to explore the current state of Cultural Management education in Southeast Asia, and thereafter, highlights possible synergies with the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) agenda, especially in aligning to the initiatives listed in the ASEAN Strategic Plan for Culture and Arts 2016-2025 (ASCC).

Cultural Management as an Umbrella Term

Institutions of higher education across Southeast Asia have introduced Cultural Management programmes at various qualification levels to prepare graduates for the future of the creative and cultural sectors. As an academic discipline, Cultural Management goes beyond the mere study of past and existing cultural resources. More so, Cultural Management is about managing material and nonmaterial culture of the past, present, and even the likely future. As Cultural Management is a broad discipline, it is not uncommon for respective institutions to offer academic programmes focusing on certain specific areas. Below is a list of possible areas under the umbrella of Cultural Management. It is important to stress that these areas may overlap one another at times.

Arts Management

Generally, there are three distinct groups of people working in the arts - creative (artistic), technical, and administrative. Although each has separate duties and responsibilities, they often need to work closely together in a matrix setting (Byrnes, 2014). The concept of managing the arts is not exactly new but it has

certainly redefined itself over the years – from church-managed performances during the medieval period, to the management of state-owned arts facilities in the 17th century, and eventually to the availability of government funding giving rise to the arts manager in the 20th century (Byrnes, 2014). Today, managing the arts could be a form of permanent employment, be it working for the government or profit/ non-profit arts organizations. Managing the arts is no simple feat – the working hours are long and the remuneration is generally low, especially in Southeast Asia, where the arts have yet to be understood by many. As such, audience development becomes an important function of arts management. The arts manager also works closely with the artistic leadership team to put forward clear strategic and operational plans for the organization. For a plan to be effective, the arts manager has to consider the current state of arts and cultural policies, and the relationships between the arts, artists, and the public.. Research is also a much-needed component of strategic planning, as arts managers could gain insights into the development and shifts of the arts in the future. It also facilitates research into future audiences and the ways in which they could be exposed to the arts. The arts administrator also needs to be equipped with the knowledge of the art form(s) they are dealing with, to be more effective in their promotion, marketing, and fundraising efforts. With the arts attracting government support and/ or corporate sponsorship, arts administrators are obliged to be accountable to their stakeholders.

Museum Management

Museum Management looks into the strategic, operational planning and implementation of a museum. Besides having good management capabilities, which include marketing and fundraising, museum managers should have an awareness of current cultural policies and societal needs. Moreover, museums are ever-evolving, and getting more complex (Latham & Simmons, 2014). Many public museums started with direct subvention from the government. Most of the time, these public museums are being administered or operated to remain as an ideological institution (Harris, 2002). Today, public museums face a number of challenges. First, the decrease in public funding means that these museums will need to find alternative ways to finance their day-to-day operations (Janes, 2013). Second, there are also growing competitions from private museums, usually supported by well-endowed donors, which bring in stellar blockbuster exhibitions, with highly-priced admission tickets. Third, as a society becomes more pluralistic, there are calls for public museums to respond more adequately to the different needs of the society. Museums today, be it public or private, are being pushed into the marketplace (Stevens, 2019). More museums are starting to drive visitor numbers and initiate audience engagement activities, alongside their existing education and outreach programmes. In fact, museums are shifting towards a hybrid, showing characteristics of both public and private museums (Walker, 2019). From a management perspective, good leadership is essential to handle all these complex shifts and changes within the museum sector.

Cultural Heritage and Tourism

According to the World Travel Tourism Council's (WTTC) Economic Impact Research in 2019, travel and tourism was responsible for the creation of 319

million jobs worldwide, with an expectation to grow another 100 million in the next 10 years. The travel and tourism sector as a whole grew at 3.9%, above the average global economy of 3.2%. As one of the major pillars of the tourism industry, Cultural Heritage Tourism (a.k.a. cultural tourism or heritage tourism) is oriented towards the cultural heritage of the location where tourism activities take place. The National Trust for Historic Preservation defines cultural heritage tourism as “travelling to experience the places, artefacts and activities that authentically represent the stories and people of the past and heritage tourism can include cultural, historic and natural resources” (Bassetta, Fatta, & Manti, 2017). According to OECD (2009), cultural tourism is one of the largest-growing global tourism markets, and is increasingly being considered when promoting destinations, and enhancing the nation’s competitiveness and attractions.

As one of the most tourist-friendly destinations, Southeast Asia's tourism industry is one of the fastest-growing in the world. Tourist arrivals increased at an average of 8% per year from 2005 to 2016 (UNWTO / GTERC, 2017). Majority of these nations are relying on their rich cultural and natural resources to appeal to tourists. Cultural Heritage Tourism has been strategically manifested through a wealth of heritage sites, historical monuments, colorful festivals, exotic cuisines etc. Renowned historical locations such as Siem Reap in Cambodia, Luang Prabang in Laos, Borobudur in Indonesia, and Ayutthaya in Thailand are developing their cultural resources as a unique selling point and comparative advantages in the cultural heritage tourism markets. According to Professor Emeritus Dr. Surapone Virulrak of Chulalongkorn University (personal communication, 2018), the role of higher education in Cultural Heritage Tourism is to equip students with the knowledge of culture and heritage, including their relations and applications to promote sustainable development of both cultural and tourism sectors. Hence, every country’s approach towards Cultural Heritage Tourism education must be tailor-made to accommodate the needs of cultural development in the nation’s unique context.

Cultural and Creative Industries

In 1997, a newly elected government led by Prime Minister Tony Blair in the United Kingdom (UK) published the *Creative Industries – Mapping Document 1998*, which listed 13 areas of activity as potential for wealth creation through the generation of intellectual property (Newbiggin, 2014). Since then, the Mapping Document 1998 has served as a blueprint for both the government and creative workers/ organizations to boost the development of creative industries. UK’s model of creative industries has certainly influenced the adoption by many other cities and nations to develop their own Cultural and Creative Industries (Cunningham & Swift, 2019). Fiske (1992) explored the relation between culture and economics, and put forward the concept of culture economy. He thought that the intangible cultural elements of a commodity, such as its symbolic system and beauty value, are more important than the commodity itself. Creativity is the tool to input various cultural elements into commodities. The richer the cultural elements of a commodity, the greater its economic values. Simply said, the economic power of culture is focused on creative industry. The development of cultural and creative economy is now one of the major economic frontiers and

political projects of many Southeast Asian nations. With the major government initiatives to develop the creative industries, the creative cluster is of great importance in the nation's economy.

Design Management

According to the Design Management Institute, Design Management is the business side of design, and the term comprises of almost every key aspect related to business development, from strategic design, products and services design, to customer engagement. Meanwhile, in the context of creative industries, Design Management could be understood as the integration between design and business management for the purpose of design-driven economic development. Although still a new area of academic study, Design Management is a promising field that gradually grew and received much attention by an increasing number of institutions of higher education in Southeast Asia. Thus, in the foreseeable future, there would be more academic programmes in design management offered by universities in the region. In recent years, with the growing impact of the design economy, several institutions of higher education in Southeast Asia have been stimulated by the need to provide education and related training in the field of Design Management. In Singapore, two private design institutes offer courses in Design Management, namely Master of Arts in Design Management by Raffles Design Institute, and a Specialist Diploma programme by Design Management by First Media Design School.

Method

In order to present the current state of Cultural Management education in Southeast Asia, several qualitative research methodologies were adopted. First, content analysis was carried out on the curriculum objectives and outlines of 30 undergraduate and postgraduate academic programmes within the umbrella of Cultural Management in Southeast Asia. Using the top-down/ bottom-up management approach, the analysed data were subjected to the six-steps thematic analysis proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006), and were eventually categorized into three key themes as the main framework for further analysis and discussions. Besides the content analysis, the researchers also visited 10 Southeast Asian nations between 2015 and 2019 to understand the arts and cultural situation of each country. Participant observation is a form of empirical studies, through the process of fieldwork in a non-intrusive manner (Perez, 2019). During each visit, the researchers also communicated informally with different stakeholders. Finally, a series of in-depth, semi-structured interviews were carried out with scholars, who are familiar with the cultural developments of different Southeast Asian nations, including the role of ASEAN in these developments. A qualitative interview is a good choice when the goal is to obtain understanding through detailed examples and rich narratives (Bates, Droste, Cuba & Swingle, 2008).

Current State of Cultural Management Education in Southeast Asia

“Cultural Management is a complex and exciting discipline. With knowledge and administrative skills in managing the arts and culture,

graduates of the discipline are prepared for fulfilling careers in creative enterprises and cultural organizations... the idea of cultural industries and the cultural economy has changed very quickly in the last 10 years. Therefore, Cultural Management programmes need to be updated to truly suit the needs of cultural industries and deal with the new challenges”

(Interview with Virulrak, 2018)

The academic focus of Cultural Management curriculum in Southeast Asia could broadly be categorized into three key themes, i.e., top-down focused, bottom-up focused, and a combination of both top-down and bottom-up. Top-down approach suggests that the Cultural Management curriculum studies explores governmental agenda and cultural policies. Usually, these academic programmes have specific social functions, and consider arts and culture as important tools to address social issues, as well as shape and build communities. On the other hand, while it is important to ensure social enhancement of its people, the government’s developmental goals should also be achieved in the process. Hence, some of these top-down focused curricula in Cultural Management also covers the importance of economic impacts. A curriculum is bottom-up when the content of the programme focuses on building the necessary competencies to manage profit and non-profit non-governmental cultural activities and organizations. Most of the time, these programmes are economic-driven, preparing students to contribute effectively to the creative economy. Though economic-driven, a few bottom-up curricula also include the social functions of arts and culture to society and communities. Last but not least, some curriculum exposes students to both top-down and bottom-up perspectives. The following sections examine the current state of Cultural Management education in different Southeast Asian nations.

Brunei Darussalam

Brunei is the least populated nation with the second highest GDP per capita in Southeast Asia. The University of Brunei Darussalam (UBD) is the largest and most reputable university in the country, and offers a comprehensive list of programmes via its 19 faculties and institutes. In 2017, UBD launches Brunei’s first Bachelor programme in Design and Creative Industries. As the programme name suggests, it focuses on the strategic management of design outputs that contribute to the diversification of the Bruneian economy, social cohesion, and human capital development through job creation. The existence of a Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sports is a sign of Brunei’s recognition of the importance of cultural policies, especially the upkeep and promotion of Brunei Malay and Islamic culture, as informed by the monarchy. The ministry also manages several museums under the Department of Museum, with the mission to preserve the nation’s cultural heritage. Yet, with no programmes focusing on cultural policies and museum management, there seems to be a lack of top-down focused Cultural Management programmes in Brunei. While the Sultan Sharif Ali Islamic University of Brunei currently prepares students adequately on the contextual knowledge of Brunei’s heritage through its programmes in Islamic History and Civilisation, these programmes do not prepare students to frame discourses on

cultural policies and to undertake studies in curatorial, conservation, educational programmes, and other management/ administrative work in the museum context. Given Brunei's rich cultural resources, it seems like a missed opportunity that no institutions offer academic studies in Cultural Heritage Tourism.

Cambodia

Established in 1917, the Royal University of Fine Arts in Phnom Penh has been a key educational institution designed to provide professional training for the arts and cultural sectors in Cambodia. The university develops its curriculum in line with the Ministry of Culture and Fine Arts initiatives to develop talents for the arts and cultural industries. The College of Archaeology offers undergraduate and postgraduate programmes in cultural heritage conservation and development. These programmes educate students in the management of cultural heritage and prepare students for practice in the field of heritage conservation. Meanwhile, the Royal University of Phnom Penh is another tertiary educational institution that offers a Cultural Management related programme. Under its Social Sciences and Humanities faculty, the Department of Tourism offers an interdisciplinary postgraduate programme in Tourism and Resource Management. This top-down programme covers various aspects of tourism studies, and specific considerations have been given to rural development, culture and heritage management, natural resource management, as well as community and sustainable development. According to Dolla Soy, Senior Lecturer of the University of Cambodia, the country is home to two world-famous UNESCO World Heritage Sites, namely Angkor Wat and Preah Vihear. It comes as no surprise that Cultural Management education in Cambodia is geared toward heritage conservation and development. Soy also added that education in Cultural Management is still a very new concept to Cambodia, and is currently focused on producing culturalists with contextual knowledge of cultural heritage, rather than preparing managerial professionals for the arts and cultural industries.

Indonesia

Indonesia is the biggest country with the largest economy in Southeast Asia. Since President Jokowi took office in 2014, several initiatives on creative industries have been rolled out. The Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy was renamed as the Ministry of Tourism, and matters on Indonesia's creative industries was moved out of the ministry. It is worth mentioning that the separation of the creative sectors from the Ministry of Tourism did not include cultural tourism, which remains an important function of the Ministry. On the other hand, a separate directorate, Indonesia Creative Economy Agency (Bekraf), was formed to specifically manage the creative industries. The agency's mission is to ensure that the creative industries contribute to the economy effectively and efficiently. A total of 16 sub-sectors have been identified by the agency to be managed and developed, amongst which includes arts, performing arts, design, movies and animation, culinary, and so forth (Santoso, 2018). Indonesia Institute of the Arts in Yogyakarta (ISI) is the most comprehensive arts institution in Indonesia, and offers a postgraduate qualification in Arts and Cultural Management with three very specific concentrations - Culture and Tourism Management, Performing Arts Management, and Visual Arts Management,

covering two out of the 16 sub-sectors identified by Bekraf, as well as Cultural Tourism. This programme strikes a good balance between top-down and bottom-up perspectives. Another relevant programme is the MBA in Creative and Cultural Entrepreneurship offered by the Institute of Technology Bandung. As an MBA programme, it has a strong focus on business and return of investments This is evident in their pool of industry experts as faculty members and advisers. This bottom-up programme is driven mainly by business management modules, alongside several arts, design, and creativity subjects.

Laos

The National University of Laos was founded in 1996, with aims to be an institution of excellence in higher education, contributing to nation building through research and cultural preservation. Within the Faculty of Social Sciences, the Department of History and Anthropology offers a Bachelor programme in Archaeology and Cultural Resources Management. The top-down curriculum prepares graduates for the cultural resource management sector in Laos. The programme also offers a package of courses, including Laos Studies, History and Religion, History of Arts, Mapping Map, and Dhramma Letters to provide knowledge, skills, and experiences needed in the field of archaeology and cultural resource management. Currently, the ancient city of Luang Prabang and the pre-Angkorian temple complex of Wat Phou were listed as UNESCO World Heritage Sites in 1995 and 2001 respectively. Since 2011, Laos has taken part in the regional capacity-building programme on intangible cultural heritage, supervised by UNESCO to collect, research, and safeguard Laos intangible cultural heritage. According to Hommala Phensisanavong, Senior Lecturer of the university, Laos has rich culture, traditions, religions and ethnic diversity. These elements are cultural resources that have a great attraction for cultural tourism. Moving forward, preparing students to advance in the field of cultural resource management could be pivotal in the eventual development of Cultural Heritage and Tourism in Laos.

Malaysia

Malaysia has incorporated arts, culture and tourism into one Ministry, namely the Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture (MOTAC), with specific departments managing different aspects, such as museums, tourism, cultural heritage and arts. It is worth noting that one of the Ministry's objectives is to synergize arts, culture and heritage as a catalyst for Malaysia's tourism. Yet, there are very few actual initiatives at the ministerial level promoting this synergy. The unavailability of academic training and research in Cultural Heritage Tourism in higher education further weakens the focus on cultural tourism.

MOTAC also runs the Istana Budaya, the national theatre of Malaysia with over 1400 seats. Despite the existence of a national theatre, most of performing arts events are held in smaller-sized private venues, such as the Kuala Lumpur Performing Arts Centre and the Damansara Performing Arts Centre. One possible reason for this phenomenon could be the lack of arts audience in Malaysia, which poses a challenge for performing arts organizers to present their shows in a 1400-seat theatre.

Currently, there are two public institutions, namely University of Malaysia Sarawak (Unimas) and National Academy of Arts Culture and Heritage (ASWARA), offering academic programmes in arts management from both top-down and bottom-up approaches. However, Unimas is located in East Malaysia, which is a two-hour flight away from the main hubs of artistic activities - Klang Valley (which includes the capital city, Kuala Lumpur, and the areas surrounding it) and Penang. While ASWARA is located in Kuala Lumpur, its programme in Arts and Cultural Management is relatively new. Its actual impacts on the arts scene has to be further observed. In May 2010, the Sixth World Islamic Economic Forum hosted the *Marketplace of Creative Arts* in Malaysia. This forum was one of the first few landmark events in Malaysia that relates creative arts as a contributing factor to the economy (Lim, 2014). The Malaysian government has since put in place processes and strategies to nurture its creative content industry, with design and digital technology as key focus areas. Yet, design education in the early 2010s focused mainly on the production stage, with little considerations for post-production, i.e. Design Management potential in contributing to the creative economy (Lim, 2015). First City University College's Master of Design Management is the first graduate programme in Malaysia specialized in managing design. KDU University College's Diploma in Entrepreneurial Design is the first design studies in Malaysia that blended the creative design education with entrepreneurship training.

Myanmar

In Myanmar, Cultural Management curriculum is top-down in nature, with a strong focus on socio-economic development. According to the Myanmar's Ministry of Culture, the academic objectives of the National University of Arts and Culture is to preserve, promote and disseminate Myanmar cultural heritage, to provide research and training for the development of fine arts in Myanmar, and to help strengthen the spirit of nationalism and patriotism. The university offers a postgraduate diploma in Applied Archaeology and Museology. Meanwhile, in the University of Yangon, the Department of Archaeology offers both undergraduate and postgraduate programmes, with courses catering to archaeology, museology, cultural heritage conservation, and cultural tourism. Shi (2018) indicates that Myanmar's Hotels and Tourism Ministry is striving to promote eco-tourism, cultural tourism and community-based tourism in areas with rich cultural resources, including historical landscapes, rivers, lakes, beaches, islands and forests. With this new policy inducing the growth of cultural tourism, the demand for quality top-down Cultural Management education in Myanmar will certainly increase over time, especially in the field of cultural and natural resource management.

Philippines

The Department of Trade and Industry in the Philippines is committed to promoting the creative industries to the rest of Southeast Asia. Therefore, it is no surprise that many higher educational institutions are providing Cultural Management or relevant academic programmes to fulfil the needs of the rapidly changing creative industries. The Department of Fine Arts at Ateneo de Manila University offers a Bachelor programme in Arts Management, which caters

specifically to visual arts management. This top-down programme prepares graduates to work in museums and art institutions as curators, exhibition designers, and education administrators. The De La Salle–College of Saint Benilde Manila offers a balance of both top-down and bottom-up curriculum in Arts Management, in order to prepare students to be proficient in arts management techniques and technologies. The country is also blessed with cultural and natural resources for tourism, which are crucial for sustainable social and economic growth and income distribution (Catibog-Sinha, 2015). Students could pursue a Minor in Cultural Heritage Studies with the Department of Sociology and Anthropology of Ateneo de Manila University. The University of Santo Tomas also offers a postgraduate programme in Cultural Heritage Studies. Apart from universities, the Cultural Center of the Philippines has also been actively involved in the development of cultural management education. Since 1969, many educational programs related to the arts and cultural management have been administered by the center.

Singapore

Being the richest and most developed nation in Southeast Asia, Singapore has always enjoyed the reputation of a cosmopolitan city with global outlook. The city-state has thrived on almost no natural resources, depending on innovation and services of its highly skilled labor force. Since its independence in 1965, Singapore has undergone constant gentrification and renewal, where a lot of old buildings and structures have to make way for its rapid development (Lim, 2017). Today, Singapore is moving towards becoming a smart city with high-rise, intelligent buildings. Singapore has continually strived to become a creative city with global arts events, alongside a developed arts scene. Museums are well managed with strong collections and well-known touring exhibitions. Despite being the smallest country in the region, it should come as no surprise that Singapore has the most number of academic programmes related to Cultural Management, with a total of eight such programmes. Singapore's arts colleges, LASALLE College of the Arts (LASALLE) and Nanyang Academy of Fine Arts (NAFA) were the first institutions that developed full-fledged academic programmes in Arts Management, way before the polytechnics and universities came onboard. Both NAFA and Republic Polytechnic (RP) have included technical theatre into their Arts Management curriculum. This could be due to the growing number of newer and smaller arts organizations in Singapore, where arts managers are required to also take on the roles of production and stage management.

RP's programme is the only programme that is bottom-up in its curriculum, while the remaining programmes combine both top-down and bottom-up perspectives. The introduction of NTU's programme in Museum Studies and Curatorial Practices could be attributed to the rise of heritage projects within the museums, as well as the growing professionalism of the museum staff. With the exception of this programme, the rest of seven programmes focus mainly on Arts Management, albeit with different approaches. Singapore Management University's (SMU) Arts and Culture Management programme is an optional second major for Business, Law and Social Sciences students. The programme

focuses mainly on the management aspects of arts and culture, as well as discourses of arts and its management in relation to culture and society-at-large. Yet, students are actually free to choose from the limited modules on the list. Hence, it is possible that students might not be exposed to both top-down and bottom-up approaches in their actual curriculum. On the other hand, NAFA's Bachelor programme is a one-year top up programme, validated by the University of Essex (UK). This top-up programme focused mainly on management modules as well as industry and research projects, which adequately balance the strong focus on professional practice of NAFA's Diploma in Arts Management programme. LASALLE's Master of Arts in Arts and Cultural Management remains the only postgraduate programme in Arts Management in Singapore, with a strong focus on future trends and policies in the arts and cultural sectors.

Thailand

According to Professor Virulrak, Thai universities saw the need to offer studies in the field of Cultural Management since the 1990s. Particular attention was given to the management of Cultural Heritage Tourism and Cultural and Creative Industries in Thailand, and the Southeast Asian region. The Thailand 4.0 Blueprint launched in 2017 is an engine to propel new economic growth to move Thailand into becoming one of Southeast Asia's creative hubs within the next ten years. At present, there are five Thai universities offering undergraduate and postgraduate programmes in arts and cultural management, and when combined, covers all the areas under the umbrella of Cultural Management. With the exception of the top-down focused of Chulalongkorn University's Master of Arts in Cultural Management (MACM) programme, as well as Silpakorn University's Master's and Doctoral programmes in Architectural Heritage Management and Tourism, the remaining programmes maintain a balance between top-down and bottom-up contexts in its Cultural Management curriculum. Established in 1999, Chulalongkorn's MACM programme is the only international postgraduate program in Cultural Management to be taught in English. In 2010, the equivalent MACM programme taught in Thai was introduced to provide more opportunities for students from rural areas to pursue a postgraduate qualification in Cultural Management. Silpakorn's programmes aim to produce scholars of architectural conservation and related fields in cultural conservation and management.

Vietnam

Established in 1971, Vietnam National Institute of Culture and Arts Studies (VICAS) is a scientific institution under the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism. VICAS conducts research and scientific activities and provides top-down postgraduate training in arts and culture (ICHCAP, 2018). Over the years, VICAS has been one of the leading institutions in theoretical research and cultural policy development in Vietnam. According to the institute's Vice Director, Associate Professor Dr. Nguyen Thi Hien, VICAS's projects have more or less covered all aspects of cultural studies in Vietnam. In particular, the institute has collaborated with many international institutions, such as China Institute of Arts, University of Toronto, University of South Australia, and the Korea Institute of Culture and Tourism, to develop research projects and graduate programmes. At present, the institute offers the largest number of doctoral degrees in arts, culture,

and cultural tourism in accordance to state apportionment. In the course of just over a decade, more than a hundred VICAS's doctoral candidates have successfully defended their work, representing an outstanding achievement of Vietnamese higher education in providing important contributions to the cultural development of Vietnam. In 2016, the government of Vietnam identified 12 cultural sectors, namely advertising, architecture, software and entertaining games, handicrafts and fine arts, design, cinematography, publishing, fashion, performing arts, arts, photography and exhibitions, television and radio, as well as cultural tourism to foster the nation's cultural industries development. This development could give rise to more bottom-up programmes, focusing on economic prospects of Cultural Management.

Synergies with ASEAN's Objectives

The Association of Southeast Asian Nations, or ASEAN, was first established in 1967 with five member states. With the inclusion of Cambodia in 1999, the number of member states in ASEAN has since increased to ten. ASEAN is guided by the motto "One Vision, One Identity, One Community", which suggests its aims towards connectivity. This is evident in the rolling out of the ASCC, gearing towards a vision of common identity, through the preservation and conservation of ASEAN's cultural heritage and the promotion of culture for creativity, innovation and livelihood creation. Six key strategies were highlighted in the ASCC, namely, appreciation of ASEAN's histories, cultures, arts, traditions and values; emphasis on cultural threads that bind ASEAN; ensure cultural rights of all people in ASEAN; enhancement of economy through culture; dialogues between key stakeholders; being a proactive member of the global community. Cultural Management education could play an important role in affecting and shaping ASEAN's cultural development, including the cultural-led economic development. While it is impossible and meaningless to propose a singular ASEAN Cultural Management programme to respond to these six strategies, there are a couple of ways in which institutions of higher education in Southeast Asia could synergize to achieve these strategies.

One possible way to allow for appreciation of ASEAN's histories and cultures is for the institutions to collaborate on knowledge transfer projects, where the cultural ecology of each member state is consolidated and shared. Each national report should ideally cover all areas of focus, i.e., top-down and/ or bottom-up curriculum development, considering social and economic drivers. The combination of the 10 national reports, written or filmed, would provide academics and students with a good understanding of culture ecologies in ASEAN. The report could be updated biannually or once every three years. Another project would be a regular multidisciplinary cultural event/ festival organized by different host institution(s) of one ASEAN member state annually (or biannually). The festival will be completely managed by the students in the host institution(s). At the same time, students from the other non-host institutions should also participate in managing and facilitating their home country's artists/ arts organizations' participation in the festival. Organizing a festival has several advantages. First and foremost, it allows cultural management students to build up

various management capabilities through experiential learning. Next, it also builds students' networks with artists and other stakeholders in their home country and from around the region. Last but not least, a regular festival, not unlike the Southeast Asian Games, would become a capstone project that not only facilitates cultural democracy, but also binds the culture stakeholders in ASEAN, and eventually push forward a common ASEAN identity.

In 2017, the ASEAN University Network on Culture and the Arts (AUNCA) was officially established to serve as a platform for member institutions to foster cultural understanding, promote creativity and the arts among students in the ASEAN region, and develop policies in harnessing the creative industries in the region. In 2018, the first and second annual meeting of the thematic network was held at De La Salle University in the Philippines. The meetings received positive responses from representatives from 23 universities in ASEAN+3 network. As a result, an AUNCA's work plan 2018-2020 was drafted to foster the network development. In the third annual meeting in June 2019 at Guangxi University in China, 17 universities were involved and laid out a more comprehensive work plan that focused on five main areas, which comprised of (1) membership development, (2) policy development, (3) program development, (4) research development, and (5) cultural exchange and community engagement projects. With the secretariat based at De La Salle University in the Philippines, AUNCA members hail from 30 member universities. Affiliate membership is also open to individuals, universities, businesses, and organizations, who are committed to supporting the network in its mission. As a young network, AUNCA still has a long way to go, before it could demonstrate its impact on the region's arts and cultural development.

From the rise of China in the last decade, to the more recent trade war between the world superpowers, it seems more crucial now than ever for Southeast Asian nations to come together as a united front to jointly face the issues and challenges caused by these global happenings. In this regard, ASEAN could play a major role in uniting these nations. Yet, the interviews with scholars researching into Southeast Asia's arts and culture presented alternative views. First, these scholars feel that ASEAN is a political construct and any efforts towards a common ASEAN identity would just be wishful thinking. While the scattering of different racial groups is transborder, the current tendency is for people of similar racial groups to collaborate. In the arts, it is not uncommon to see Malay artists in Singapore, Malaysia, Indonesia, and Brunei forming some form of network of collaborations and movements that is independent of other races. Second, the economic conditions of ASEAN member states are way apart, which leads to a significant difference in their respective power to resist major threats. For instance, Singapore's GDP per capita is almost 50 times that of Myanmar (The World Bank, 2018).

Conclusion

This paper serves as the first formal documentation of the current state of Cultural Management education offered by institutions of higher learning in Southeast Asia. Through evaluating the focus areas of each programme using top-

down/ bottom-up management approach, this research offers critical perspectives into the current offerings, and proposes possible initiatives and collaborations that could lead to the fulfillment of ASEAN's cultural initiatives. It could be observed that the Cultural Management programmes of the four Southeast Asian nations with the lowest GDP per capita, namely, Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar, and Vietnam, respond mainly to national cultural policies, with aims to train cultural managers to support cultural development at the national level, and at the same time, develop and build communities. This suggests the importance of accumulating cultural capital before venturing into economic prospects. Nevertheless, the research is not without limitations. It offers opportunities for future studies. First, Timor Leste is completely excluded from this research, as this project intended to align current academic programmes development to ASEAN, and Timor Leste has yet to gain membership. Second, it is next to impossible for this project to also document interdisciplinary postgraduate research programmes across Southeast Asia. For instance, a Ph.D. in Management programme from a business school may allow students to explore relevant areas such as creativity and creative industries. Last but not least, Design Management is definitely an up and coming area within Cultural Management, and is not given due justice in this paper. At the time of research, academic programmes in Design Management in Southeast Asia are rather new. It might be too early to evaluate the impacts of Design Management in the larger discourse of Cultural Management.

Acknowledgements

Benny Lim's involvement in this research project was made possible with the support of the Department of Cultural and Religious Studies, the Chinese University of Hong Kong. Part of the research was conducted between June and July 2019, when Benny Lim was affiliated to the Asia Research Institute of the University of Nottingham (Malaysia) as an Honorary Research Fellow.

References

- Araya, D. (2010). Educational policy in the creative economy. In D. Araya & M.A. Peters (Eds.) *Education in the creative economy: Knowledge and learning in the age of innovation*, 3-28. New York: Peter Lang Publishing.
- ASEAN Strategic Plan for Culture and Arts 2016-2025. (2016). Retrieved from: <https://asean.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/10/19.-October-2016-ASEAN-Strategic-Plan-for-Culture-and-Arts-2016-2025.pdf>
- ASEAN University Network on Culture and the Arts (AUNCA). (2019). Retrieved from <http://www.aunsec.org/aun-ca.php>
- Bassetta, M., Fatta, F., & Manti, A. (2017). San Pietro di Deca in Torrenova: Integrated survey techniques for the morphological transformation analysis. In *Handbook of Research on Emerging Technologies for Architectural and Archaeological Heritage*, pp. 322-354. Pennsylvania: IGI Global.

- Bates, C., Droste, C., Cuba, L., & Swingle, J. (2008). *One-on-one interviews: A qualitative assessment approach*. Center of Inquiry in the Liberal Arts at Wabash College.
- Braun, V. and Clarke, V. (2006) Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77-101. doi: [10.1191/1478088706qp063oa](https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa)
- Byrnes, W. J. (2014). *Management and the Arts*. Oxon: Focal Press.
- Catibog-Sinha, C. (2015). The role of nature-based tourism in the green economy: A broader perspective for conservation and sustainability in the Philippines. In M.V. Reddy & K. Wilkes (Eds.) *Tourism in the Green Economy*, 57-70. New York: Routledge.
- Cunningham, S., & Swift, A. (2019). Creative Industries around the world. In S. Cunningham & T. Flew (Eds.) *A Research Agenda for Creative Industries*, 146-163. Cheltenham and Massachusetts: Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) (2017, April). *PH Pusher for promotion of Creative Industries in ASEAN*. Retrieved from <https://www.dti.gov.ph/media/latest-news/10412-ph-pushes-promotion-creative-industries-asean>
- What is Design Management?. (2019). Retrieved from [https://www.dmi.org/page/What is Design Manag](https://www.dmi.org/page/What%20is%20Design%20Manag)
- Fiske, J. (1992). The Cultural Economy of Fandom. In L.A. Lewis (Ed.) *The Adoring audience: fan culture and popular media*, 30-49. London and New York: Routledge.
- Harris, J. (2002). *The new art history: A critical introduction*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Organization - Vietnam National Institute of Culture and Arts Studies. (2018). Retrieved from <https://www.ichcap.org/net>
- Janes, R. R. (2013). *Museums and the Paradox of Change*. New York: Routledge.
- Jowett, S., & Lavallee, D. (2007). *Social psychology in sport (Vol. 10)*. Illinois: Human Kinetics.
- Latham, K. F., & Simmons, J. E. (2014). *Foundations of museum studies: evolving systems of knowledge: evolving systems of knowledge*. California: ABC-CLIO.
- Lewis, P., Goodman, S., Fandt, P., & Michlitsch, J. (2006). *Management: Challenges for tomorrow's leaders*. Ohio: Cengage Learning.
- Lim, B. (2014). Inculcating Arts and Entertainment Management Skills in Performing Arts Students. *Journal of Performing Arts Leadership in Higher Education*. Vol. 4, 24-31.
- Lim, B. (2015). A Discussion on Creativity and Design Education In Singapore and Malaysia. *Journal of Research in Humanities and Social Science*, 3(2), 56-61.
- Lim, T. W. (2017). *Cultural Heritage and Peripheral Spaces in Singapore*. Singapore: Springer.
- Newbigin, J. (2014). *What is the creative economy?*. Retrieved from <https://creativeeconomy.britishcouncil.org/guide/what-creative-economy/>

- The Impact of Culture on Tourism. (2009). Retrieved from: <https://www.oecd.org/cfe/tourism/theimpactofcultureontourism.htm>
- Perez, D. (2019). *Language competition and shift in New Australia, Paraguay*. Cham: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Santoso, B. G. (2018). *Nganimasi Indonesia: Indonesia animation industry data*. Jakarta: Kompas Gramedia.
- Stevens, J. (2019). Evolving the Business Model with a Comprehensive Earned Income Approach. In S. Chmelik (Ed.) *Sustainable Revenue for Museums*, 279-286. Maryland: Rown & Littlefield.
- What is Thailand 4.0?. (2017). Retrieved from <https://thaiembdc.org/thailand-4-0-2/>
- The World Bank (2018). *GDP per capital - East Asia & Pacific, South Asia, Europe & Central Asia*. Retrieved from: <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.PCAP.CD?locations=Z4-8S-Z7>
- UNWTO/GTERC (2017, October). *Annual Report on Asia Tourism Trends – 2017 Edition*. Retrieved from <https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/book/10.18111/9789284419111>
- Vietnam adopts strategy to foster Cultural Industries.(2016). Retrieved from <http://vietnamlawmagazine.vn/vietnam-adopts-strategy-to-foster-cultural-industries-5553.html>
- Walker, G. S. (2019). *The private collector's museum: Public good versus private gain*. New York: Routledge.
- World Travel & Tourism Council (2019, March). *Travel & Tourism Economic Impact 2019*. Retrieved from <https://www.wttc.org/-/media/files/reports/economic-impact-research/regions-2019/world2019.pdf>
- Shi, Y. (2018). Myanmar strives to promote tourism through developing new modes, creating new destinations. Retrieved from http://www.xinhuanet.com/english/2018-04/10/c_137100659.htm



PARENTAL EXPECTATIONS AND PRIMARY EDUCATION CURRICULUM IN NEPAL

Rajendra Kumar Shah

Tribhuvan University, Nepal

drrajendrakumarshah@gmail.com

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.24071/ijiet.2020.040103>

received 18 November 2019; accepted 2 December 2019

Abstract

The major aim of the present study is to study the expectation of the parents regarding the primary education curriculum. Descriptive survey method has been adopted in the present study. Conducted through survey model, this study involves semi-structured interviews with 205 parents of the primary school's children of Ramaroshan Municipality-4, Achham, Province no. 7, Nepal. According to data were analyzed through descriptive analysis technique. Results of the present study indicate that parental expectations on the objectives of primary education are mostly in conformity with the general objectives of primary education. Accordingly, majority of them even suggested teaching moral behaviours, health habits, and other as subjects. Parents complaints there is lack of discipline in schools; low academic qualification of teachers; lack of dedication on the part of teachers; loose administration in the school; lack of supervision from the office concerned; teaching not usually done through the whole period and the school hours; ineffective teaching; too many holidays; no regular teaching in the school due to irregularity and negligence of teachers; and no emphasis on cultural and physical development of children. But a majority of the parents are unaware of interesting area of their children, interesting area of children, and reading subjecting of their children.

Keywords: primary education curriculum, objectives, contents, teaching learning

Introduction

Development of education took place only after the establishment of democracy in Nepal. It was only 1971 that a permanent mechanism for planning, developing, and improving, the school curriculum was introduced when the Curriculum Development Center (CDC) was established under the Ministry of Education (MOE). Actually, Curriculum Development Centre (CDC) was established in Nepal in 1971 with the technical responsibility of planning, drafting, developing, improving and revising curricula of all levels of school's education. During the early years of the implementation of the National Education System Plan, a section on textbooks and curriculum in the Ministry of Education functioned as primary administrative mechanism to formulate policies on

curriculum and textbooks. The curriculum Development Center was engaged in the activities related to the development and improvement of curriculum and curriculum guides. Later on in 1979, the Curriculum and Textbook Section of the Ministry of Education and the Writer's Division of the Janak Educational Materials Center were merged with the curriculum Development Center and it was renamed as curriculum, textbook and Supervision Development Center. After the introduction of the National Education System Plan (NESP) several changes were made in the education system. On the basis of modern scientific principle of curriculum development, primary education was designed for first time in Nepal. National goal of education, general objectives of primary education, level wise, grade wise and subject wise objectives, weightage and full marks were also fixed. According to the plan, prevailing education system was elitist biased and not able to serve the need of the people and the plan called for unifying education into one productive system that serve the country's needs (Parajuli, 1999).

During 1971 to 1980, different efforts were made from the government side to implement the new system of education in the way it was intended. But from the very beginning of the implementation of the plan, many teachers, found the new system somewhat confusing. The mid-term and full term evaluation of National Education System Plan implementation observed a big mismatch between the intended and implemented curriculum. The full term evaluation team examined the plan thoroughly and their report suggested some necessary measures on the very plan itself. Accordingly, a decade old education system was revised in 1981. This was done with a view to widening the base for ordinary people to have an education more easily and by extending the duration of primary education the possibility of children's retaining the literacy they acquired was expected to be higher.

The popular movement that brought to an end the feudalistic Panchayat polity has created a climate that lends itself to openness in thinking. Consequently, the country felt the need for reshaping the whole education system. Taking into consideration the changed context of democracy, social customs and values, multiple demands of knowledge and of science in the world and the changing needs and aspirations of the people, a new primary education curriculum had been introduced from the academic year of 1991/92. Higher Level National Education Commission (HLNEC) 1997, a study on the effectiveness of primary education curriculum 1998, and different regional and national workshops of stakeholders on primary education curriculum pointed out insufficiency in primary education curriculum 1992. Curriculum of primary education 1992 was revised in 2003 and piloted. There have been some minor changes made in 2005 on the basis of outcomes of piloting. The revised curriculum was found to have considered the following aspects: (i) Trimming of the curriculum to reduce content load, (ii) stating guidelines for instructional methods and evaluation, (iii) provision of local curriculum, (iv) language of instruction, (v) incorporation and guidelines regarding life skills, and (vi) reiteration of child-centered approach in the classroom teaching learning (Singh, 2008:18).

Curriculum of primary education 1992 was revised in 2003 and piloted. There have been some minor changes made in 2005 on the basis of outcomes of piloting.

The revised curriculum was found to have considered the following aspects: (i) Trimming of the curriculum to reduce content load, (ii) stating guidelines for instructional methods and evaluation, (iii) provision of local curriculum, (iv) language of instruction, (v) incorporation and guidelines regarding life skills, and (vi) reiteration of child-centered approach in the classroom teaching learning (Singh, 2008:18). This is how new primary education curriculum 2005 has been implemented all over the country. The primary education curriculum 2005 has formulated six aims of primary education which are-to develop social and moral qualities such as morality, discipline and self reliance in children and develop the feeling of own nation, national unity and democratic culture; to develop fundamental linguistic and mathematical skills; to develop fundamental knowledge and life in science, communication technology, environment and health; to develop creative skills and keen interest in art and aesthetic; to develop inclusive society by uplifting all caste, religion, language; to be aware of human right and social norms and values (MOES, 2005).

Curricular and pedagogical arrangement of the existing curriculum sounds relevant, appropriate, and enough to do more activities. But the actual classroom scenario is different; the expected learning achievements are not attainable as it was predicted. Different study reports about the effect of existing curriculum on the achievement of the students show the low achievement of the students. There are certain components in each subject in which students under the new curriculum have not been able to achieve better than that under old curriculum. Although curriculum, textbooks, and teacher manual suggest practice oriented activities, the teacher did not pay more attention to transfer suggestions into action. The relevance of any curricular materials depends upon the needs and interests of pupils. These needs and interests are not reflected in the prevailing curriculum. In the beginning, it was hoped that Primary Education Curriculum 2005 would be a relevant for teacher, parents and students concerned persons. But different studies criticized the existing curriculum on the several grounds. Different studies which are carried out at CERID indicate that content, teaching learning process; student evaluation procedures are still unsatisfactory. Although PEC 2005 has made some changes in the prevailing primary education curriculum 1992, different aspects such as grade wise intended learning outcomes, teaching learning and student evaluation procedures are somehow unsatisfactory.

First of all, sufficient studies have not been carried out on parental expectations on primary education curriculum. Secondly, all of the studies laid more emphasis on content areas only. Formulations of grade wise intended learning outcomes, corresponding pedagogical practices and evaluation procedures have been somehow neglected by these studies. Thirdly, research in primary education curriculum is neglected by the government, concerned bodies and authorities. Fourthly, there was a widening gap between the curriculum planners and the people at grass root level with reference to the need of the learners. This calls for a further detailed study on appropriateness, relevance, shortcomings of the existing curriculum.

Rational of the study

Parents may observe students' activities after school hours and know about their children's attitudes towards a variety of activities in school. Therefore, the parents should be considered as a reliable source of information about students' learning. Some issues upon which parents may report to evaluators are : difficulties children encounter in understanding certain parts of the program; difficulties children encounter in preparing homework; support materials such as reference book that children use at home; help students require in performing homework; interest students reveal in the subject; interest reveal in preparing homework; spontaneous reports of children on what is going on in school; students' enthusiastic talk about experiences related to a program; initiatives taken by students to increase their knowledge in a given field; application of principles learned in school in various out of school situations Lewy (1977). The issues mentioned are general in terms. The curriculum evaluators should formulate questions related to these areas in terms of that fit the unique features of a particular program (Lewy, 1977).

Parents are regarded as the first agency of the education. In order to make primary education more qualitative, suitable, and competitive, its curriculum must be relevant to the needs, interests and aspiration of parents' as well as society. A curriculum is relevant only if it can incorporate people's expectations from education. Accordingly, to make education useful to people, it is necessary to find out, at first, the kind of perceptions, attitudes, and expectations that the parents hold towards education. Parents can offer suggestions and encouragement for changes and provide support when changes are introduced in education system. Keeping this in view, Nepal has made several attempts since 1950s to find out the opinions of parents of different parts of country on the type of education. Education commissions such as the Nepal National Education Commission (NNEPC, 1956), All Round National Education Committee (ARNEC, 1961), National Education Commission (NEC, 1992) and Higher Level National Education Commission (HLNEC, 1998) have forwarded several recommendations to make primary education oriented to national needs, functional and focused on all round development of children. Despite these recommendations of these commissions, a number of attempts have been made by the curriculum designer to incorporate the needs, interest and views of the parents in the primary education curriculum.

If curriculum is to be made as relevant to the people as possible so as to provide maximum benefits to the mass. It is important to reduce the discrepancies that exist between the expectations and the actual practices. For this, it is necessary to find out what kind of perceptions, attitudes and expectations the parents hold towards primary education curriculum. Parents can offer suggestions and encouragement for changes and provide support when change comes (Sparkman and Carmichael, 1975:110). So, there have been several efforts made after the first half of this century in this century. However, it is still the elite who are mostly from urban areas that influence and decide on the nature and the contents of education for the rural mass. As a result, even after four decades of curricular changes, the syllabus was found irrelevant for the majority of children

who live in rural areas (BPE Master, 1991; NEC, 1992). Keeping in view of the past experiences, an effort is made here to see relevancy or discrepancies between parental opinions towards the existing curriculum and the performed curricular practices.

The major purpose of the present study is to study the expectation of the parents regarding the primary education curriculum. The basic research question raised here is whether the existing primary education curriculum is according to the expectations of parents.

Literature Review

Sufficient studies have not carried out on parental expectation and primary education curriculum. In the context of Nepal, none study has been conducted on this topic. In this section, six topics namely parents' expectations of primary school students; parents' expectations of teachers; race/Ethnicity and Parent Expectations; socio-economic Status and Parent Expectations; parent's Level of Educational Attainment; and barriers to achieving expectations have been presented.

Parents' expectations of primary school students

According to the (EW, 2015; Rabadi, 2014), parental involvement is an important and essential to make a good performance in education to their children. However, parents are guardians, care takers, directors for improving and developing their children physically, mentally, socially and educationally. There is a strong positive relationship between parental education, or parental involvement and time spent with children (Guryan & Hurst & Kearney, 2008). However, parenting education programs offer multiple benefits to parents as well as to their children like new skills that increase competence and positive parenting practices. Parents are socialized to change the society (Dubow & Paul & Huesmann, 2009). However, parent involvement in the education is necessary. There are many ways like parents guide their kids during studies, play with children, aware on wrong habits, socialized with children in community and involving in schools' activities but mainly from school size they are not giving more important on parental involvement among their children in schools.

Parent expectations have been investigated far less often than those of teachers and yet may be similarly influential. Indeed, Ma (2001) argued that parent expectations about whether their children would go to university had more effect on students than either teacher or peer expectations. Parent expectations have been posited as affecting student outcomes both directly through interactions with their children and indirectly through parental beliefs and perceived efficacy in providing academic support to their children (Wentzel, 1998). It is conceivable that the longer a student stays at school, parent aspirations (and student self-conceptions) will alter in line with grades the student gets from teachers. In other words, originally optimistic parental expectations could decline when parents received student grades that were lower than their expectations for their children. Wentzel (1998), however, studied parents' expectations of their grade 1-6 children's achievement and did not find a declining pattern of aspirations across

the elementary grade levels even after parents received test results consistently indicating lower achievement than expected. Indeed, researchers have found high parent expectations positively influence older students' achievement and self-perceptions above what standardised test results may have indicated (Bornholt & Goodnow, 1999; Visser, 1987). Bornholt and Goodnow (1999) found parent perceptions of their eleven-to-sixteen-year-old children's academic achievement were closely related to children's self-perceptions because the perceptions and expectations of parents contributed to students' self perceptions (after controlling for examination marks and achievement). Similarly, in a study of seventh and ninth-grade students, Visser (1987) found parents could be encouraging of their children and have high expectations of their performance in mathematics even when they were not competent themselves.

Parents' expectations of teachers

The study of parent expectations of teachers has been largely neglected in the literature. Tatar and Horenczyk (2000) found parent expectations were greatest for the assistance and help they expected teachers to provide, followed by teacher competence and then fairness towards students. There were some differences between mothers' and fathers' expectations, however, with mothers placing more emphasis on fairness, assistance and help than fathers.

Race/Ethnicity and Parent Expectations

An examination of parental aspirations for their children's education showed that the ethnicity of parents along with their education level play an important role in defining their expectations of educational attainment (Spera, Wentzel, & Matto, 2008). In an examination of parental aspirations over time, Raleigh and Kao (2010) found that differences in parental aspirations existed between immigrant parents and native-born minority parents. Immigrant parents were found to maintain high aspirations consistently over time, from Kindergarten to Third Grade to Fifth Grade, when compared to minority parents (Raleigh & Kao, 2010).

Both African-American and Hispanic parents view education as a priority, are concerned about issues that surround education, and have educational aspirations that are similar to those of non-minority parents (Stevenson, Chen, & Uttal, 1990). An example of this similarity is found in a comparison of mother's expectations for their child's future. Hispanic mothers' "expectations for their child's future were lower than those of the black and white mothers, but nevertheless were high" (Stevenson et al., p.520). The importance of education to minority parents is also attributed to the perception of education as means of upward mobility (Delgado-Gaiten & Trueba, 1991). The historical precedence set by earlier research which emphasizes the importance of parental expectations and its effects on student achievement is reinforced by Spera et al.'s (2008) research which concluded that all parents, regardless of ethnicity had high expectations of their children. These high aspirations correlated positively with parental education and children's level of academic performance (Spera et al., 2008). Interestingly, Spera et al. (2008) also found that how parents perceive factors about the school such as "quality, safety, and climate... may also influence the educational aspirations they develop

for their children” (p. 1141). This finding supports the necessity of determining parents’ perceptions and expectations of the school since these factors play an important role in parental aspirations for their children, which research has shown to be positively correlated to student achievement.

Socio-economic Status and Parent Expectations

Social and cultural differences of parents must be taken into account when school professionals make decisions about how to facilitate the development of the home-school relationship (Phillipson, 2009). Phillipson (2009) found that when attempting to facilitate the home-school relationship, parents who had a low socio-economic status level needed to be approached differently from parents who had a high socio-economic status (SES) level. Berthelsen & Walker’s (2008) research found that parents in low socio-economic status families often have fewer years in education than parents in high socio-economic status families and conversely have had more school experiences that were negative. Parents with low socio-economic status who come from variant cultures find it more challenging to become involved and maintain involvement in their child’s educational experiences (Lee & Bowen, 2006). The diverse social and cultural backgrounds possessed by some parents with low SES is accompanied by diverse expectations concerning the education of their child (Berthelsen & Walker, 2008). This research is similar to Phillipson (2009) in that it emphasizes the need to recognize and address the differences that exist among parents of low socio-economic status in a manner conducive to forming a strong home-school relationship. Research by Jacob & Lefgren (2007a) has shown that parents in high-poverty schools value the teacher’s ability to improve student performance more than parents in low-poverty schools. According to Jacob & Lefgren (2007a), parents with higher socio-economic status prefer teachers who have the ability to improve student satisfaction. Jacob & Lefgren (2007a) attribute parent expectations to the specific situation in which they find themselves. In a subsequent study of what parents’ value, Jacob and Lefgren (2007b) reflect on the reason that parents of varying socio-economic status tended to be homogeneous in their preference for the type of school that their child attends.

Jacob and Lefgren (2007b) believe that a homogeneous school choice indicates the parents’ preference to associate themselves with other families which happen to have the same priorities and the socioeconomic status to which they aspire. Parents tend to make educational choices for their children depending upon what is perceived as a need. They expect the school to provide what is lacking in the child’s educational experience (Jacob & Lefgren, 2007b). School leaders, teachers, and staff who are knowledgeable about parents’ expectations are better equipped to address the needs of the students. Data from the National Educational Longitudinal Study (NELS) has shown that there is a vast difference in the parental expectations of children from lower socio-economic status backgrounds (Rouse & Barrow, 2006). Roper (2008) acknowledged that in African-Americans, parents with a higher socio-economic status had comparable expectations for their children.

Magnuson and Duncan (2006) conducted a comprehensive review of studies that examined the achievement gap between families with varying socio-economic status levels. The results of their review showed family income levels were partly attributable to but not necessarily causal of the racial achievement gap. Fryer and Levitt's (2004) research is referenced in the review as one study that builds a strong case for socioeconomic background as the cause for achievement gaps but is unable to deny the possibility that other family characteristics may contribute to the racial achievement gap. (Magnuson and Duncan, 2006). Fryer and Levitt (2004) attribute the growth in the achievement gap in the early years of a child's education to attendance and lower quality schools. Admittedly, although this hypothesis receives empirical support, additional data is needed to study the schools and the general environment that the students encounter as part of their daily life before the hypothesis can be substantiated (Fryer and Levitt, 2004). Magnuson and Duncan (2006) conclude that although an examination of SES as a factor in student achievement reveals a .4-.5 standard deviation, this does not qualify SES to be isolated as the cause for achievement gap among Black and White students. Research is unable to isolate SES as the single causal factor in the student achievement gap due to family characteristics which can affect student performance as well (Magnuson and Duncan, 2006).

Conversely, Mandara, Varner, Greene, and Richman (2009) concluded that the socio-economic status of the parents contributed to the achievement gap. The "direct path between ethnicity and parents' socio-economic status" explains the reason that White children enjoy a higher achievement level than Black children since parents with higher socio-economic status levels were found to be more likely to use parenting practices which center on the academic achievement of the child (p. 276). Ultimately, Mandara et al., (2009) concluded that the factors that contributed to the Black-White achievement gap were social and therefore modifiable. This finding reinforces the need to examine the expectations of parents. Identifying the expectations of parents could provide insight into their needs. Therefore, schools will be equipped to address the challenge of improving academic achievement through working to alleviate the effects of parental barriers which may occur during their child's academic experience.

A home environment that encourages learning along with high expectations for educational attainment most accurately predicts a child's achievement in school (Grace et al., 2012). Grace et al., (2012) identifies parent involvement as the factor which has a major influence on the student's educational attainment level. Parent involvement is defined as "a catch-all term for many different activities including at 'home,' good parenting, helping with homework, talking to teachers, attending school functions, through to taking part in school governance" (p. 196). Conversely, Do and Mancillas (2006) concluded in their examination of Latino children and their parents that SES plays a major role in school performance. They emphasized that although the role of SES in student achievement is influential, many low socio-economic status children can and do overcome the barriers to academic achievement which often accompany their socio-economic status level (Do & Mancillas, 2006). Finally, Do and Mancillas (2006) found that the parents' level of expectation communicated to the children

is often attained by the children and is critical in determining their level of academic achievement.

Parent's Level of Educational Attainment

A landmark study by Berlin and Sum (1988) identified the underlying causes of the achievement gap. The two causes identified in the study are 1) the amount of time that students spent on vacation and 2) the education level of the mother. In a study on family predictors of the Black-White Achievement Gap, Mandara et al., (2009) determined adolescent achievement was affected by the mother's education level which was in turn influenced by the mother's Socio-economic status. Berlin and Sum (1988) noted that an increase in the mother's education level, even if that increase occurred during the child's academic experience, had a positive effect on the child's level of educational attainment.

In Phillipson' (2010) study of a Hong Kong primary school which compared student ability levels in relation to parent's roles in achievement found that parents who had lower expectations of academic achievement for their children were less likely to be involved in school activities. Phillipson' (2010) study revealed that Chinese parents who held high expectations emphasized the importance of effort in achievement to their children on a daily basis. Phillipson' study is supported by Davis-Kean's (2005) research which found that parents with higher educational levels had higher levels of expectation for their children's educational attainment. Additionally, Asian-American parents were found to be more actively involved in their child's education at home and at school (Phillipson, 2010). Subsequently, parent's educational level has been proven over time to influence the educational attainment level of the child. The existence of a mother's low educational level has been shown to contribute to the achievement gap (Berlin and Sum, 1988). A positive correlation exists between higher educational levels of parents and higher levels of expectations for student performance (Davis-Kean, 2005).

Barriers to achieving expectations

A number of barriers to achievement of expectations have been identified in the literature. Among these are financial barriers (Ali and McWhirter, 2006; Luzzo and McWhirter, 2001; McWhirter et al., 2007); lack of parental support (Ali and McWhirter, 2006; McWhirter et al., 2007), low teacher expectations and support (Haynes et al., 2006), ethnic and gender discrimination (Luzzo and McWhirter, 2001) and barriers associated with student ability and motivation (McWhirter et al., 2007). A further barrier to the achievement of expectations that might be considered is the practice of streaming. Streaming (or tracking, as it is commonly known in the United States) has often been associated with teacher expectations. Indeed, Gregory (1984) argued that low teacher expectations for low-ability students were the most pernicious problem associated with streaming. Oakes has consistently shown how streaming can impact negatively not only on the learning opportunities provided for students considered low-ability but ultimately, and more important, on their life opportunities (Oakes, 1985, 1988, 1990; Oakes et al., 1992). It has been shown such negative effects particularly

applied to children from ethnic minority groups and those from low socioeconomic groups, who tended to be unequally distributed in the lower streams and to receive a ‘dumbed down’ curriculum, compared with middleclass students of similar ability (Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, 1989; Virginia State Department of Education, 1992; Jussim et al., 1996; Persell, 1977; Winn and Wilson, 1983). Despite the contentions about the negative effects of teacher expectations on student achievement, the practice of streaming continues in several secondary schools in New Zealand.

Method

Research Design

As this study intended to expectation of the parents regarding the primary education curriculum, it was difficult to gather information by the census method (i.e. studying the whole population). In the situation like this, Kerlinger (1978) suggest personal interview as the best example of the survey research and use of personal interview as a principal methods of gathering information. Hence, in the present study, parents were directly contacted and essential data and information were collected by using interview. It clearly indicates that the present study may be termed as a survey study.

Participants

Participants of the present study consist of the parents of the children who are studying at primary schools in Ramaroshan Municipality-4, Achham, Province no. 7, Nepal. Opinions of 205 parents were collected using interview. Parents were selected on the basis of purposive sampling methods. In general, the selected parents were those who had keen interest in the education of children. This sample of parents consisted of illiterates to graduates drawn from various ethnic and cultural groups.

Instruments

First of all, a questionnaire was prepared through a thorough literature review by the researcher in order to develop the questionnaire. A draft of this questionnaire was presented to five experts who were in the field of curriculum evaluation. The experts were requested to criticize the questionnaire in terms of whether or not it served the purpose and had any validity. In accordance with the feedback obtained from the experts, the draft was revised and brought to the final form. As a result, the prepared questionnaire is a good representative of the population in terms of the quantity and quality of its question. All the questions in the form are open ended. There were eight sections in the questionnaire. The sections are: primary school teachers; parental opinion towards of the objectives of primary education; parental Expectation on the contents of learning; parents Opinion on the activities of the school; parents’ opinions on the inclusion of religious and culture contents in the curriculum; parents’ experiences on subjects of their children in the school; parents’ experiences on Interesting activities of their children in the school; and types of work skills as wished by parents

Result and Discussion

This section presents expectation of parents on primary education curriculum in Nepal. Parental expectations on various aspects of primary education curriculum have been presented in this section.

Parental Opinion towards of the Objectives of Primary Education

Contents, teaching learning activities and student evaluation procedures are based on the objectives of the curriculum. Thus, objectives are considered important element of the curriculum. In this regard, most of the respondents of the present study were not well educated and they could only read and write. At the same time, they did not understand special terminology such as objectives, contents and pedagogy and so on. As the parents were not able to give their views on the objectives of primary education, they were asked to tell their expectations regarding skills and competencies they want their children to be able to do after the completion of primary education.

In order to find out expectations regarding the objectives of primary education, they were asked to report their expectations regarding the understanding, skills and competences they would want in their children. In response to this query, most parents (more than 80 percent) reported that primary education completers must be able to: be able to write correspondence letters and application; be able to read books and newspapers, letters of correspondences and legal papers; be able to solve daily life problem related to the operations of the four fundamental rules in numeracy and calculate interest; development a disposition of being obedient, respectful, and religious minded and have good moral standing, and helpful to parents in doing the household chores.

In addition, they wanted their children to help in the household chores. Parents of the disadvantaged children wanted their children to be skilled enough to work and earn (Mathema, 1993:35). Parents of the disadvantaged children wanted their children to be skilled enough to work and earn. When asked about the reasons for sending children to school, they (the disadvantaged children's parents) wanted their children to have a job as that of a peon or a soldier (Mali, 1993:8).

In the present study, some parents wished their children to be able to communicate in English as a result of schooling. Hence, the parental reasons for educating their children at the primary level is to make them able to solve daily life problems related to reading, writing, and calculating as well as to have good moral standing and also help them acquire knowledge and skill and to secure job. These parental expectations on the objectives of primary education are mostly in conformity with the general objectives of primary education which are stated as the development of inborn abilities of the children under the child centered system, development of skills in three R's (3Rs: Reading Writing and Arithmetic) so essential to daily life, inculcation of qualities like honesty, self-reliance, and industry in the broader context of pragmatic values, moral and beliefs and development of civic, scientific, and environmental sense (PEC, 1992:2). In brief, the reason for educating their children is to make them wise, smart, and happy in their lives and help them acquire knowledge to secure job (CERID, 1982:16).

Parental Expectation on the Contents of Learning

As mentioned before, some parents of this study were unaware of all subjects taught at school and the activities they do at the schools. Although some of the parents were unaware of all the subjects their children learn at the school and the activities they do there they vocal regarding the subjects to teach in the school. Parents were found to be unanimous in their desire for the school to teach their children to read, write and do the arithmetic. In addition to this, majority of them even suggested teaching moral behaviors, health habits, and English language. Very few of the parents (6 percent) who were aware of the removal of Moral Education and Sanskrit Subjects from fourth and fifth grades objected to this decision. The utility of subjects such as Social Studies, Science, Work Skills, Physical Education, Creative and Expressive Arts was beyond the comprehension level of most parents. But parents showed their acceptance when specifically asked about these subjects. Some parents who were living on the highway side of some districts saw the need for teaching about safety measures against road accidents (traffic rules, regulation and other measures). When asked specifically about socially useful work skills, an overwhelming majority of parents (more than 80 percent) felt the need for learning work skills by their children. Just 5 percent of the parents objected to teaching such skills on the ground that the children are too small to learn these skills. Approximately 12 percent of the parents were found in a state of indecision.

Parents Opinion on the Activities of the School

A majority of the parents (80%) in this study expected that children must be learning something good in the school. This implies that they do not seem much concerned with whatever activities are going in the school-they do have a high stake. For example, one third of the parents were found to be dissatisfied with the functioning of the school itself. They had many complaints against teachers and their teaching. Their main complaint is related to the teachers and their teaching. They are of the opinions that the programmes of the curriculum have not been delivered to the required extent by teachers including their concerned people and authorities. Regarding school activities, the main observations of the unsatisfied parents are: lack of discipline in schools; low academic qualification of teachers; teachers involved in politics; lack of dedication on the part of teachers; lack of supervision from the office concerned; loose administration in the school; teaching not usually done through the whole period and the school hours; ineffective teaching; too many holidays; no regular teaching in the school due to irregularity and negligence of teachers; and no emphasis on cultural and physical development of children.

Parents Opinions on the Inclusion of Culture Contents in the curriculum

To find out opinion regarding the representation of their culture in the curriculum, parents were asked whether they had got their children taught matters related to their religion and culture. Children of the parents (60%) children have learnt something about their religion and culture. Ten percent of the parents were found to be unaware about the issue. However, thirty percent of the parents

indicated inadequate provision of their religion and culture matters in school learning. Ethnic parents, particularly from Gurung, Tamang, Lumbu, and Muslim communities, were found to have the conviction that there is little or no information being given about their culture and religion. They complained that there is more information about Hindu religion and culture. On the opposite pole, some Hindu parents were concerned with inadequate teaching about the Vedic culture and discipline. In addition, some parents from the Far Western, Mid Western and Terai religious perceived gross under representation of local culture and religion in the school curriculum. For example, the popular festival called Gaura Chad of the Far Western region and the famous Bhagabati Mandir and Kubinde Daha of the Far Western religion go simple missing in the curriculum. Their resentment was that nothing is mentioned in the primary school textbook or taught about these culturally important festivals and temples. They questioned the practice of teaching only about the Gaijatra Parba, which is exclusively the festival of the Newar community Kathmandu valley. Voices of resentment of the present curriculum were also sounded in the Terai region for neglecting teaching about the Chhat and Holi festivals. Such reactions indicate the awareness of local people on the need for providing years ago is still true. According to Mali the schools' textbooks have always had a heavy cultural bias towards the Indo-Nepalese upper castes and to a lesser extent, towards the Newar of Kathmandu (1979:227).

Parents Experiences on Subjects of their Children in the School

Regarding academic subject of interest to their children, a large majority of parents (65%) were unaware about them. Most of the parents, who knew the subjects, reported Nepali as the most interesting subject to their children. Out of 21 parents who had some knowledge about their children's subjects of interest, about one fifth and one seventh reported English and Mathematics as the most interesting subjects of his/her child. Besides no parents mentioned Science in the category of most interesting subject to the children. This may imply that parents are less concerned with their children's interest and the activities that are organized for them in the schools.

Parents Experiences on Interesting Activities of their Children in the School

The majority of the parents are unaware of interesting area of their children, and more than one third do not know about the interesting activities of the school. This may imply that parents are less concerned with their children's interests and the activities that are organized in the school. Parents, who have some knowledge of the activities of the school programme, have found their children interested either in cultural programmes or sports activities or in both. Very few parents (2%) found the quiz contest interesting to their children. No parents had reported the liking of literacy programme of the school. The reason may either the school had no such programmes or the students had not reported it as interesting.

Parental Opinion towards Primary School Teachers

Most of the parents expect a lot from primary schools teachers. Nearly 50 percent of the parents expected that primary school teacher should be modern, creative, and open to innovation, patient, cheerful, sincere, honest. A small number of parents (7%) in this group expected teachers to love their jobs, be decisive and be well organized, and to have a well developed sense of selfsteem. In terms of the profession-specific expectations parents were found to have low expectations. In this regard, most desired traits for parents were to have a background in child development and psychology, the ability keep the class under control and to provide discipline (44 %). Having the ability keeps the class under control, providing discipline, following technological and current developments, and passing on these developments to students were expectations for more than half of the private school parents.

Types of Work Skills as Wished by Parents

Parents of all regions wanted that children be taught about vegetable gardening and knitting, sewing and printing skills. While parents from the Mountains preferred horticulture and parents from the Terai region gave preference to agricultural skills. They did not see any point in teaching skills other than related to farming and home skills. It is obvious than any attempt to teach children other skills will remain a thankless task until a greater variety of occupations exist in rural Nepal. As the reality goes, the present curriculum lacks in the provisions made for teaching any work skills at the primary level.

Knowledge of Information communication technology

A majority (65%) of the parents indicated the urgent need of information and communication technology. They suggested that subject matters related to computer should be incorporated in the course of upper primary education and it should be core course for the children of upper primary education.

Conclusion

Results of the present study indicate that parental expectations on the objectives of primary education are mostly in conformity with the general objectives of primary education. There is satisfactory resemblance between their expectations on the objectives of primary education and the actual provision made in primary education curriculum. Moreover, most of the parents indicated the need for teaching some work skills and for making their children more obedient, respectful, and religious. But the voices of one third of the parents indicate that there is under representation of their religious and cultural in the curriculum. Such expectations of parents comply with the recommendations of several national commissions (NNEPC, 1956; ARNEC, 1961; NEC, 1992) as well as with what has been practiced in most of the developing countries of the world. At least, the high level High Level National Education Commission (HLNEC, 1998) states, 'one of the basic objectives of primary education should be the development of the life skills necessary for livelihood.

Accordingly, majority of them suggested new subject and contents areas for primary education curriculum. This opinion of the parents is supported by the various studies. On reviewing the current status of primary education, both the Basic and Primary Education Master Plan (1991-2000) team and the National Education Commission (NEC) of 1990 found the syllabus of primary education irrelevant for the majority of children who live in rural areas (BPE Master Plan, 1991:237). It was also observed that the curriculum could not take into account the learning needs of ethnic and cultural minorities. Except for cosmetic changes in the curriculum, there has been no systematic effort in revision the primary education curriculum to make it integrated, meaningful and relevant (BPE Master Plan, 1991:237). The subject and contents taught in primary school were considered elitist and urban biased. The reason behind this may be attributed, to a larger extent, to the faulty process of curriculum development. The members of the elite class, who were mostly from urban areas, influenced and decided on the nature and contents of education for the rural masses. All the education commission appointed from time to time, have considered primary education as basic need of all children and terminal education for many. The curriculum should also provide opportunities to learn capability-the capability to deal with the crises of the time. Such a concern has been well reflected in BPE Master Plan (1991:241). National priority such as health and nutrition, population and environment, and productivity could be taken as bases for selecting contents for primary schooling. Literacy and numeracy will be vehicle for teaching concepts, knowledge and skill in these important areas of national concern. Similarly, the NEC (1992) recommended to pay attention to providing practical knowledge about agriculture and environment through the medium of Kitchen garden, flower garden and plantation of fruit sapling as these activities have practical bearing on human life at the most formative stage. It is also suggested to allow a school or a community to create and a new Primary Education Curriculum (PEC) in 1992 with expectation that it would improve the relevance and quality of primary education.

In order to meet the parental expectations and the national requirement, provisions should be made for incorporating some socially useful work skill in the primary education curriculum. For this, present provision of elective subject to allow room for local and regional variation in the national curriculum must be used for the development of such skills. The potential work skill areas for the primary school children of Nepal are kitchen gardening, handicrafts and horticulture. Secondly, the integrated textbooks 'Social Studies should have some flexible adaptive structure in the first three grades of primary level so that local culture, religion and Geography can be put into practices effectively in order to develop discipline among children. In addition to adjustments in curriculum, it is also necessary that the functioning of the school also should be improved in order to have better achievement on the part of students.

Parents (52%) complaints there is lack of discipline in schools; low academic qualification of teachers; teachers involved in politics; lack of dedication on the part of teachers; lack of supervision from the office concerned; loose administration in the school; teaching not usually done through the whole period

and the school hours; ineffective teaching; too many holidays; no regular teaching in the school due to irregularity and negligence of teachers; and no emphasis on cultural and physical development of children.

The majority of the parents are unaware of interesting area of their children, interesting area of children, and reading subjecting of their children. Parents of all regions wanted that children be taught about vegetable gardening and knitting, sewing and printing skills. About a third of the parents were not satisfied with the functioning of the school due to the same reason. A majority of parents were not aware of the academic subjects interesting to their children, indicating the need for launching parental education along with schooling programme for children. Accordingly, a majority of the parents suggested for the inclusion information and communication technology in the upper primary education. Hence, the overall situation suggests the need for making some adjustment in primary education curriculum.

References

- Ali, S. R., and McWhirter, E. H. (2006). Rural Appalachian youth's vocational/educational postsecondary aspirations: Applying social cognitive career theory. *Journal of Career Development*, 33(2), 87–111.
- ARNEC. (1961). *Report of the all round national education committee*. Kathmandu, Nepal: Author.
- Berlin, G., & Sum, A. (1988). *Towards a more perfect union: Basic skills, poor families, and our economic future*. New York: Ford Foundation. Eric Document Reproduction Service No. ED297037.
- Berthelsen, D., & Walker, S. (2008). Parents' involvement in their children's education. *Family Matters*, 79, 34-41.
- Bornholt, L., & Goodnow, J. (1999). Cross-generation perceptions of academic competence: parental expectations and adolescent self-disclosure. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 14(4), 427–47.
- BPE Master Plan. (1991). *Basic and primary education master plan 1991-2001*. Kathmandu, Nepal: Author.
- Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development (1989). *Turning points: Preparing American youth for the twenty-first century*. New York: Carnegie Corporation.
- Davis-Kean, P. E., & Sexton, H. R. (2009). Race differences in parental influences on child achievement. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 55(3), 285-318.
- Delgado-Gaitan, C., & Trueba, H. (1991). *Crossing cultural borders: Education for immigrant families in America*. London: Falmer Press.
- Do, T., & Mancillas, A., (2006). Examining the Educational Expectations of Latino Children and Their Parents as Predictors of Academic Achievement. In *Compelling Perspectives on Counseling, VISTAS Online*.
- Dubow, Paul, & Huesmann, a. E. (2009). Long-term effects of parents' education on children's educational and occupational success: Mediation by family interactions, child aggression, and teenage aspirations. *HHS Public Access*, 244-249.
- EW, E. W. (2015). *Activities to promote parent involvement*. Retrieved on 9 April 2016, from http://www.educationworld.com/a_curr/curr200.shtml.

- Fryer, R., & Levitt, S. D. (2004). The black-white test score gap in the first two years of school. *Review of Economics and Statistics*, 86, 447-464.
- Grace, A., Jethro, O., & Aina, F. (2012). Roles of parent on the academic performance of pupils in elementary schools. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business & Social Sciences*, 2(1), 196-201.
- Gregory, R. P. (1984). Streaming, setting and mixed ability grouping in primary and secondary schools: some research findings. *Educational Studies* 10 (3), 209–26.
- Guryan, Hurst, & Kearney, J. E. (2008). Parental education and parental time with children. Retrieved on 25 September 2016 from [http://faculty.chicagobooth.edu/erik.hurst/research/guryan_hurst_ kearney_nber_final.pdf](http://faculty.chicagobooth.edu/erik.hurst/research/guryan_hurst_ Kearney_nber_final.pdf).
- Haynes, J., Tikly, L., & Caballero, C. (2006). The barriers to achievement for white/black Caribbean pupils in English schools. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*. 27(5), 569-83.
- HLNEC. (1998). *Report of the higher level national education commission*. Kathmandu, Nepal: Author.
- Jacob, B. A., & Lefgren, L. (2007). In low-income schools, parents want teachers who teach: In affluent schools, other things matter. *Education Next*, 7(3), Retrieved July 18, 2012, from [http:// educationnext.org/in-lowincome-schools-parents-want-teachers-who-teach/](http://educationnext.org/in-lowincome-schools-parents-want-teachers-who-teach/)
- Jacob, B. A., & Lefgren, L. (2007). What do parents value in education? An empirical investigation of parents' revealed preferences for teachers. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 122(4), 1603-1637.
- Jussim, L., Eccles, J. S., and Madon, S. (1996). Social perception, social stereotypes, and teacher expectations: accuracy and the quest for the powerful self-fulfilling prophecy. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* XXVIII (pp. 281-388). San Diego CA: Academic Press,
- Kerlinger, F. N. (1978). *Foundation of behavioural research* (2nd ed.). Delhi: Surjeet Publication.
- Lee, J., and Bowen, N., (2006). Parent involvement, cultural capital, and the achievement gap among elementary school children. *American Educational Research Journal*, 43, 193-218.
- Lewy, A. (1977). Teachers, parents, and community as a data sources. In A. Lewy (Ed.) *Handbook of Curriculum Evaluation*. Paris: IIEP/UNESCO.
- Luzzo, D. A., and McWhirter, E. H. (2001). Sex and ethnic differences in the perception of educational and career-related barriers, and levels of coping efficacy. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 79(1), 61–7.
- Magnuson, K., & Duncan, G. (2006). The role of family socioeconomic resources in the black-white test score gap among young children. *Developmental Review*, 26, 365-399.
- Mali, G.B. (1993). *Science in meeting basic learning needs of primary school children in Nepal*. Kathmandu, Nepal: CERID.
- Mandara, J., Varner, F., Greene, N., & Richman, S. (2009). Intergenerational family predictors of the Black–White achievement gap. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 101(4), 867-878. doi:10.1037/a0016644.

- Mathema, S. S. B. (1993). *Social Studies in meeting basic learning needs of primary school children in Nepal*. Kathmandu, Nepal: CERID.
- Ma, X. (2001). Participation in advanced mathematics: do expectation and influence of students, peers, teachers, and parents matter? *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 26(1), 132–146.
- McWhirter, E. H., Torres, D. M., Salgado, S., & Valdez, M. (2007). Perceived barriers and postsecondary plans in Mexican American and white adolescents. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 15(1), 119–38.
- MOES. (2005). *Primary education curriculum*. Bhaktapur, Nepal: Curriculum Development Center, MOES/HMG.
- NEC. (1992). *Report of the national education commission*. Kathmandu, Nepal: Author.
- New-ERA, (1995). *Basic and primary education project: Achievement study*. Kathmandu, Nepal: New ERA.
- NNEPC, (1956). *Education in Nepal*. Kathmandu, Nepal: Bureau of Publication, College of Education.
- Oakes, J. (1985). *Keeping track: How schools structure inequality*. Binghamton NY: Yale University Press.
- Oakes, J. (1988). Tracking in mathematics and science education: A structural contribution to unequal schooling. In L. Weiss (Ed.), *Class, Race and Gender in American Education*, Albany New York: State University of New York Press, pp. 106-125.
- Oakes, J. (1990). Opportunities, achievement, and choice: Women and minority students in science and mathematics. *Review of Research in Education*, 16, 153-222.
- Oakes, J., Gamoran, A., & Page, R. N. (1992). Curriculum differentiation, opportunities, outcomes and meanings. In P. Jackson (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Curriculum*, New York: Mcmillan, pp. 570–608.
- Parajuli, T. R. (1999). *Relevance of primary education curriculum in Nepal*. An Unpublished Ph. D. Thesis, Banaras Hindu University, India.
- PEC. (1992). *Primary education curriculum part i and II*. Bhaktapur, Nepal: Curriculum Development Center.
- Persell, C. (1977). *Education and inequality: The roots and results of stratification in American schools*. New York: Free Press.
- Phillipson, S. (2009). Context of academic achievement: lessons from Hong Kong. *Educational Psychology*, 29(4), 447-468. doi:10.1080/01443410903059024
- Phillipson, S. (2010). Modeling parental role in academic achievement: Comparing high-ability to low and average-ability students. *Talent Development and Excellence*, 2(1), 83-103.
- Raleigh, E., & Kao, G. (2010). Do immigrant minority parents have more consistent college aspirations for their children? *Social Science Quarterly*, 91(4), 1083-1102
- Rouse, C., & Barrow, L. (2006). U.S. elementary and secondary schools: Equalizing opportunity or replacing the status quo? *The Future of Children*, 16(2), 99-123.

- Singh, G. B. (2008). Provision and condition for better classroom pedagogical practices. An unpublished research report. Kathmandu: EFA/CERID.
- Sparkman, B., & Carnichael, A. (1975). *Blueprint for a brighter child*. North Vancouver: Douglas David and Choules Ltd.
- Spera, C., Wentzel, K. R., & Matto, H. C. (2009). Parental aspirations for their children's educational attainment: Relations to ethnicity, parental education, children's academic performance, and parental perceptions of school climate. *Journal of Youth & Adolescence*, 38(8), 1140-1152.
- Stevenson, H. W., Chen, C., & Uttal, D. H. (1990). Beliefs and achievement: A study of Black, Caucasian, and Hispanic children. *Child Development*, 61, 508–523. doi:10.2307/1131111.
- Tatar, M., & Horenczyk, G. (2000). Parental expectations of their adolescents' teachers. *Journal of Adolescence*, 23(4), 487-95.
- Virginia State Department of Education. (1992). *A study of tracking and ability grouping in mathematics and science courses in Virginia's secondary schools*. Richmond VA: Virginia State Department of Education.
- Visser, D. (1987). The relationship of parental attitudes and expectations to children's mathematics achievement behaviour. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 7(1), 1-12.
- Wentzel, K. R. (1998). Parents' aspirations for children's educational attainments: relations to parental beliefs and social address variables. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 44(1), 20-37.
- Winn, W., & Wilson, A. P. (1983). The affect and effect of ability grouping. *Contemporary Education*, 54(2), 119–25.



International Journal of Indonesian Education and Teaching
<http://e-journal.usd.ac.id/index.php/IJIET>
Sanata Dharma University, Yogyakarta, Indonesia

HYPOTHETICAL APPROACHES TO SCAFFOLDING FOR LEARNING OF STUDIO PAINTINGS

Michael Olubunmi Odewumi

University of Ilorin, Nigeria

agbegilerebunm@yahoo.com

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.24071/ijiet.2020.040104>
received 20 July 2019; accepted 1 December 2019

Abstract

Painting is a branch of visual arts discipline in Nigeria education and often traced to Paleolithic age. The study was inspired by the dismal attitude of undergraduate towards painting and painting media this makes it very important for painting instructors to vary both media and method in painting. Therefore, Scaffolding serves as a panacea in filling the existing gap. Quasi-experimental design was used in the study. 60 undergraduate fine arts students of 200 levels of 29 males and 31 females were taken from a Nigeria university. The study presented two research questions and formulated two null hypotheses at 0.05 level of significance. Scaffolding Painting Achievement Test (SPAT) was of 50 items objectives question extract from validated JAMB visual arts examination was the test items. The Data collected were analyzed with ANCOVA and t-test. Study disclosed that undergraduate students taught painting via Scaffolding performed better and no significant difference was recorded between the mean of both female and male arts learners exposed to Scaffolding. It was recommended that Scaffolding should be used for teaching of painting in Nigeria university.

Keywords: curriculum of arts, gender, learning, teaching method, studio paintings, scaffolding

Introduction

Arts is considered as part of the man's experience and expression that features in diverse ways. Arts have its sources from the cave men and develop the learners' imagination and creativity. Arts promotes understand and express of feelings and ideas; assisting the learners to understand and visualize other subjects; helping learners to observe the world and develops value with the world around them (Punzalan, 2018; Odewumi, Omoyajowo, Onojah & Ajala, 2018). The curriculum content of arts in Nigeria senior secondary is divided into creative and performing arts. The creative arts enveloped both fine and applied arts. Applied arts are of graphics, textile, photography etc, while Fine arts is of both handy and premise with the branches as drawing, sculpture, craft and painting (Usman, Odewumi, Obotuke, Apolola & Ogunyinka, 2014).

Paintings a unique stem of fine arts in which the use of either knives or brushes are manipulate to stretch colours on a given surface for beautification and

aesthetic. The term painting has been portrayed by scholars in diverse ways. Painting is an act of applying colour or colours on to a prepared surface with the use of object. It is also the technique of spreading of colour on the surfaces of sketches and diagrams. In essence, it is the evenly spreading of colour to the existing walls, canvas and drawn objects purposely to change the colour (Odeyemi & Okonkwo, 2017; Odeyemi & Bello, 2017). The authors further explained the technique in paintings like pointillism, wash, impasto, mix media which are used to depict types of paintings such as still life, nature, figure or life, land and sea etc. Despite the creativity and fun in painting as a course of study, student's performances are very low.

In another dimension, researchers have expressed concerned about the problem militating against the delivery of learning content in 21st century globally. Studies have itemized problem militating against teaching of fine arts which the teaching of painting is a stem. Gambari, Obielodan and Kawu (2017) explicated that traditional method of instruction delivery is archaic and dismal to educational industry. Similarly, Adegoke (2011) reacted that more harms have been done to the system of education in Nigeria through conventional delivery system in the classroom. In reacting to these statements, study have emphasized that content delivery should be diverse to enable the stated educational goal achieved. The teaching methodology should be varied by the instructor to enable them achieved the stated objective.

In achieving aforementioned goals on accusation of paintings skills in Nigeria educational context, diverse pedagogical is put forward for proper teaching and learning of the course content, among them is the scaffolding method of instruction delivery. Therefore, Scaffolding is an avenue for interactional relating to learning and solution to teaching of paintings in the institution of learning. Although, Scaffolding appeared in the context of education in early 60s and it was linked with Social Constructivism Theory (SCT) that emphasizes helping and assistance given in a way of providing adequate solution to learning problem from an expert (Dinh, 2016). Empirical evidences on the definition of Scaffolding is inconclusive. For instance, the study of Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976) explicated scaffolding as a process of solving instructional task which learners can not solve individually. Sawyer (2005) explained that Scaffolding is the assistance provides to learners' during learning process which helps learners to achieve predetermined goal. A study by Mercer and Littleton (2007) expressed that scaffolding as an energetic and sensitive participation of both teachers and students in learning procedural. Similarly, Obikwelu, Read and Sim (2013) articulated that scaffolding is a developmental form of assistance that introduces a bridge to the existing gap created between what the learners has known and what is aspiring to know. Also, School (2017) declared that Scaffolding is a means of providing provisional support to both male and female learners' needs to enable them achieved their learning goal.

On gender and scaffoldings, the study by Bahador, Zand-Moghadam, Fanaie (2017) examined the role of gender through scaffolding mechanism in learning, the findings show that female-female pairs manifested more struggling than their pairs. In the same vein, Dawkins, Hedgeland and Jordan (2017) stressed that scaffolding

aids exhibited bias in favour of male learners than female. Also, Wood, Petkovski, De Pasquale, Gottardo, Evans and Savage (2016) stressed that scaffolding technology among the young male learners through parental assistance is positive. Also, Azih and Nwosu (2011) established that gender had no significant interaction in the teaching of Financial Accounting through Scaffolding instruction.

Since, scaffolding is a supportive instructional devices given to the learners towards a new conceptual and theoretical task that tailored the learners towards achieving a specified goal through the preliminary stages of learners' exposures to series of directions. Belland (2014) submitted that for scaffolding to take proper shape in teaching, instructor need to provide adequate supports to learners' ability and responses. If the support yields positive in term of understanding and competence in the earlier stage, the instructor should fade their supportive aid and also equip the learners with responsibility to move advanced independently to the next. Previous studies have revealed the efficacy of Scaffold on learners' acquisition of knowledge. Studies recommended that a well designed Scaffolding systematic delivery of instruction, combine to accommodate learners' different stages of knowledge acquisition and ability (Alibali, 2006), Studies have stressed the effectiveness and relevance of Scaffold for learning in different stages of educational development. For example, van Driel, Slot and Bakker (2018) established that scaffolding is positive in teaching the primary school Scientific Language Development. Also, the study by Slam Khan am, Fatima, Akba, Muhammad (2017) acknowledged Scaffold as effective in handling Post Graduate student's studies. More so, the effectiveness of scaffolding is well pronounced in different discipline. For example, Gibbons (2002) affirmed the usefulness and positive of scaffolding in teaching of language. Similarly, Reynolds and Goodwin (2016) suggested that scaffolding benefits the low readers in learning. Whereas, Chen and Law (2016) emphasised that scaffolding brings positive influence on students learning and acquisition of Writing skills.

In relating to the above statement, several studies have stressed the relevance of scaffolding for learning. For example, Miller, Russell, Cheng and Skarbek (2015) examined efficacy of writing competence and ability to reason clearly among the nursing in training. The authors recommended scaffold method of instruction to improve nursing writing skills. van de Pol, Volman, Oort and Beishuizen (2015) conducted a study on the effectiveness of scaffolding on the students independent in relating to time, task effort and achievement. The study concluded with Scaffolding not unequivocally but depends on the aforementioned variables. More so, Slam Khan am, Fatima, Akba, Muhammad (2017) researched the impact of Scaffold instructions on post graduate students learning. The study concluded that scaffolding assists to clarify concepts in postgraduate level of complex courses. In another study of Hasan (2018) on the effectiveness of scaffolding on the development of creative thinking on the academic writing skills of students in university education system, the findings revealed that both teachers and learners are of the same patterns in scaffolding technique of acquisition in creative writing skills. Also, Ismail, Ismail and Aun (2015) worked on Scaffolding in the context of problem solving among learners. The studies considered

scaffolding as a determinant and a links between scaffolding pedagogical and learners' problem solving skills which was emphasized by the study of Vygotsky.

Although, this study focused on the acquisition of studio painting skills for secondary school creative arts students. The study therefore is aligned with the major theme of theoretical framework of Vygotsky's that is based on social interaction. This plays a fundamental role in the development of cognition skills. Vygotsky (1978) declared that a specific function in a child's immediate development features twice on both social level and individual level, although, most of the theory of cognitive were done on language learning among the children. Piaget's (1959) argued that children must development before precede learning. Whereas, Vygotsky stressed that learning is crucial and universal for process the development of culture. Never the less, scaffolding as a teaching pedagogical originates from Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory centre around the learners, in that what the child can do and also assist to perform before the next learning to achieve with aid or tip from the competent hand (Raymond, 2000). The study by Chang, Sung and Chen (2002) reflected on the scaffolding as teaching method that provides support based on individualized learning. In essence, scaffolding is a role play by teachers in supporting the learner's improvement and given assistance to support actions to attain the next stage or level.

Obliviously, Scaffolding has been successful method of studies sciences, languages, readings, etc, but there are no studies known so far on scaffoldings and creative studio paintings. Despite, the rapid increase in the pedagogical use of scaffolding globally as a supportive measure and use in teaching learning tasks. It is clear that Scaffolding method of instruction in Nigeria secondary education is underused and lagging. Moreover, the need for scaffolding and its dully integration for acquisition of knowledge by promoting positive learning is imperative in teaching of creative and visual arts in Nigeria schools and colleges is imperative. Although, Scaffolding have the innate to expose and integrate learners to facts through guidance from experts. The extent to which the instructors perceived the usefulness of scaffolding in Nigeria educational context is still unknown. Therefore, based on this aforementioned statement, the current study examined the learning of creative painting skill in the arts studio through scaffolding aid in Nigeria University. However, the present study was put up to fill existing gaps created by the previous studies, by examine the effectiveness of scaffolding aid on the studio painting skills acquired in the fine arts studio by the undergraduate fine arts students in Nigeria university.

Method

The study employed quasi- experimental design method of pre and post-test. The 200 level undergraduate students were the targeted population. The students were involved based on individual consent. It was only the students whose responded positively and showed interest that were chosen to take active part in the study.

Participants/sample

The study engaged sixty (60) undergraduate 200 level fine arts students and they were purposively selected. The criteria used to pick the University for study were; fine and applied arts has been accredited and taught in the university for the past five years, there were qualified instructors teaching different courses in paintings, availability of a painting studio which is stocked with paintings materials like donkey chairs and easels for holding of paintings, and lastly, the university has graduates with the degree of Bachelor of Technology (B.Tech) specializing in fine and applied arts and major in Painting. The selected undergraduate students were randomly grouped into control group and experimental groups of twenty nine female and thirty one male with the total of number of sixty visual arts students.

Study instruments.

The instruments of study were:

1. The teaching content from extracted syllabus provided by the department which has been in used for accreditation by the Nigeria University Commission and for teaching the painting courses for the past five years (Course Code: FAA 201 and course title: Introduction to Paintings)
2. Lesson Notes: six weeks comprehensive lesson plan written checked and signed by the Heads of Department of the department of fine and applied arts.
3. Materials; (i) Non Human Resources: easel, donkey chairs, postal and oil paints, pastels and colour crayons, canvas and cardboards, drawing pins, blade etc are provided. (ii). Human Resources: Two instructors with minimum of Bachelor of Education specialised in fine arts and major in paintings.
4. Test items or questions named Scaffolding Painting Achievement Test (SPAT), was extracted from the validated JAMB question from year 2013 to 2018.
5. Marking guides: The solution to the test items.

Experimental Procedure

The methods and instructions guiding the study were stated in the manual given to both instructor and learners. The Scaffolding Painting Achievement Test (SPAT) was first administered by the researchers to the students.

Table 1. The t-test showing the equality of the undergraduate students before the treatment

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	sig
Experimental group	29	37.5	9.0	2.342	57	.004
Conventional group	31	30.1	13.0			

The table shows that the significant value of .004 is lesser than 0.05 alpha level which indicates no different between the experimental and conventional groups. In essence, the groups has the same entry behaviour.

More so, in line with the experiment, the two experienced instructors used were certified Bachelor of Fine Education Degree specialist in painting from a reputable institutions with additional qualifications in fine arts. They were designated to handles the treatment (experimental group) followings scaffolding procedures. The four stages in paintings were vividly explained along with the practical. The students were guided to followed the demonstrations (practical) of the instructor with each stage of (a) Drawing of the object. (b) Glazing with light and colours, (c) Application of paints to bring out tones and (d) Finishing. The instructors allowed the learners to proceed after satisfied with each stage till the last stage in sequence for six weeks.

The conventional group were also taught with the topics by the instructors of the same qualification of Bachelor of Fine Education Degree specialist in paintings from another reputable institution with additional qualifications on fine arts, with suitable teaching resources. After which the learners were gathered in a big hall to write Scaffolding Painting Achievement Test (SPAT) with paper and pencil. The test instruments Scaffolding Painting Achievement Test (SPAT), consisted of 50 objective test items with option ‘A’ to ‘E’ as the likely answer to the given question and the learners answers were scored on obtainable 100 marks which has been re arranged.

Collection of Data

The data gathered from the test instruments were analyzed with mean and standard deviation and the hypotheses is tested at 0.05 level of significance.

Testing of Hypotheses

Ho₁. There is no significant difference in the achievement of undergraduate students taught with studio painting skills through scaffolding.

To test this hypothesis, the pre-test mean scores and post-test mean scores of undergraduate learners exposed to Scaffolding were analyzed with t-test, this is shown in e 1.

Table 2. t-test of the pre and post test means scores of learners exposed to scaffoldings.

Variable	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pre –test	12.21	29	1.58	40.852	28	.000
Post-test	71.31	29	9.40			

Table 2 explains the t-test statistical output of the achievement of experimental groups at both pre and post test level. From the table, the F-value is 14.413 and the p -value of .000 was less than the level of significant (0.05). This indicates that there was a significant difference between the mean scores. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Ho₂. There is no significant difference in the achievement of male and female undergraduate learners taught with scaffolding studio painting skills through scaffolding.

The hypotheses two is tested with t-test to compared mean scores of undergraduate male and female learners of visual arts exposed to Scaffoldings shown in Table 3.

Table 3. The One-Sample Statistics (t-test) of male and female students taught with scaffoldings.

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	df	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Female	14	68.86	9.43	13	27.301	.000
Male	15	73.60	9.07	14		

Table 3 also explains the t-test statistical output of undergraduate male and female taught with scaffoldings aid. From the table, the t value was .185 and the p-value of .654 was greater than the level of significant 0.05. This indicates that there is no significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental group and the control group. Hence, hypotheses one is accepted.

Findings and Discussions

The hypothesis one that stated that, there is no significant difference in the achievement of undergraduate students taught with studio painting skills through scaffolding is rejected. The finding agreed with the findings of Dinh (2016), whose finding established that scaffolding is positive and also brings collaboration among the learners and considered to support meaningful learning. Also, that scaffolding helps in producing and upholding positive and stimulating learning. Similarly, the findings are in line with the findings of Reiser and Tabak (2014) whose findings stressed that scaffolding promotes self individual learning among the students. In the same vein, the finding conforms with the findings of Jumaat and Tasir (2014) who finding confirmed that scaffolding promotes learning and knowledge acquisition through teacher’s facilitation. Also, the findings in accord with the findings of Reingold, Rimor and Kalay 2008 and the study of Sharma and Hannafin 2007 whose finding stressed the effectiveness of scaffolding in promoting positive learning. The findings conform to the findings of Olson and Prath (2000) whose findings observed that scaffolding is significant and assists learners to achieve their goal through self directed.

Moreover, the finding is in support of the findings of Huang, Wu, and Chen (2012) whose findings mentioned that scaffolding is an effective instructional pedagogical in various educational stages. The findings negate the finding of Anne and Alan (2009) whose findings stated that the higher level of cognitive in term of scaffolding acquisition of knowledge had a negative effect on the learner’s development and capability to complete a definite task via solitary on instruction. In essence, it is real that scaffolding promotes learning of both theory and practical courses.

On gender, this hypothesis that stated no significant difference in the achievement of male and female undergraduate learners taught with scaffolding studio painting skills through scaffolding is also accepted, the result of the findings is in line with the findings of Azih and Nwosu (2011) whose findings established that using instructional scaffolding to study financial accounting is positive and without gender biased. Also, the findings in conform with the findings of Rahmani and Abbas (2014) whose findings confirmed that scaffolding is significantly increased the engagement of girls than boy in double-loop learning (DLL) peer game. Also, the findings are in line with the findings of Gibson, Jardine-Wright and Bateman (2015) whose study on Scaffolding recently been argued that it preferentially benefits female students, therefore it has the potential to aid in reducing the gender gap.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the study has strong implication in teaching of paintings skill. Although, Scaffolding is an educational pedagogical tool towards achieving specifying learning goals, the study exhibited the efficacy of scaffolding in teaching of studio paintings. Also, the study pointed out the great improvement in promoting teaching and learning via scaffolding. Based on the outcome of the findings, the recommendations therefore are; ectors should be encouraged to handling creative paintings teaching in Nigeria universities via scaffolding, overnment should provide enough the teaching materials for learning of paintings in Nigeria University, and government should monitor the lecturers to enable them judicious use of Scaffolding for Teaching and learning of painting courses.

In essence, Scaffolding could invariably be inculcating into teaching of paintings in Nigeria universities, teaching and learning would be advanced and positive.

References

- Adegoke, B. A. (2011). Effect of multimedia instruction on senior secondary school students' achievement in physics. *European Journal Educ. Studies*, 3, 537-541
- Alibali, M. (2006). Does visual scaffolding facilitate students' mathematics learning. Evidence from Early Algebra. Retrieved September, 12, 2008.
- Anne, J. & Alan, (2009). Maternal support for autonomy: Relationships with persistence for children with Down syndrome and typically developing children. *Research in Developmental Disabilities*, 30(5), 1023-1032
- Aslam N., Khan am A., Fatima G., Akbar A., Muhammad N., (2017). A study of the impact of scaffold instructions on the learning achievements of post graduate. *Students Journal of Arts and social Sciences*, 4(1).
- Azih, N. & Nwosu, B.O. (2011). effects of instructional scaffolding on the achievement of male and female students in financial accounting in secondary schools in Abakaliki Urban of Ebonyi State, Nigeria. *Current Research Journal of Social Sciences*, 3(2), 66-70

- Belland, B. R. (2014). Scaffolding: Definition, current debates, and future directions. In *Handbook of research on educational communications and technology* (pp. 505-518). Springer, New York.
- Bello, I. & Odewumi, M. O. (2017). Relevance of painting packages on the performance of junior secondary students in creative arts in Ila - Orangun, Nigeria. *Journal of curriculum and instruction, 10(2)*,107-117.
- Chang, K., Chen, I., & Sung, Y. (2002). The effect of concept mapping to enhance text comprehension and summarization. *The Journal of Experimental Education, 71(1)*, 5-23.
- Chen, C. H., & Law, V. (2016). Scaffolding individual and collaborative game-based learning in learning performance and intrinsic motivation. *Computers in Human Behavior, 55*, 1201-1212.
- Dawkins, H., Hedgeland, H., & Jordan, S. (2017). Impact of scaffolding and question structure on the gender gap. *Phys. Rev. Phys. Educ. Res. 13*, Retrieved from <https://journals.aps.org/prper/abstract/10.1103/PhysRevPhysEducRes.13.020117>
- Dinh H. (2016). *The effectiveness of scaffolding in a blended learning course from students' perspective*. A Master's Thesis in Education submitted to Faculty of Education University of Oulu
- Gambari, A. I., Obielodan, O. O., & Kawu, H. (2017). Effects of virtual laboratory on achievement levels and gender of secondary school chemistry students in individualized and collaborative settings in Minna, Nigeria. *Online J. New Horizons Educ., 7*, 86-102
- Gibson, V. Jardine-Wright, L. and Bateman, E. (2015). An investigation into the impact of question structure on the performance of first year physics undergraduate students at the University of Cambridge, *Eur. Journal Phys. 36*, 045014
- Hasan, M. (2018). Impact of Motivational Scaffolding on the Acquisition of Writing Skills in L2 Situation. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Invention, 7(12)*39-45.
- Huang, H., Wu, C., & Chen, N. (2012). The effectiveness of using procedural scaffoldings in a paper-plus-smartphone collaborative learning context. *Computers & Education, 59(2)*, 250-259.
- Ismail N., Ismail, K., & Nur, S. M. S. A. (2015). The role of scaffolding in problem solving skills among children. *International Proceedings of Economics Development and Research IPEDR, 85*, 154-158.
- Jumaat, N. F., & Tasir, Z. (2014). *Instructional scaffolding in online learning environment: A meta-analysis*. Teaching and Learning in Computing and Engineering (LaTiCE), 2014 International Conference On, 74-77.
- Mercer, N. and Littleton, K. (2007). *Dialogue and the development of children's thinking: A sociocultural approach*. London: Routledge
- Miller, L. C., Russell, C. L., Cheng, A. L., & Skarbek, A. J. (2015). Evaluating undergraduate nursing students' self-efficacy and competence in writing: Effects of a writing intensive intervention. *Nurse Education in Practice, 15(3)*, 174-180.

- Obikwelu, C., Read, J. & Sim, G. (2013). Children's problem-solving in serious games: The "Fine-tuning system (FTS)" elaborated. *Electronic Journal of e-Learning*, 11(1), 49-60.
- Odeyemi, M. O. & Okonkwo, I. E. (2017). Effect of painting series package on the performances of junior secondary cultural and creative arts in Ogbomoso, Nigeria. *African Journal Online (AJOL)*, 17(3),324-333.
- Odeyemi M. O., Omoyajowo B. S., Onojah A. O., & Ajala I. R. (2018). Students exploring educational e-learning technology of podcasts on fine arts instruction in Nigeria universities. *Pakistan Journal of Education*, 35(2), 175-192.
- Olson, J., & Parth, T. (2000). *The instructional cycle: Teaching children and adolescents with special needs*. Prentice Hall Inc., New Jersey.
- Punzalan, J. F. (2018). The impact of visual arts in students' academic performance. *International Journal of Education and Research*, 6(7), 122-130.
- Piaget, J. (1959). *The language and thought of the child (Vol. 5)*. Psychology Press
- Rahmani, E. & Abbas, M. (2014). The Influence of single-gender peer scaffolding in problem-based gaming on performance in double-loop learning and sub-dimensions of science process skills. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 116(2014), 4103-4107
- Raymond, E. (2000). *Cognitive characteristics. Learners with mild disabilities* (pp. 169-201). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon, A Pearson Education Company.
- Reingold, R., Rimor, R., & Kalay, A. (2008). Instructor's scaffolding in support of student's metacognition through a teacher education online course: A case study. *Journal of Interactive Online Learning*, 7(2),139-151.
- Reiser, B., & Tabak, I. (2014). *Scaffolding*. The Cambridge Handbook of the Learning Sciences, 44-62
- Reynolds, D., & Goodwin, A. (2016). *Supporting students reading complex texts: Evidence for motivational scaffolding*. AERA Open, 2(4), 2332858416680353.
- Sharma, P., & Hannafin, M. J. (2007). Scaffolding in technology-enhanced learning environments. *Interactive Learning Environments*, 15(1), 27-46
- Sawyer, R. K. (2005). *The Cambridge handbook of the learning science*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- School, C. (2017). Effective scaffolding. Instructional scaffolding noun a learning process designed to promote a deeper level of learning. <http://www.chaucer.sheffield.sch.uk/images/schoolimprovement/tla/scaffolding.pdf>
- An de Pol, J., Volman, M., & Beishuizen, J. (2010). Scaffolding in teacher-student interaction: A decade of research. *Educational Psychology Review*, 22(3), 271-296.
- Van de Pol, J., Volman, M., Oort, F. & Beishuizen, J. (2015). The effects of scaffolding in the classroom: support contingency and student independent

- working time in relation to student achievement, task effort and appreciation of support, *43*(5), 615–641.
- Van, D. S., Slot, E., & Bakker, A. (2018). A primary teacher learning to use scaffolding strategies to support pupils' scientific language development. *European Journal of STEM Education*, *3*(2), 1-14
- Vygotsky, L.S. (1962). *Thought and language*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). *Mind in society*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Wood, D., Bruner, J. S., & Ross, G. (1976). The role of tutoring in problem solving. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, *17*(2), 89-100.
- Wood, E., Petkovski, M., De Pasquale D., Gottardo, A., Evans, M.A., & Savage, R.S. (2016). Parent scaffolding of young children when engaged with mobile technology. *Front. Psychol*, *7*(690). doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2016.00690
- Usman, A., Odewumi, O., Obotuke, E., Apolola, O. & Ogunyinka, C. O. (2014). *Cultural and creative arts book one for junior secondary schools*. Ibadan, Nigeria: Spectrum Books Limited, Ring road Ibadan.



International Journal of Indonesian Education and Teaching
<http://e-journal.usd.ac.id/index.php/IJJET>
Sanata Dharma University, Yogyakarta, Indonesia

A BORDERLAND DISCOURSE ANALYSIS ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE STUDENTS AND GRADUATES TEACHING BIPA

Thomas Wahyu Prabowo Mukti

Sanata Dharma University

thomaswpm@usd.ac.id

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.24071/ijiet.2020.040105>

received 24 September 2019; accepted 29 November 2019

Abstract

Teachers' identity formation and tension in their working place have been the concern of many researchers and experts. However, the concern focuses only on the novice teachers who teach in the same subject as they are assigned to be. There is no sufficient research on identity tension which is faced specifically. This paper aims to find out the identity tension experienced by English language graduates teaching BIPA (Indonesian as a Foreign Language). This study employed a case study in order to generate a new understanding of this phenomena more deeply. Interview guideline with a semi-structured type of interview became the main instrument in this study. The participants of this study were five active Indonesian as foreign language teachers of Lembaga Bahasa Universitas Sanata Dharma. The study found out that teachers' situatedness* became the main issue that influences teachers' identity, compared to teachers' multifaceted nature and their college. This study shows that, although the participants have been teaching for more than two years, or more, they mostly considered themselves still as English teachers.

Keywords: identity formation, Borderland discourse, Indonesian for foreign language

Introduction

English students and graduates, especially from teacher training faculty, are commonly expected to teach English both in formal and informal school. However, some students and graduates choose not to teach English. In this study, I will specifically discuss English students and graduates from Indonesia who choose to teach BIPA (Bahasa Indonesia untuk Penutur Asing/Indonesian Language as a Foreign Language). This shift is actually shaped by the belief that most of the foreign learners are "bule (Indonesian way to call foreigners)" and able to speak English so that teachers must have English proficiency to be able to teach and communicate with those students. Indonesian Language students and graduates somehow feel afraid to teach the Indonesian Language as a Foreign Language, therefore, English students and graduates take the chance.

However, being able to speak Indonesian does not mean that they are able to teach Indonesian. Some English students and graduates take it for granted. They

jump to the field without considering the differences between teaching English and Indonesian teaching and learning process. Therefore, they may experience the gap between what they expect and what they face in the field which may also create tension in their identity formation especially because they are not prepared to be in this environment. It is understood since “teachers, both experienced and beginning teachers, are not always able to combine the realities of school practice with the way they perceive themselves as a teacher” (Van Rijswijk, Akkerman, & Koster, 2013, p.43) and their expectation related to the adaptation of their working place and identity formation. Considering this fact, teachers need to have the ability to think critically about the content and context of their own learning in teacher education, making pedagogical connections between how the ways one teaches and learns (Segall, 2002, p.74) in their new working place. This ability is necessary since teachers might have lots of problems that influence them as individuals personally and professionally.

It is common that teachers face identity tension in their new environment. This phenomenon occurs since teachers have to deal with many factors both from inside and outside of themselves (Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005; Butler, 2005; Beijaard, Meijer & Verloop, 2004). Thus, teachers need to integrate their personal self and professional self with the cultural, social and even political context around their working place (Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005; Butler, 2005). Additionally, Beijaard, Meijer & Verloop (2004) consider that they need have a “process of practice knowledge-building” which is also done by an ongoing integration of what someone's belief with a collective belief which is relevant to teaching (p. 123). This process is active and it includes creation and recreation process (Gee, 2000; Britzman, 2003). Further, this process is also related to “the cognitive, the emotional, the bodily, and the creative” of the students or teachers (Alsup, 2006, p.14). Indeed, many people would consider this process as problematic, chaotic, multifaceted, unsteady, flowing, contextualized, transformational and transformative (Alsup, 2008; Varghese, Morgan, Johnston & Johnson, 2005).

Beginning teachers are the ones who normally face the teacher identity tension. It has been the concern of many researchers and expert and there is a lot of research related to the identity tension of the novice teachers. Unfortunately, those researches do not really help the next beginning teachers to face what they will experience in the working place (Rogers & Babinski, 2002). It becomes worse since there is also a fact that teachers or lecturers at the university level do not really prepare their students with the reality that students will face. Robert and Bullough (1987) note that this condition makes beginning teachers become inconsistent and they even do contradictory to their own initial belief both in pedagogy, goal, and expectation.

Specifically, this identity tension happens on several students and graduates from the English Language Education of Sanata Dharma University especially those who work as Indonesian for Foreigner instructors at Lembaga Bahasa (Language Institute) Sanata Dharma University instead of becoming English teachers as they are trained and expected to be. A shifting paradigm, belief, and identity might happen to them in this case since they face a very different context

both in class settings, language masteries, students and the approaches. The identity construction most likely happens since they face a completely different environment and context from college context to the working situation context and later on to Indonesian for foreigner context.

This study focuses on the factors that influence teachers' identity construction identity formation (Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005; Xu, 2012; Zembylas, 2003) and the construction process of teachers' identity by employing Alsup's (2006) borderland discourse theory. The borderland discourse is used in this study since it focuses not only on "learning content, pedagogical technique, or research strategies for reflecting on practice" but it focuses also on "how to honor personal beliefs, life choices, and experiences that have value and meaning while enacting elements of the professional identity that society demands" (Alsup, 2006, p.126). Further, by understanding teacher identities using borderland discourse, it can lead to the analysis on how teachers build the images that they use to reflect on their personal teaching practices (George, Mohammed, & Quamina-Aiyejina, 2003). Further, the current state of the participants' identity and condition will be also depicted using the metaphors that they are using for picturing their life stage at their working place. This study addresses two research questions:

1. What factors influence the English Language Study Program students and graduates' teacher identity as Indonesian for foreign language teachers?
2. What is the identity that they construct during these processes?

Literature Review

Teacher's Identity

Identity is the unique set of characteristics associated with a particular individual relative to the perceptions and characteristics of others (Pennington, 2015). It can be described as the sense of a person's self-image and self-awareness as may be captured in the stories which the person tells about her/himself and also as this is projected to and understood by others (Richards, 2015b). Many researchers believe that identity is also related to the concept of 'good' and 'proper' or 'appropriate' behavior which can define someone's place in society (Pennington & Richards, 2016). It means that someone is actually required to negotiate their position and identity in different contexts which may also cause "struggle in relation to the roles and positioning of others" (Varghese et al., 2005).

Zembylas (2003) defines teacher identity as a teacher's personal viewpoint on their professional role, responsibility, and performance. Similarly, Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, and Johnson (2005) see the teacher identity as a combination of the individual and psychological matter since it is related to self-image and other images of a teacher. Further, the teacher identity is also related to their emotions, understanding of, beliefs about and attitudes to teaching and learning, and knowledge and skills in teaching practice (Xu, 2012). Pillen, Brok, & Beijaard (2013) add that the teachers' professional identity is an unstable product which means it is always actively changing and it will never stop. Thus, analyzing teachers' identity allows the researcher to focus on the "complex, situated, and

fluid attributes” of teachers which influence teachers’ teaching practice (Sexton, 2006, p. 75).

Factors Affecting Teacher Identity

There are several factors that influence teacher identity. First, it is the multidimensional or “multifaceted nature” (Tsui, 2007) of teacher identities. It is specifically related to gender, cultural background, and linguistic identities (Xu, 2012). In addition, their beliefs and value systems also influence teachers’ conceptions and practical theories in classroom teaching as well as their instructional strategies and performance in the classroom (Cheng et al., 2009).

Second, it is the teachers’ situatedness*. Expected role in the working place and the competence are the main focus of this issue (Le Ha & Van Que, 2006). Beginning teachers respond to the changing of their environment and professional roles and the pressures between the individual and their context (Billot & King, 2015). In addition, some studies also reveal that NNES teacher identities are affected by credibility issue which is related to their linguistic competence, students’ perception of their competence and others’ perceptions of their non-nativeness (Li, 2007; Liu, 1999; Liang, 2002; Moussu, 2002; Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999 as cited in Zacharias, 2010).

Third, it is the teachers’ colleagues. Teacher’s identity formation is constructed not by the teachers themselves but also by others (Danielewicz, 2001). In other words, teacher identities are co-constructed and the process of co-construction by the teachers themselves and others are not always in accordance with one another. Sometimes, contacts with new people and experiences may create what could be called ‘identity stress’ or even an ‘identity crisis’, in which a person feels unsure about her/his identity and questions who she/he is (Pennington & Richards, 2016).

Borderland Discourse

Borderland discourse is strongly related to the notion of teachers’ identity and the environment around it. It is related to the cognitive, emotional, and psychological aspects of novice teachers (Alsup, 2006). This integration is vital for novice teachers since they have to negotiate their positions and ideologies with the new environment while they have to also build their professional selves. It is Alsup’s (2006, p. 9) who considers this process as a way of learning “a new set of rules for behavior”. In her study, he found that students have a problem related to this professional identity when they did not completely disclaim their own discourses and when they accepted some of the new discourses of the educational community they were joining as novice teachers. At this moment, they realized that they have changed their belief and they became teachers without giving up themselves since they found their “teacher within” (Palmer, 1998). Through borderland discourse, the evidence of the contact between the personal and professional matters which can actually lead someone to the integration of those two completely different matters can be seen (Alsup, 2006).

There are two factors influencing teachers’ identity formation in Alsup’s borderland discourse. They are stereotype and social status which are

interchangeable to each other. A study by Weber and Mitchell (1995) as cited in Alsup (2006) shows that many people have stereotypical markers for teachers. This stereotype might lead to a misunderstanding since teachers might think that they should do what society believes. The situation might be problematic for teachers. Thus, Alsup (2006) suggest that in order to face frustration, tension, and relinquishment of the profession, teachers must create an identity space for themselves.

By applying borderland discourse analysis, the researcher will be able to have further discussion and enhance the meta-awareness of the novice teachers integrated and holistic selves' development (Alsup, 2006). Further, the borderland discourse might help teacher educator to develop a program or method to address any issues related to identity formation in education courses. It can be done since the participants are able to share their very personal parts of their lives that they believe important in their "personal and professional identities and reflected on the progression of their teacher lives" (Alsup, 2006, p. 11).

Method

This study employed the qualitative method in order to collect and analyze richer data. Specifically, I used a case study approach to get in-depth information related to the identity formation and borderland discourse. By focusing on PBI students and graduates, as one unit, who become BIPA teachers, the researcher focuses on acquiring "detailed description and understanding of the entity" (Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen, Razavieh, 2010, p. 29). Through a deep analysis of the participants' stories, this study is expected to give a brief explanation of the participants' experience and feeling regarded to their job.

To get the data, I interviewed five active teachers, randomly, who graduate from English language education study program of Sanata Dharma University or still become students and have taught Indonesian for foreign language at least two years at the Language Institute as the participants of this study. They are:

Code Name	Sex	Experience	Student/Graduate
EH	Female	2 years	Student
GN	Male	2 years	Student
AT	Female	5 years	Graduate
SN	Female	4 years	Graduate
KA	Female	5 years	Graduate

EH was a quite new teacher. She had been learning for two years. She was still studying at the English Language Education Study Program and at the same time working as an Indonesian instructor at the Language Institute. She was still considered as one of the youngest and the most recent members of the teachers. GN was on the same batch as EH. He was still studying at the English Language Education Study Program. Both of them had experienced teaching practice at the school.

AT was recently joining again the Language Institute after working for two years in different sectors. However, she had been teaching for 5 years. She was both an Indonesian and English teacher at the Language Institute but most of the time she taught Indonesian. Similarly, KN was also not teaching one subject. KN taught Indonesian, English, and Korean. She was a very experienced Indonesian teacher since she has been teaching Indonesian for five years in a row. She just graduated from Linguistics study program for her master's degree. Therefore, I considered her master Indonesian materials well. The last was SN. She was the best graduate from English Language Education Study Program but she chose to teach Indonesian since she was in semester 5. She only focused on teaching Indonesian and she was the coordinator for academic affair especially related to the materials taught to students. It means she dealt a lot with Indonesian materials and had to learn a lot since she was responsible for it.

They all have experienced both teaching Indonesia and English both in traditional classes and/or private course. Most teachers are female therefore the number of participants in this study is mostly women. The interviews were done in English in order to get maintain the data validity by reducing the bias possibilities in the translation processes.

The interview used an interview guideline which consists of eight open-ended questions. The questions are based on the theory of factors that construct identity (Varghese et al., 2005; Xu, 2012; Zembylas, 2003) and borderland discourse (Alsup, 2006). The interviews were a semi-structured interview, in which the questions were actually have been formulated but also modified during the interview process based on the interviewee's answers. Basically, the questions were designed to reveal what is important to understand related to the phenomenon under study (Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen, Razavieh, 2010, p. 438). Some questions asked to the participants were "Why do you choose this profession?" which revealed the participants' story and reasons or factors related to their decision of becoming Indonesian instructors (Li, 2007; Liu, 1999; Liang, 2002; Moussu, 2002; Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999 as cited in Zacharias, 2010), and "What are the changes that you feel from an expected English teacher to become an Indonesian teacher?" which revealed the participants' experiences in their working place which influenced their identity which analyzed employing the theories of Alsup (2006) combined and compared to Li's (2007), Liu's (1999), Liang's (2002), Moussu's (2002), Samimy & Brutt-Griffler's (1999) findings related to teachers' identity formation.

The researcher interviewed all participants then transcribed it. After all of the interviews were transcribed, I analyzed the data based on Moustakas' (1994) and Creswell's (2007) data analysis technique. It included analyzing the data in a natural validation of research data without considering my perception (epoche), familiarizing and organizing the data, coding and reducing data, synthesizing the data and later validating the processed data by giving back the data to the participants in order to check the validity and their agreements about all of the statements included in the data. Then, the researcher revised and rechecked the revised data to the participants while at the same time, asked the participants to check it.

Findings and Discussion

Factors Influencing the Teachers' Identity

There are several factors influencing teachers' identity based on data analysis. The data found were divided into three big issues. They are multifaceted nature of teachers' identity, teachers' situatedness* and colleagues. The occurrences of the factors which were mentioned by participants are listed below:

Table 1. The Factors Influencing Participants' Identity

Factors	SN	EH	KA	GN	AT	Total	Percentage
FM	2	3	7	3	1	16	36%
FS	2	3	4	7	5	21	47%
FC	1	2	2	1	2	8	17%

Note

FM : Multifaceted nature of teachers' identity
 FS : Teachers' situatedness*
 FC : Colleagues

The data show that the teachers' situatedness* plays a vital role in constructing teachers' identity. Most of the participants in this study mentioned that the expectation given by people to them as Indonesian teachers pushed them to follow and adapt themselves to it. It is especially related to the expected role in the working place and the competence they should have. Here is the complete discussion of factors affecting teachers' identity in this study:

Multifaceted Nature of Teachers' Identity

The multifaceted nature of teacher's identity is related to gender, cultural background, beliefs, value systems and linguistic identities (Xu, 2012; Cheng et al., 2009, p. 319). In this study, linguistic identity and culture have a big role in constructing teachers' identity. The linguistics identity in this study is mostly related to Indonesian language mastery. The participants mostly have the problem in this case since Indonesian is not the main subject they learn although they are Indonesian. Specifically, it can be observed in SN's explanation:

“... the major (job description in this institution) is teaching Indonesia to foreigners though I learn Indonesian it's about some years ago like I mean some years ago since I was in the senior high school. And then, during the bachelor degree, I don't learn it (SN 3).”

SN's description can illustrate the struggles faced by all participants who have no Indonesian for foreign language teachers' background. Lack of Indonesian knowledge and mastery become the biggest issue they face related to their job as Indonesian for foreign language teachers (KA 3; GN 10; AT 7, 9; and EH 4).

Realizing this situation, most participants tried to learn Indonesian from the beginning as KA mentioned below:

“(I felt it was) very hard (when I first taught Indonesia), because many people think that Indonesian is so easy because Indonesian is our native language, but after teaching Indonesia, Indonesia is so, so hard, I have to learn so many things and I found that the things that I believe before is not right (KA 2)”

It shows that the participant knew that she needed to change by learning again Indonesian although it is her own language since she realized how hard Indonesian grammar is. This reflection led the participants, not only KA, to learn more about Indonesian grammar – since they believe that they need to master it in order to show their teaching capability. Even, AT mentioned that she often pretended as a student in order to prepare for any students’ question related to Indonesian grammar (AT 13).

In addition, the participants’ culture as an Indonesian affects their identity and, at the same time, they are also affected by their interaction with students who have a very different culture. The participants, Indonesians who rarely speak directly what they want, have to face students who are straightforward (AT 4; SN 4). They mentioned that they were quite shocked knowing that students were very straightforward especially when they did not like the teacher or the way teacher teaches. At this point, their identity as Indonesian who rarely speak directly or indirectly changed. They realize that they need to face this condition and they adapt themselves to a very different environment in class every day.

In summary, the needs to master Indonesian, especially the structure or grammar, and the adaptation to different cultures lead the participants to construct their identities. They realize that since it is their profession, they have to really master Indonesian. Further, they have to also adapt themselves as teachers who are open to differences. It is in accordance with the fact that teachers have the multifaceted nature of teacher identities (Tsui, 2007) which is related to cultural background and linguistic identities (Xu, 2012).

Teachers’ Situatedness

This issue was mostly mentioned by the participants as they have to face the expected role, competence (Le Ha & Van Que, 2006) and stereotype as Indonesian for foreign language teachers (Alsup, 2006) which is different with what they are prepared to be. Thus, they have to respond to the changing of their environment and professional roles and the pressures between the individual and their context. This issue is actually also connected to the first issue especially related to materials mastery. EH mentioned,

“I felt like I didn’t have much knowledge on the Indonesian language then I saw that my colleagues have so much knowledge on linguistics and teaching method so *ya*, it made me, like, less confident about myself (EH 11).”

As teachers, no matter what their background is, they believe that they have to become a credential source for their students in their class. Thus, the participants

had to learn Indonesian materials in order to meet the expectation as an Indonesian teacher otherwise they will feel less confident and less capable in teaching.

Further, the participants have to also adjust the situation whereas there are only one until seven students in the class since the course offered in the Language Institute is mostly private course. It means that participants have to maintain a good relationship with students in order to conduct a good teaching and learning situation in the class. SN says,

“(Previously) we mostly teach students in a group, like in the class there will be around 30 to 45 students, but the major of the class here is private classes, so I have to learn how to teach in a private class... basically, I enjoy it more because it is easier to handle students, and because most the students here are on the same age as me thus we mostly engage in discussion (SN 6, 7).”

As SN has mentioned, this class setting makes the participants have to learn, not only the materials but also how to deal with their students who have very different culture and characteristics (EH 7; KA 6; GN 7; AT 3, 4). One of the ways to maintain a good relationship is by having lots of discussions in the class. AT and KA even mentioned that they had to really identify their students through fully in order to adjust their teaching style and technique for teaching students by having many intense discussions with their students (KA 11, AT 2,3).

It can be concluded that the participants are directly and indirectly demanded to be open to all to their students in order to create good relationships with their students. GN who has taught for about two years mentioned,

I never have interaction with foreigners before, so I feel like *a clumsy*. When there is a student, usually I just say *Selamat pagi*, for now I am more confident to talk more about something, when I communicate in the culture class I have more experience and can talk more and know what to talk usually I don't know what to talk because I don't know whether they understand or not (GN 11).

GN's utterances show that the inside and outside class setting changed him especially in the way he interacted with his students. He, who has difficulty in having conversations with others, realized that he had to be more open. As a result, he now could interact with his students better.

In summary, the materials mastery, class setting, and the students' culture and characteristics contribute so much in the participants' process of constructing their identity. This teachers' situatedness*, indeed, contribute much in developing teachers' professional identity since it is related to teachers' expected role, competence, and stereotype that contribute to participants' identity.

Colleagues

Teacher identities are co-constructed in the same time as they have contacts with new people and experiences which may make someone unsure about her/his identity and questions who she/he is (Danielewicz, 2001; Pennington & Richards, 2016). Undeniably, this issue also influences the participants' identity. It can be observed by the utterances mentioned by EH,

“I felt like I didn't have much knowledge on the Indonesian language then I saw that my colleagues have so much knowledge on linguistics and teaching method so *ya*, it made me, like, less confident about myself (EH 11).

The utterances show that the participant did care about her colleague's standard. She even compared herself to her colleagues. However, from this comparison, she reflected that she needed to learn more about the materials she will teach. Further, GN also indicated the same thing. However, it was mostly related to teaching attitudes. He mentioned, “Personally, I haven't changed but as educators and teachers I have changed. (GN 6).” Two statements from these participants indicate that they learn from their colleagues who are their senior. They tried to compare themselves to their colleagues and come to the conclusion that they need to learn since they have not become teachers as they should be.

Additionally, not only did colleagues influence the participants' identity but their friends and significant others also influenced their identity. This influence was in the form of support and even doubt. It is quite interesting especially when all of the participants said that their friends questioned their decision to become Indonesian for foreign language teachers. One of the participants mentions:

“They ask me why you teach Indonesian. And then sometimes they say like, where is your English, “*Inggrismu nendi e?*” Okay, I don't care because English, I mean that, it is good to learn English but it is not the only thing you have to learn for getting your future, so my English here (KA 4).”

The statements above show that many people question the participant's decision to become Indonesian for foreign language teachers since the participants were from the English Language department. Their friends might feel that the participants' English competence will be useless since the participants might do not really use their English but for communication. However, KA denied those hesitations by proving that becoming an Indonesian teacher gave her more values as a professional teacher and it also gave her more job opportunities to become Indonesian writer and editor (KA 8, 10). On the other hand, participants also mentioned that their family also questioned their decision but their family, actually, also supported their decision although it was not in line with what they learned in the colleagues (EM 22, GN 3).

In summary, participants' colleagues and significant others have significant impacts on the construction of the participants' professional identity. Doubt and support can be encouragements for the participants to prove that they are good at

their profession and they do not regret it. Further, this issue is also related to multifaceted nature and teachers' situatedness* especially related to language mastery and teaching attitude.

Although teachers' situatedness* was mostly mentioned by the participants since it is related to the expected roles of teachers that the participants always face, it is undeniable that other factors such as multifaceted nature of teachers and the participants' colleges also have significant impacts on the participants' teachers' professional identity.

Teachers' Identity

The Current State of Their Identity

This section will discuss the participants' current identity by analyzing their statements using Borderland discourse analysis (Alsup, 2006). According to Alsup (2006), analyzing the discourse using Borderland discourse analysis means a researcher could connect cognitive, emotional, and psychological aspects of teachers (Alsup, 2006) in their positions and ideologies with the new environment while they have to also build their professional selves. In short, the researcher learns how teachers adapt to "a new set of rules for behavior" in their working place which can also lead to the identification of teachers' identity.

To find out the participants' current identity based on their statement, here is the summary of their considered identities of the five participants:

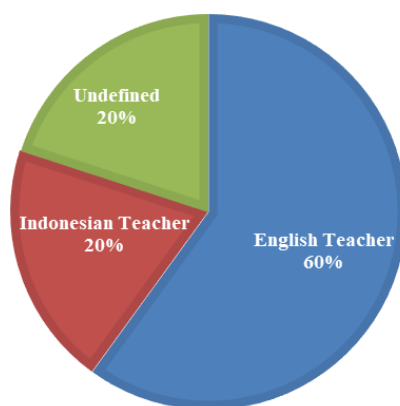


Figure 1. Participants' Current Identity

Figure 1 shows that most of the participants (AT, EH and GN) considered themselves as English teachers although they have been teaching Indonesian for more than two years, even AT is already teaching for 5 years. Based on the interview, they believed that they were still English teachers since they were more comfortable in teaching English. Here are their statements:

“... I want to be an English teacher because I am an English language education student. That's my job. Teaching Indonesia is I think more to get teaching experience and ... to have interaction and experience with

foreigners and experience in the working world. But, Teaching English is more than that. I want to be able to speak English also, I want to learn English also and I want to teach Indonesian people because when we teach Indonesian people, we can give a contribution to the nation and we can make our brothers and sisters more skillful (GN 12).”

“Well, it is very hard (to decide whether I am as an English teacher or an Indonesian teacher). I would identify myself as an English teacher because I am studying English. I do (miss teaching English) because what I have learned in university was not used. My English is only used when I speak to a native speaker or non-native speaker. You know, what I have learned hard is not really used in my teaching. So, it is sad. I feel more comfortable when I speak in English instead of Indonesia (EH 13, 14, 18).”

“To be honest, if I look at my capability and my knowledge, I am an English teacher because I have like more exposure in English linguistics and if students ask me a questions related to English, I can give more than one possibility, when students ask me one question in Bahasa Indonesia, I need to think a lot about it, because I know my weakness, I need to learn more Bahasa Indonesia (AT 10).”

The fact above is quite surprising since participants still consider themselves as English teachers instead of Indonesian for foreign language teachers although they had taught for more than two years. By analyzing their statements, it could be concluded that they were more comfortable in teaching English. From the cognitive and psychological aspects of the participants, I could also conclude the participants felt more comfortable teaching English since they were more capable and knowledgeable in teaching English compared to Indonesian. Previously, AT, GN and EH also had mentioned their difficulties in learning Indonesian grammar which was more complicated than English and they learned English in college not Indonesian. Even EH in EH 18 mentioned that she missed teaching English so much since she did not teach English since her pre-service program. Further, GN in GN 12 mentioned that he wanted to give more contribution to his country by teaching English to her fellows. It means that the Indonesian teaching experiences did not change their identity as an English teacher although the experience of becoming Indonesian for foreign language teachers might influence their way of teaching and interacting with their students.

In other hands, SN identified herself as an Indonesian teacher. She said that she used her English as the medium for communicating with her students. However, she mentioned that she considered the opportunity of teaching Indonesia as the stepping stone for getting a scholarship although she considered that she had been in this position too long (SN 1).

KA, who was teaching Indonesian, English, and Korean in the Language Institute, still could not decide who she was. She considered herself in the middle of the bridge that made her unable to move backward but forward (KA 19). It can be understood since she has much expertise which makes her unable to decide.

Although there are some differences related to the participants' current identity, I found a similarity on their statements: they chose this profession as the stepping stones for getting a better job in the future (EH 3; GN 1; AT 1, 2; KA 1; SN 1, 2). It is understood since the institution allows students who have not graduated to join the institution. Further, as part of Sanata Dharma University, this institution has a respectable name. It means those who have worked in this institution considered to have a good rapport on their curriculum vitae especially for applying for another job in the future.

In conclusion, three of the participants identified themselves still as English teachers instead of Indonesian for foreign language teachers, one of those believed she was an Indonesian teacher while one of the participants had not decided yet. Based on the borderland discourse analysis, the current identity is influenced so much by cognitive, emotional, and psychological aspects of teachers (Alsup, 2006) specifically the comfort of teaching Indonesian or English. Those who identified themselves as English teachers might be still not comfortable teaching Indonesian since they considered themselves more capable of teaching English while others might have felt comfortable teaching Indonesia. One similarity found here is the fact that this profession as a stepping stone for getting experiences and better jobs in the future.

Conclusion

This study has already answered its objectives which are revealing factors that contribute to the English students and graduates who work as Indonesian for foreign language teachers and the identity that they construct during the process of becoming Indonesian for foreign language teachers. This study found that the teachers' situatedness* was the factors that had a vital role in constructing the participants' identity while teachers' multifaceted nature and their colleagues and significant others also contributed to the participants' identity construction. Further, most participants still considered themselves as English teachers instead of Indonesian for foreign language teachers although one of the participants identified herself as an Indonesian teacher while the other had not decided yet. One similarity found in this study is the fact that this profession as a stepping stone for getting experiences and better jobs in the future. Additionally, the participants' revealed two important points which are the adaptation process they are experiencing until now the dissonance of the participants' expectation towards their current job. However, this study only discussed the current state of the participants' identity. This identity can be changing anytime, thus follow up studies could be done to reveal the changes experienced by those participants after some times. Moreover, it also possible to conduct a bigger scale of study to reveal the fact of English students or graduates who teach Indonesia as a foreign language in Indonesia. This study can be also a reference for English departments for preparing an Indonesian for foreign language subject for their students.

References

- Alsup, J. (2006). *Teacher identity discourses negotiating personal and professional spaces*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

- Ary, D., Jacobs, L.C., & Sorensen, C.K. (2010). *Introduction to research in education* (8th ed.). Belmont, California: Wadsworth.
- Beijaard, D., Meijer, P. C., & Verloop, N. (2004). Reconsidering research on teachers' professional identity. *Teaching and teacher education*, 20(2), 107-128.
- Blackburn, M. V. (2005). Agency in borderland discourses: Examining language use in a community center with black queer youth. *Teachers College Record*, 107(1), 89-113.
- Butler, J. (2005). *Giving an account of oneself*. New York: Fordham University Press.
- Castaneda, J. A. F. (2011). *Teacher identity construction: Exploring the nature of becoming a primary school language teacher*. The University of Newcastle upon Tyne.
- Creswell, J. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches*. Los Angeles: SAGE Publications Inc.
- Gee, J. P. (1999). *An introduction to discourse analysis: Theory and method*. London: Routledge.
- Le Ha, P., & Van Que, P. (2006). Vietnamese educational morality and the discursive construction of English language teacher identity. *Journal of Multicultural Discourses*, 1(2), 136–151. <https://doi.org/10.2167/md038.0>
- Moustakas, C. (1994). *Phenomenological research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Palmer, P. J. (1998). *The courage to teach: Exploring the inner landscape of a teacher's life*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Palmer, P. J. (2009). *A hidden wholeness: The journey toward an undivided life*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Pennington, M. C., & Richards, J. C. (2016). Teacher identity in language teaching: Integrating personal, contextual, and professional factors. *RELC Journal*, 1–19. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688216631219>
- Rogers, D. L., & Babinski, L. M. (2002). *From isolation to conversation: Supporting new teachers' development*. Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Sexton, D. M. (2008). Student teachers negotiating identity, role, and agency. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 35(3), 73-88.
- Van Rijswijk, M. M., Akkerman, S. F., & Koster, B. (2013). Student teachers' internally persuasive borderland discourse and teacher identity. *International Journal for Dialogical Science*, 7(1), 43–60.
- Varghese, M., Morgan, B., Johnston, B., & Johnson, K. A. (2005). identity & complex contexts and ideologies : Bilingual education in conflict-ridden areas. *Journal of Language, Identity and Education*, 4(1), 21–44. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327701jlie0401_2
- Varghese, M., Morgan, B., Johnston, B., & Johnson, K. A. (2005). Theorizing language teacher identity: Three perspectives and beyond. *Journal of language, Identity, and Education*, 4(1), 21-44.
- Weber, S., & Mitchell, C. (1995). *“That's funny, you don't look like a teacher” : Interrogating images and identity in popular culture*. London: Falmer.

- Xu, L. (2012). The role of teachers' beliefs in the language teaching-learning process. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(7), 1397–1402. <https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.2.7.1397-1402>
- Xu, L. (2012). The role of teachers' beliefs in the language teaching-learning process. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(7), 1397–1402. <https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.2.7.1397-1402>
- Zacharias, T. (2010). The teacher identity construction of 12 Asian ES teachers in TESOL graduate programs *. *Teacher*, 7(2), 177–197.
- Zembylas, M. (2003). Emotions and teacher identity: A poststructural perspective. *Teachers and Teaching*, 9(3), 213–238. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13540600309378>

CULTURAL FACTORS IN LEARNING MATHEMATICS: THE CASE ON ACHIEVEMENT LEVEL AMONG BADJAO STUDENTS

**Leomarich F. Casinillo¹, Maria Cecilia G. Camulte², Darwin L. Raagas³
and Teresita S. Riña⁴**

Visayas State University, Philippines¹; Bato National High School, Philippines²;
Hilongos National Vocational School, Philippines^{3,4}

leomarich_casinillo@yahoo.com¹, camulte-ecille.nc@gmail.com²,
darwin_raagas@yahoo.com³, and teresitarina@gmail.com⁴

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.24071/ijiet.2020.040106>

received 3 January 2020; accepted 31 January 2020

Abstract

This study focused mainly on the cultural factors such as beliefs, value practices and exposure to technology-related instructional materials in learning mathematics in regards to their level of achievement among Badjao students. At present, there are limited studies on the learning factors in regards to the level of achievement in mathematics among Badjao students in Bato, Leyte, Philippines. The study employed 71 Badjao elementary and high school students in four selected schools in the municipality of Bato, Leyte using a complete enumeration. Descriptive statistics and Chi-square Contingency Coefficient were used to characterize the variables of interest and to capture its relationships, respectively. Result reveals that the belief of Badjao students is high which indicates that mathematics is important to their daily lives and well-being. However, when it comes to their value practices, Badjao students rated average, which implies that they have mediocre study habits towards mathematics. Findings revealed that almost all of the Badjao students are beginners in their proficiency level in learning mathematics. Result shows that there is a significant relationship between mathematics achievement of the Badjao students and their beliefs about mathematics as well as their value practices in learning mathematics. Furthermore, their level of achievement in mathematics and level of exposure to technology-related instructional materials has no relationships.

Keywords: Badjao students, belief, value practices

Introduction

Badjao people are also known as the “Sea Gypsies” of the Celebes Seas of the Philippines. Apparently, they are scattered along the coastal areas of Tawi Tawi, Sulu, Basilan, and some coastal municipalities of Zamboanga del Sur in the Southern Philippines (Clarke, 2001). Badjao people are found living on houseboats where they make their livelihood solely on the sea as expert fishermen, deep sea divers, and some are navigators. Seemingly, they come to shore to barter their harvests for farmed produce such as fruits and cassava for daily food consumptions (Bottignolo, 1995). As their population grows large, some of them migrated to Bato, Leyte. Through economic development in the town of Bato, Leyte, several young Badjao were sent to school to obtain an education and to have a decent job later. Unfortunately, these Badjao students are having difficulty in catching up with the lessons due to some factors like socio-economic problem and lack of resources. Especially in learning mathematics, Badjao

students are experiencing shortcomings and negative learning attitudes (Sangcap, 2010). In fact, mathematics pervades life at any age, in any circumstance and its value goes beyond the classroom and as a school subject, therefore, must be learned comprehensively and with much depth (Casinillo and Aure, 2018; Mashile, 2001).

Mathematics makes the life of every human being meaningful. It is one of the tools used in solving a lot of problems that one has encountered in this complicated world. However, Badjao students are struggling in terms of comprehension to the new topics which leads to high failure rate in the subjects. Many studies supports that their level of achievement in mathematics is affected by their learning experiences, beliefs, value practices and exposure to technology-related instructional materials in mathematics (Gbore, 2006; Kunal, 2008, Nathan, 2008; Uslu, 2018). In the province of Leyte, Philippines, Bato is considered as a fourth class municipality which is composed of 32 active barangays. In this municipality, there are several Badjao people who are dwelling and make a living in this place. Economic activities in this municipality focused mostly in agriculture and fishery, thus, most of the Badjao people are considered farmers, however, younger Badjao people are striving for an education. Students from low socio-economic backgrounds often have parents with low level of income and less educational background, are often have negative attitudes toward mathematics (Schuman, 2000; Titu et al., 2008). Also, students in learning environment come from various places with different experiences, beliefs and values. Therefore, they are expected to have different needs, interests and abilities in learning mathematics. In fact, Badjao students must be investigated by stress and their happiness which is very important factor in academic performance (Casinillo and Aure, 2018; Schiffrin & Nelson, 2010).

Hence, this study was conducted from selected public elementary and secondary schools in Bato, Leyte, Philippines. This is to determine if culture really have an impact on students in relation to mathematics achievement. A thorough investigation was conducted to find out the beliefs, value practices and the level of exposure to information technology related instructional materials in learning mathematics in relation to their level of achievements. Furthermore, the purpose of the study is to document and highlight statistically significant relationships between culture and mathematics achievement that might impact the well-being of Badjao students to improve some existing policy in elementary and secondary level of education.

A negative learning attitudes in mathematics is a growing barrier for many students in any educational system (Popham, 2008). Beliefs, values and learning attitudes are taught implicitly rather than explicitly in mathematics classes (House, 2006). It was like an invisible hand, deeply hiding behind an individual's behavioral expression, cognitive process and emotional experience, but deeply affecting the learning process and thus the performance (Chunmei, et al., 2009). According to the study of Hansen (2000), learning is equated to a change in behavior in positive direction and influenced by demographic and cultural backgrounds, and learning environment. Perhaps, students learned by attaching meaning to what they do and need to construct their own meaning of mathematics which is highly influence by cultural background and experiences (Chamberlin, 2009).

According to Meggiolaro (2018), technology has also been shown to help create more authentic learning environments where the students are more motivated to attend, have a greater chance of communication and collaboration and have more opportunities to use higher order thinking and problem solving skills connected to real world applications. Prestridge (2012) emphasize that technology is an excellent resource to help connect mathematics to middle school culturally diverse students. Attitude towards technology use is jointly determined by perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use.

The latter influences the behavioral intention to use the technology that – in turn – determines the actual adoption and use of technology. In other words, computers allow students to connect mathematics to real issues in their communities (Uslu, 2018).

Hence, the conceptual framework of this study assumes that the level of achievement in mathematics among Badjao students are influenced by their belief, value practices and exposure to technology-related instructional materials. Generally, the main purpose of this study is to explain the cultural factors of the level of achievement in mathematics. Specifically, this study answers the following objectives: to determine the beliefs of the Badjao students in terms of nature of mathematics, importance of mathematics and on their ability in mathematics; to determine their level of value practices of Badjao students in learning mathematics; to determine the level of exposure of Badjao students to information technology related instructional materials; to determine the level of mathematics achievement of Badjao students; and to determine if there a significant relationship between level of achievement in mathematics among Badjao students and their cultural factors.

Method

The research design of this study was based on the study of Casinillo and Aure (2018), Chunmei et al., (2009) and Titu et al., (2008) that deals with determining the effects of significant factors in the level of achievement in mathematics. Primary data was collected on beliefs, cultural values, level of exposure to information technology-related instructional materials in mathematics and level of achievement in mathematics using adopted and standardized questionnaires. In describing the data, descriptive measures was used such as percentages and weighted mean. For further analysis, Chi-square contingency correlation was computed to determine the significant relationships between factors and level of achievement in mathematics.

Prior to the conduct the study, the letter of request was sent to the school principal of the four selected schools of municipality of Bato, Leyte and to some respective advisers where the respondents were studying. The list of Badjao students were asked to the advisers. Since there are only few Badjao students, then the study employed complete enumeration to have better results. Hence, all Badjao students from grades 1 to grade 6 in Dolho Elementary School and all Badjao students from grade 7 to fourth year of Bato National High School, Bato School of Fisheries, and Bato Academy Incorporated were included as respondents of this study. Table 1 shows the distribution of the participants in this study.

Table 1. Distribution of the participants

School of Bato, Leyte	Number of Badjao Students
Dolho Elementary School	48
Bato National High School	15
Bato School of Fisheries	5
Bato Academy Incorporated	3
Total	71

For ethical consideration, Badjao students were oriented on the purposes of the study. The said students were educated that the primary data gathered will be treated with utmost confidentiality and for research purposes only. Further, their participation was strictly voluntary.

In data gathering, the study used the instruments developed by Smith and Good (1984), that is a standardized test questionnaires which is a teacher made test. This instrument consist of three (3) parts. For Part I of the test questionnaires, it was composed of 20-item questions. These determined about the beliefs of the Badjao students towards mathematics subject. The response in this part followed a five-point rating Likert-type scale as follows: 1-strongly disagree, 2-disagree, 3-undecided, 4-agree, and 5-strongly agree. Part II was composed of 10 –item questions which determine the level of value practices of the respondents in learning mathematics. The response in this part also follows a five-point rating Likert-type scale, that is: 1-never, 2-seldom, 3-sometimes, 4-often and 5-always. For Part III, it was composed of 10-item questions which asked about the level of exposure to information technology-related instructional materials of the students in mathematics particularly the used of calculator and computers. The first 5 items of the questions were adopted from Portland Community College Calculator Survey and for the other 5 items of the questions were adopted from the study of Liu and colleagues (2010). The response in Part III also followed a five-point Likert–type scale the same as Part II. The said instruments were validated by the English teachers and Values Education teachers in Bato National High School, Philippines. Pilot testing was done also to test the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. Fortunately, the questionnaires were valid and reliable with reasonable Chronbach’s Alpha. In determining the level of achievement of the Badjao students in mathematics, average percentage scores of each student in the first and second periodical examinations was asked by their respective teachers. Table 2 shows the Level of achievement in mathematics and the percentage score intervals.

Table 2. Level of achievement in mathematics and the percentage score intervals.

Level of Achievement in Mathematics	Percentage Score Intervals
Beginner	75-80
Developing	81-85
Approaching proficiency	86-90
Proficient	91-95
Advanced	96-100

After the retrieval of the data, it was encoded, tabulated, analyzed and interpreted using the statistical software called Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20. The following are the statistical methods used in this study:

- 1 *Percentages and Weighted Mean.* This was used to describe the rating of the students to their beliefs, value practices and level of exposure to information technology-related instructional materials. Further, the following methods were used to summarize the level of achievement in mathematics.
- 2 *Chi-Square Contingency Correlation Coefficient.* This was used to determine a significant relationship between mathematics achievement and beliefs of the respondent in mathematics, significant relationship between mathematics achievement and level of value practices of the respondents in learning mathematics, and significant relationship between mathematics achievement and level of exposure of the respondents to information technology-related instructional materials.

Results and Discussion

In this section, it shows the descriptive measures on the variables of beliefs in the nature, importance, and ability in mathematics. It also shows the summary of value practices towards mathematics, level of exposure to information technology-related materials in mathematics and their level of achievement. Furthermore, this presents the correlation coefficients between level of achievements and cultural factors.

Beliefs in the Nature of Mathematics

Table 3 shows that the first 10 items is about the beliefs of Badjao students on the nature of mathematics. It can be gleaned that, on the average, students agree on their beliefs that getting the right answers is the most important part of mathematics with a weighted mean of 4.10. Badjao students believes that learning mathematics mainly involves memorizing procedure and formulas. Also, they believe that mathematics involves relating many different ideas and it is difficult for them to grasp the mathematical ideas. Perhaps, there common difficulty is taking quizzes and exams in mathematics since they forget relevant formulas and rules during class discussions. However, they strongly disagree on their belief that doing mathematics consists mainly of using rules and specific formulas. The grand mean regarding their beliefs on the nature of mathematics is 3.40 with a description that they agree to the indicators on their belief in the nature of mathematics (Table 3). In the study of Kunal (2008), it reveals that the relevance of beliefs as a component of mathematical disposition and their impact on mathematics learning is echoed in the curriculum and evaluation standards.

Beliefs on the importance of Mathematics

On the average, Table 3 shows that Badjao students agree on their beliefs and implies that they study mathematics because they know how useful it is daily lives. It also infers that knowing the concepts of mathematics helps them earn a living someday. However, they disagree on their belief that mathematics is of no relevance to their lives with a weighted mean of 2.35 (Table 3). However, the grand mean concerning to their beliefs on the importance of mathematics is 3.36 with a description that they agree. This result is parallel to the study of House (2006) which investigate beliefs and mathematics achievement.

Beliefs in their Ability in Mathematics

Table 3 also shows the summary of beliefs on their ability in mathematics. It can be gleaned that they agree on their beliefs that if they are presented with a new mathematical situation, they can cope with it because they believe that they have a good experience in mathematics. It also infers that they get flustered if they are presented with a problem different from class discussions. It also reveals that they have more confidence in their ability in mathematics than in their ability in their other subjects. The grand mean pertaining to their beliefs on their ability in mathematics is 3.46 with a description that they agree to their beliefs which is consistent to the study of Sangcap (2010). It is worth noting that the learning outcomes of the students are strongly related to their beliefs and attitude about mathematics (Chunmei et al., 2009).

Table 3. Beliefs of Badjao Students in Learning Mathematics

Item No.	Indicators on Belief in Mathematics	Weighted Mean	Description
<i>Belief on the Nature of Mathematics</i>			
1	Doing mathematics consists mainly of using rules.	1.00	Strongly Disagree

2	Learning mathematics mainly involves memorizing procedure and formulas.	4.03	Agree
3	Mathematics involves relating many different ideas	3.83	Agree
4	Getting the right answers is the most important part of mathematics.	4.10	Agree
5	Getting good grades in mathematics is more of a motivation than is the satisfaction of learning the mathematics content.	3.48	Agree
6	A common difficulty with taking quizzes and exams In mathematics is that if you forget relevant formulas and rules you are lost.	3.70	Agree
7	It is difficult to talk about mathematical ideas because all of you can really do is explain how to do specific problems.	3.73	Agree
8	Mathematics consists of many unrelated topics.	3.20	Undecided
9	In mathematics there is always a rule to follow.	3.63	Agree
10	The most important part of mathematics is computation.	3.34	Undecided
	Grand Mean	3.40	Agree
<i>Belief on the Importance of Mathematics</i>			
11	Mathematics is important in my life.	3.85	Agree
12	I study math because I know how useful it is.	3.92	Agree
13	Knowing math will help me earn a living.	3.31	Agree
14	Math is worthwhile and necessary subject..	3.69	Agree
15	Math will not be important to me in my life's work	3.03	Undecided
16	Math is of no relevance to my life.	2.35	Disagree
	Grand Mean	3.36	Agree
<i>Belief on Students' Ability in Mathematics</i>			
17	I have more confidence in my ability in mathematics than in my ability in other academic subjects.	3.41	Agree
18	If I am presented with a new mathematical situation, I can cope with it because I have a good background in mathematics.	3.87	Agree
19	I get flustered if am presented with a problem different form the problems worked in class.	3.51	Agree
20	I do not feel that I can use the knowledge gained in the math courses I have taken so far.	3.06	Undecided
	Grand Mean	3.46	Agree
Note: 1.00-1.79– Strongly Disagree 1.80-2.59 – Disagree 2.60-3.39 - Undecided 3.40-4.19– Agree 4.20-5.00 - Strongly Agree			

Value Practices of Badjao Students towards Mathematics

Table 4 provides the summary distribution of value practices of Badjao students towards Mathematics. In this regard, the result shows that on the average, students sometimes go to class on time in studying mathematics and listen to their mathematics teacher's discussion. Also, before they study, clean up their desks for study concentration with a weighted mean of 2.87, attend their mathematics class regularly with a weighted mean of 2.86 and study hard before taking any mathematics quizzes with a weighted mean of 2.85. The overall mean is 2.78, which implies that Badjao students are mediocre in doing the said value practices in learning mathematics. This is due to the family responsibilities that they can't focus on studying mathematics. Their parents assigned them to family task and obligation that is not related to their education.

Table 4. Value Practices of Badjao Students towards Mathematics

Item No.	Indicators on Value Practices towards Mathematics	Weighted Mean	Description	Rank
1	I cooperate in doing any mathematical activity in class	2.75	Sometimes	6
2	I close my mathematics notebook during examinations	2.72	Sometimes	8
3	I attend my mathematics class regularly	2.86	Sometimes	4
4	I study hard before taking any mathematics quizzes	2.85	Sometimes	5
5	I listen to my mathematics teacher attentively.	2.99	Sometimes	2
6	I will not give up easily in solving any difficult problems in mathematics.	2.39	Sometimes	10
7	I can make good use of time to study mathematics.	2.62	Sometimes	9
8	In studying mathematics, I go to class on time.	3.06	Sometimes	1
9	In studying mathematics, I intend to solve the problem. by myself and will not ask help from other people.	2.73	Sometimes	7
10	Before I study, I have a hobby to clean up the desk for study concentration	2.87	Sometimes	3
Grand Mean		2.78	Sometimes	
Note: 1.00-1.79 - Never 1.80-2.59 - Seldom 2.60-3.39 - Sometimes 3.40-4.19 - Often 4.20-5.00 - Always				

Level of Exposure of Badjao Students to Information Technology-Related Instructional Materials in Mathematics

Table 5 reveals that, on the average, Badjao students sometimes do a little work in mathematics activity that requires the use of technology as possible. They seldom use the information technology in mathematics class to help them better understand complex and abstract concept. This is due to lack of exposure on the technology. However, they think that using the calculator helped them better understand the material being covered and found that using a calculator helped them in taking a mathematics test in a convenient way. Result reveals that they never use a calculator in their mathematics class since they can't afford to buy. The grand mean is 2.12 with a description of low in their level of exposure to information technology-related instructional materials in learning mathematics. This result is not consistent to the study of Salam and colleagues (2018) that deals with integration of technology in public schools. According to Prestridge (2012) technology in class room setting support the development of particular mathematical concepts, applications and problem solving skills of students. Hence, students in the 21st century must be expose to the modernity in order to be competitive in the society.

Table 5. Distribution of Exposure of Badjao Students to Information Technology Related Instructional Materials

Item No.	Indicators on Level of Exposure of Badjao Students to Information Technology-Related Instructional Materials	Weighted Mean	Description	Rank
1	I use a calculator when doing my mathematics homework.	1.82	Seldom	9
2	I use a calculator in my math class	1.48	Never	10
3	I found that using a calculator helped me when taking a mathematics test	2.11	Seldom	4

4	I think that using the calculator helped me better understand the material being covered in mathematics class	2.17	Seldom	3
5	I found that almost all of the features of the calculator were very easy to use	1.90	Seldom	8
6	I do a little work in math activity that requires the use of Technology as possible	3.04	Sometimes	1
7	I don't have sufficient access to computer	2.07	Seldom	6
8	I don't have the necessary skills to use a computer or information technology in my class work	2.08	Seldom	5
9	The use of information technology in mathematics class has helped me to communicate and collaborate with my classmates	2.03	Seldom	7
10	The use of information technology in mathematics class helped me better understand complex and abstract concept	2.46	Seldom	2
Grand Mean		2.12		
Overall Description		Seldom		
Note: 1.00-1.79 - Never 1.80-2.59 - Seldom 2.60-3.39 - Sometimes				
3.40-4.19 - Often 4.20-5.00 - Always				

Level of Achievement of the Badjao Students in Mathematics

Table 6 presents the distribution of the level of achievement in mathematics among Badjao students. It can be gleaned that most of them fell under beginning level of proficiency with 91.5%. The respondents at this level struggles with his or her understanding; prerequisite and fundamental knowledge and/or skills have not been acquired or developed adequately to aid understanding. In developing level there were only two students which is equivalent to 2.8%. The students at this level possess the minimum knowledge and skills and core understandings and, with little guidance from the teacher and/or some assistance from peers, can transfer these understandings through authentic performance tasks. One student has reached in approaching proficiency which is 1.4%. The student at this level has developed the fundamental knowledge and skills and core understandings, and can transfer them automatically through authentic performance task. And also one has reached in proficiency level which is 1.4% and there were two students are advanced in their level of achievement in Mathematics with 2.8%. The students in the advanced level exceed the core requirements in terms of knowledge, skills and understandings, and can transfer them automatically and flexibly through authentic performance tasks. Table 5 shows that Badjao students are categorized as beginners in the learning of mathematics. This infers that these students must be motivated to learn and improve their well-being as a student by proper teaching strategies in mathematics (Casinillo and Aure, 2018; Casinillo and Guarte, 2018).

Table 6. Level of Achievement in Mathematics among Badjao Students

Level of Achievement in Mathematics	Frequency	Percent
Beginner	65	91.5
Developing	2	2.8
Approaching proficiency	1	1.4
Proficient	1	1.4
Advanced	2	2.8
Total	71	100.0
Overall Average Percentage Score	76.56	
Overall description	Beginner	

Relationship between Mathematics Achievements of Badjao Students and its Cultural Factors

Table 6 shows that there is a highly significant relationship (p -value <0.001) between the belief in nature of mathematics and the level of achievement in Mathematics. Also, it also shows that their belief in their ability in mathematics is significantly related (p -value=0.051) to their level of achievement. This implies that the Badjao students beliefs in the nature of mathematics and their ability are great contributory factors to their achievement. These are important considerations for the mathematics teachers so they have relevant basis for mathematical interventions to improve the Badjao’s achievements. However, their belief in the importance of mathematics does not influence their level of achievement. Based on the coefficient of determination, only 5.62% of the differences in students’ level of achievement in mathematics can be attributed to their belief in the importance of mathematics. On the average, it reveals that the over-all belief influences the level of achievement of Badjao students (Table 6). Based on the study of Sangcap (2010), it is stated that student’s epistemological beliefs about math were concepts in the personal epistemology area, which refers to his/her naive views or opinions about the nature and acquisition of mathematics knowledge. It cited also by Chunmei et al. (2009) that it was like an invisible hand, deeply hiding behind an individual’s behavioral expression, cognitive process and emotional experience, but deeply affecting the learning process. Moreover, there is a significant relationship (p -value=0.048) between the value practices and the achievement of mathematics (Table 6). This implies that the learning behavior of students really influences their level of achievement. This result is supported on the study of Kunal (2008) that value practices is the most important element of raising mathematics learning and teaching qualities. Further, there is no significant relationship between the level of exposure on information technology- related instructional materials and level of achievement in mathematics (Table 6). Only 10.56% of the differences in students’ level of achievement in mathematics can be attributed to their exposure on the technology-related instructional materials.

Table 6. Relationship between Badjao Students’ Achievement in Mathematics and Cultural Factors using Chi-square Contingency Coefficient

	Correlation Coefficient	Coefficient of Determination (%)	p-value	Strength of Relationship
Belief in Nature of Mathematics	0.713***	50.84	<0.001	High
Belief of the importance of Mathematics	0.237 ^{ns}	5.62	0.979	Weak
Badjao students' ability in Mathematics	0.477*	22.75	0.051	Moderate
Over-all Beliefs	0.591***	34.93	<0.001	High
Value Practices	0.521**	27.14	0.048	Moderate
Exposure on Information Technology	0.325 ^{ns}	10.56	0.753	Weak

Note: ns- not significant; * - significant at 10% level; **- significant at 5% level; ***- significant at 1% level

Conclusion

The aimed of this study is to evaluate the level of achievement in mathematics among Badjao students in regards to cultural factors such as belief, value practices and exposure to technology-related instructional materials. Result shows that students strongly agree about the beliefs on the nature of Mathematics, belief on the importance on Mathematics and the belief on students’ ability in Mathematics. It is concluded that they have a positive perception and believe that mathematics is useful in different areas in their lives. Also, Badjao students have observed a good value practices while they attend

their mathematics class and while they were doing mathematics activities in school. These beliefs exert a powerful influence on students' evaluation of their own ability, on their willingness to engage in mathematical task, and on their ultimate mathematical disposition. It is also shown that the level of achievement in mathematics is positively correlated by the beliefs and value practices. Further, there is no significant relationship between the level of exposure of Badjao students to information technology related materials in mathematics and mathematics achievement. Badjao students seldom work on the task that requires the use of information technology-related instructional materials. This implies that they have a less exposure to this type of instructional materials. Thus, majority of these students were in the beginning level of proficiency in mathematics. This infers that Badjao students are struggling to understand and comprehend the fundamental knowledge and skills in mathematics presented during discussion.

Hence, it is recommended that Badjao students should be exposed to information technology-related instructional materials like the computer and calculator technology to somehow give them other intervention that helps improve their level of achievement in mathematics in regards to their beliefs in and value practices. Furthermore, it is strongly recommended that similar study should be conducted in any public schools with larger sample size of Badjao students to better understand the students' level of achievement in mathematics and its influencing cultural factors. Also, a periodic evaluation of the level of achievement can help the teachers and students improve the teaching-learning process in mathematics in elementary and secondary level of education in the country. Policy makers in the Department of Education (DepEd) in the Philippines must provide a program that support the students with parents who are earning below minimum wage. For future research, an empirical analysis on socio-economic aspect of Badjao students in the Philippines should be conducted to understand the well-being and economic status. This is to improve the existing policy in public schools in the Philippines where Badjao students are present.

References

- Alabekee, E. C., Samuel, A. and Osaat, S. D. (2015). Effect of cooperative learning strategy on students learning experience and achievements in mathematics. *International Journal of Education Learning and Development*, 3(4), 67-75.
- Bottignolo, B. (1995). *Celebrations with the Sun: An overview of religious phenomena among the Badjaos*. Ateneo de Manila Press. Philippines.
- Casinillo, L. F., & Aure, M. R. K. L. (2018). Econometric evidence on academic performance in basic calculus of Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) Senior High Students. *Journal of Educational and Human Resource Development*, 6, 238-249.
- Casinillo, L. F. & Guarte, J. M. (2018). Evaluating the effectiveness of teaching strategies: the case of a national vocational school in Hilongos, Leyte. *Review of Socio-Economic Research and Development Studies*, 2(1), 64-79.
- Chunmei, X., Ping, Y. & Lizhou, Y. (2009). Influences on affect and achievement: High school students' epistemological beliefs about mathematics. *Journal of Mathematics Education*. 2(2), 1-11.
- Chamberlin, M. (2009) Teachers' reflections on their Mathematical learning experiences in a professional development course. *Mathematics Teacher Education and Development*, 11, 22-35.
- Clarke, G. (2001). From ethnocide to ethno-development? Ethnic minorities and indigenous peoples in Southeast Asia', *Third World Quarterly*, 22(3), 413-436.

- Gbore, L. C. (2006). Measuring between free time availability and student performance perceptions. *Marketing Education Review*, 12, 21-32.
- House, J. D. (2006). Mathematics beliefs and achievement of elementary school students in Japan and the United States: Results from the third international mathematics and science study. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 167(1), 31–45.
- Kunal, D. S. (2008). Cultivating competence, self-efficacy and intrinsic interest through proximal self-motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 4(3), 586-598.
- Liu, E. Z. F., Lin, C. H., & Chang, C. S. (2010). Student satisfaction and self-efficacy in a cooperative robotics course. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 38(8), 1135-1146.
- Mashile, E. O. (2001). Science achievement determinants: factorial structure of family variables. *South African Journal of Education*, 21, 335-338.
- Meggiolaro, S. (2018). Information and communication technologies use, gender and mathematics achievement: evidence from Italy. *Social Psychology of Education*, 21(2), 497-516. Doi: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11218-017-9425-7>
- Nathan, R. Kuncel. (2008). Intemporal consistency of predictors of student performance: Evidence from a business administration programme. *Journal of Education for Business*, 82, 88-93.
- Prestridge S. (2012). The beliefs behind the teacher that influences their ICT practices. *Computers & Education*, 58(1), 449–458. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2011.08.028>
- Salam, S., Zeng, J. Q., Pathan, Z. H., Latif, Z., & Shaheen, A. (2018). Impediments to the Integration of ICT in Public Schools of Contemporary Societies: A Review of Literature. *Journal of Information Processing Systems*, 14(1), 252-269. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.3745/JIPS.04.0062>
- Sangcap, P. G. A. (2010). Mathematics-related beliefs of Filipino college students: Factors affecting mathematics and problem solving performance. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Science*, 8(1), 465-475. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.12.064
- Schiffirin, H. H., & Nelson, S. K. (2010). Stressed and happy? Investigating the relationship between happiness and perceived stress. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 11(1), 33-39. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10902-008-9104-7>
- Schuman, E. J. (2000). Impact of personality on academic performance of MBA students: Qualitative versus quantitative courses. *Journal of Innovation Education*, 4, 175-190.
- Smith, M. & Good, R. (1984). Problem solving and classical genetics, successful versus unsuccessful performance. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 21, 895-912
- Titu, A., Gallian, J., Kane, J. & Mertz, J. (2008). Cross-cultural analysis of students with exceptional talent in mathematical problem solving. *Notices of the American Mathematical Society*, 55(10), 1248-1260.
- Uslu, O. (2018). Factors associated with technology integration to improve instructional abilities: A path model. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 43 (4), 31-50. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2018v43n4.3>



ANALYSIS OF THE COMPETENCY OF FRESH GRADUATED HIGHER EDUCATION IN SUPPORTING INDUSTRIAL ERA 4.0

Edy Sahputra Sitepu¹, Agus Edy Rangkuti² and Ferry Fachrizal³

^{1,2,3}Politeknik Negeri Medan

edy.sitepu@polmed.ac.id¹, agusrangkuti@polmed.ac.id² and

ferry_polmed@yahoo.com³

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.24071/ijiet.2020.040107>

received 8 November 2019; accepted 5 December 2019

Abstract

This article analyses the need for Industry 4.0 HR competencies. The study was conducted at several tertiary institutions in Medan, where the sample was determined by purposive random sampling. The variables used in this study include; a) sense-making, b) social intelligent, c) novel and adaptive thinking, d) cross-cultural competency, e) computational thinking, f) new-media literacy, g) transdisciplinary, h) design thinking, i) cognitive load management, j) virtual collaboration. Furthermore, the data were analyzed using the Confirmatory Factor Analysis approach. The output of this research is expected to provide input and strategies for universities in strengthening the quality of the fresh graduated HR output produced. The results of this study indicate that based on the results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis, the ten variables used have a positive relationship between variables and can be an estimator to see how fresh graduated human resources are ready to face industry 4.0.

Keywords: Industry 4.0, sense-making, social intelligence, novel and adaptive thinking, cross-cultural competency

Introduction

At present, the 4.0 industrial revolution has become a new paradigm which is currently a hot topic in the world, including in Indonesia. Blanchet et al. (2014) suggested that the industrial revolution 4.0 was a development in which the strength of industrial manufacturing was optimized with the latest internet technology which was at the core of the industrial development 4.0. It is therefore natural that industry 4.0 experiences increasing attention, especially in Europe Blanchet et al. (2014)

including in Indonesia (Nurwardani, 2018a), as well as in the United States where the industrial internet has developed (Annunziata & Evans, 2012). Industry 4.0 is often compared to an increase in products such as the industrial revolution initiated by the presence of steam engines, electricity, and others. Similar to Industry 4.0, this "revolution" was started not by a single technology, but by the interaction of the number of technological advances whose quantitative effects created new modes of production.

New manufacturing technology has always been a competitive advantage for companies because it helps produce faster and more flexible, where rapid advances in manufacturing technology have also contributed to industrial development. Industry 4.0 is a term for the realistic concept of the next industrial revolution. The central vision of the 4th industrial revolution is the emergence of smart factories. In smart factories, sensors, machines, and IT systems will be connected to cyber-physical systems - CPS (Benesova et al., 2018).

The building blocks of Industry 4.0 are nine essential technologies - autonomous robots, internet of things (IoT), big data, simulations, vertical and horizontal system integration, cloud computing, cybersecurity, cybersecurity, additive manufacturing, and augmented reality. These nine technology trends will turn production into a fully integrated, automated, and optimized production flow. Smart manufacturing will help achieve a manufacturing process that is flexible, smart, and can be reconfigured to deal with dynamic markets. This industrial revolution not only had an impact on the industry but also on the labor market and education. Some professions and jobs have disappeared. The main reason for this impact is the change in educational requirements on employees. Controlling, maintaining, and operating new technology will only require qualified employees (Benesova et al., 2018; Rüßmann et al., 2015).

Along with the introduction of Industry 4.0 also introduced Education 4.0, which is a term for the concept of education in the new digital era. New technology trends, such as augmented reality will be implemented in the education system. This new education system will combine real and virtual world information (Quint, Sebastian & Gorecky, 2015). It is hoped that the number of students will increase in the field of technical studies because every company will need employees with professional education.

For this reason, young people must be educated in areas such as robotics, cybernetics, data analysis, and other mechanical or natural sciences. Future graduates must be trained in line with Industry 4.0. It is problematic because it is not clear how innovation will develop and what qualifications and future knowledge graduates need for their profession in Industry 4.0.

Collaboration between schools and universities and companies will be essential for Education 4.0. In many cases, it will be necessary to educate and retrain current company employees because their education and knowledge may not be enough for the company's future needs. At present, the lack of qualified employees is one of the highest risks for Industry 4.0. For this reason, new technological trends (virtual learning environments, factory learning, or augmented reality) must be included in education (Motyl et al., 2017).

Several studies have observed ways to transform education itself following Industry 4.0 principles, while at the same time, some recommend more

transformation of tertiary education by adjusting to the vision of Industry 4.0 and several steps to make the educational experience of students individual expertise needed in the industrial world. Coşkun et al. (2019) report on the acceptance of digital education technology especially in vocational education. They emphasized the role of digital media as a means for individualizing instruction like Industry 4.0. They created a condition variable model for education 4.0, which consisted of changes in technology and processes, changes in teaching and learning, changes in interests and economic models, and social-professional discourse. Intelligent machines, machine to machine communication (M2M), data security, big data, support systems such as mixed reality systems are the fields they emphasize in changing technology. In transforming teaching and learning, they consider individualization of learning, on-demand learning, cloud learning, and innovative learning environments such as mixed reality simulations, augmented reality, and remote laboratories.

Tenberg and Pittich (2017) discuss and analyze the impact of industry 4.0, especially on vocational education. They came to the exciting conclusion that the adoption of industry 4.0 could result in a decrease in the share of vocational education for higher education if the necessary steps were not taken to change vocational education fundamentally. In the context of our work, this can be interpreted in a way that technical education in industry 4.0 cannot be imagined without linking it to practice and direct employment because there is a risk of lack of adequate sources of technical support from vocational education.

Literature Review

The concept of "Industry 4.0" first appeared in an article published by the German Government in November 2011, as a high-tech strategy for 2020. After mechanisation, electrification and information, the fourth stage of industrialisation was named "Industry 4.0". In April 2013, the term "Industry 4.0" reappeared at an industry exhibition in Hannover, Germany, and quickly emerged as a strategy of German citizens. In recent years, "Industry 4.0" has been widely used for discussion, and has become a hotspot for most global and information industries. Industry 4.0 wants to be the new industrial revolution, which wants to have a big influence on international industry (Zhou & Zhou, 2015).

Throughout history, there have been four major phases of the industrial revolution (Geissler & Horstkötter, 2014; Lasi et al., 2014). The Industrial Revolution 1.0 took place in the years 1750-1850, Industrial Revolution 2.0, known as the phase of technological change that was large in the industrial sector. The 2.0 industrial revolution took place in 1870 - 1914 (beginning of World War I). The emergence of combustion chamber combustion, power generation and motorcycles, telephones, cars, aircraft and others is a feature of the industrial revolution 2.0. The 3.0 industrial revolution was marked by the presence of digital technology and the internet. In the industrial revolution 4.0, new patterns were discovered along with the presence of disruptive technology. Industry 4.0 describes the current concept as a collective concept. The following are essential components of Industry 4.0 according to Lucke et al. (2008), among others; 1) smart factory,

2) cyber-physical systems, 3) self-organisation, 4) new systems in sales and procurement, 5) new systems in product and development services, 6) adaptation to humans, 7) corporate social responsibility.

According to Suwardana (2018), the key to the existence of change itself is innovation. Innovation is the most crucial factor in determining competitiveness. Achievement of innovation is committed to what extent a business organisation can optimise the body of knowledge, technology transfer, business incubation, science and technopark. There are five critical elements that the government will implement to stimulate the nation's economic growth and competitiveness in industry 4.0, including 1) implementing innovative learning systems; 2) review campus institutional policies to be more adaptive and responsive; 3) improving the quality of HR lecturers, researchers, and engineers; 4) research innovations that support industry 4.0; and 5) innovation and system strengthening to increase industrial output and encourage the birth of technology-based start-up (Wisnubro, 2018).

According to Mohnasesemka (2018), the Industrial IoT 4.0 instrument was recognized with IoT or Industrial Internet of Things; previously, it was beneficial for internal monitoring. Furthermore, in his scientific article Rübmann et al. (2015) stated, there are at least nine industries 4.0 pillars, among others, reported as follows; big data and analytics, autonomous robots, simulation, horizontal and vertical integration of IT systems, the industrial internet of things, cybersecurity, the cloud, additive manufacturing and augmented reality.

Sanders et al. (2016) show six design principles, derived from Industry 4.0 technology, which support companies in identifying possible pilot projects: 1) interoperability, 2) virtualization, 3) decentralization, 4) real-time capabilities, 5) service orientation and 6) modularity. Despite growing fame, various companies are still struggling to understand the whole idea of Industry 4.0 and specific concepts and principles that are in it. Nurwardani (2018b) argues, there are at least 10 HR competencies needed during the 4.0 industrial revolution, namely: 1) sense-making, 2) social intelligence, 3) novel and adaptive thinking, 4) cross-cultural competence, 5) computational thinking, 6) new-media literacy, 7) transdisciplinary, 8) mindset design, 9) cognitive load management and 10) virtual collaboration.

Putubuku (2008) suggests the theory of sense-making, especially to understand the search for strategic data and information. In order to use sense-making, one must master aspects of ontology and epistemology. Simply put, "ontology" is the element of "what" (the nature of phenomena) while "epistemology" is the element of "how to understand" what that element is. According to Rahim et al. (2017) social, intelligent includes; a) empathy, (b) alignment, c) empathic accuracy, d) social understanding, e) synchronization, f) presentation, g) influence and h) caring.

While novels and adaptive thinking may be easy for some people, others can strengthen their skills by practicing the following steps: a) realize, b) allow, c) control, d) be open, e) anticipate, f) ask questions, and g) assess. The National Research Council (NRC), introduces reasoning that according to the researcher

includes the ability of induction and deduction which is then added with the term adaptive logic. The researcher, namely Killpatrick et al. (2001: 116), defines adaptive reasoning (adaptive reasoning) as the ability of students to do in-depth analysis (Choiriyah, 2015).

Cross-cultural competence refers to knowledge, skills, and influences/motivations that enable individuals to adapt effectively in a cross-cultural environment. Cross-cultural competence is defined here as an individual's ability to contribute to intercultural effectiveness regardless of the intersection of a particular culture. Although some aspects of cognition, behavior, or influence may be very relevant in certain countries or regions, the evidence shows that a set of core competencies allows adaptation to any culture (Wiseman & Jolene, 1993). Cross-cultural competence is not an end in itself but is a set of variables that contribute to intercultural effectiveness. The results show that cross-cultural competency is needed in many ways, especially in the world of work (Daraiseh, 2018); (Perez et al., 2019); (Barzykowski et al., 2019). Leiba-O'Sullivan (1999) suggests the dimensions of cross-cultural competency include; emotional stability, extraversion (comfort interacting with others), agreeableness, openness to experience, conscientiousness.

Computational thinking is a term that is currently used to refer to ideas and concepts in the application of various fields of informatics. Internationally, there have been differences of opinion regarding the importance of computer science (as content and as one of the general capabilities). The characteristics of computational thinking include the following; "1) formulating problems with the use of computers, 2) designing logic concepts in grouping and analyzing data, 3) presenting data through abstraction models or simulations, 4) algorithmic thinking solutions (a series of steps), 5) implementing the most economical possible solutions and effective and 6) generalization" (Bocconi et al. 2016). Rojas-Lopez & Garcia-Penalvo (2018) mentioned that computational thinking skills include aspects; abstraction (understanding), decomposition (analysis process), generalization (localizing problems, solving problems, making changes), evaluation (conducting evaluation processes) and algorithmic design (comparing and looking for other alternatives in solving problems).

Media literacy is an effective and efficient skill in using mass communication (Strasburger & Wilson, 2002). Another expert Potter (2005) in Poerwaningtias et al., (2013) defines media literacy as the ability to interpret the message received and how to anticipate it. Livingstone (2004) suggests that new media literacy is a skill to access, analyze, evaluate, and create messages in various contexts. His research identifies some extraordinary problems for new media literacy that are important for policies promoting media literacy among populations. The result is to broaden our understanding of media literacy to include historically and culturally conditioned relations between three processes: (i) symbolic and material representations of knowledge, culture, and values; (ii) diffusion of interpretative skills and abilities across populations (stratified); and (iii) institutional, in particular, state management of the power that access to and use of skilled

knowledge brings to those who are 'literate'. Chen & Lee (2018) mentioned that indicators of new media literacy include; a) consuming functional literacy, consisting of absorbing skills and understanding, b) critical consuming literacy, consisting of analysis, synthesis and evaluation c) functional presuming literacy covering aspects of presuming skills, distribution and production and d) critical presuming literacy, which includes aspects participation and creation.

The meaning of transdisciplinary is; merging two or more disciplines. Transdisciplinary is an attempt to solve a problem by uniting several disciplines into a single unit or across disciplines (Nicolescu, 2002). According to Montuori (2013), complexity and transdisciplinary are very relevant in an increasingly diverse, networked, uncertain and fast-changing world. Examples are drawn from personal experience in academics, cross-cultural encounters, and the arts. Tejedor et al. (2018) bring together the elements of transdisciplinary, among others; a) transcendence and b) problem solving (real word argument and innovation argument).

The design mindset is one of the skills included in the Institute for the Future (IFTF) Future Work Skill 2020. The mindset design is a relatively new discourse but is increasingly being adopted in so many occupations and industries, even though it is not visually visible. IFTF defines the design mindset as "the ability to represent and develop tasks and work processes for desired results," while Naiman (2019) prefers to think of it as a strategy that focuses on solutions for decision making and problem-solving. This process, according to Naiman, refers to logic, intuition, imagination and systemic reasoning to explore possibilities and realize desired outputs that are beneficial to users. What is meant by design thinking is the ability to empathize, think creatively, collaborate productively, experiment with various solutions and communicate ideas, where these skills can be learned by everyone (Kelly et al., 2018).

Cognitive load management theory aims to predict learning output by considering the abilities and limitations of human cognitive architecture (Paas et al., 2004; Paas et al., 2003; Plaas et al., 2010; Plass & Kalyuga, 2019). Cognitive load management theory is a theory about the gap between task demands and one's abilities (Moray, 2013). Cognitive load theory is a theory that explains the amount of working memory to process information (Cooper, 1990). Cognitive load management is a theory that starts from teaching theory, based on cognitive architecture (Sweller, 2010). According to Sari (2012), how to manage cognitive load in learning can be divided into intrinsic cognitive load and foreign cognitive load (Tonra, 2014). Cognitive load theory, according to Sweller (2010) states that cognitive load is caused by 1) intrinsic cognitive load, 2) extraneous cognitive load, and 3) germane cognitive load.

In the work of standard forms of virtual collaboration, among others, virtual teams, virtual learning-distance education, virtual meetings (Chen et al., 2004). A number of the most important studies have been conducted related to virtual collaboration, among others, led by Beavers et al. (2017); Rennstich (2019); Zhang et al. (2018); dan Srivastava and Chandra (2018). According to Rennstich (2019),

an online collaborative creative process consists of all activities aimed at solving group problems that do not have standard solutions, which are mediated through web-based tools. Usually, such issues require interdisciplinary, lateral thinking, social empathy, and broad ideas with the aim of mutual inspiration. The processes applied are often nonlinear and depend on synchronous and asynchronous multimodal communication methods, with a particular focus on visual tools. Virtual collaboration is an activity related to the extensive use of technology channels for team members to work together on completing project tasks (Zhang et al., 2018; Peters & Manz, 2007).

Tortorella and Fettermann (2018) examined the relationship between lean production (LP) and the application of industry 4.0 in Brazilian manufacturing companies. The findings show that LP practices are positively related to industry technology 4.0, and their concurrent use leads to more significant performance improvement. Furthermore, the contextual variables being investigated are indeed crucial for this association, although not all aspects are essential at the same level and effect. Anwar et al. (2018) suggested that character building is not only done in formal education (educational institutions), but non-formal education (parents, friends, and organizations) also has a significant impact on students. In the face of the industrial era 4.0, character building of parents, educational institutions and government are needed.

Motyl et al. (2017) highlight several aspects of student digital behavior and students' consideration of the industrial framework 4.0. Specifically, data describing students' relationships with digital devices and their level of knowledge on specific topics such as virtual, augmented and mixed reality, 3D printing and smart factory are very significant in understanding what students think. Coşkun et al. (2019) in his work introduces a road map consisting of three pillars that describe changes/improvements to be made in the fields of curriculum development, laboratory concepts, and student club activities related to competencies in industry 4.0. Benešová and Tupa (2017) stated that industry vision 4.0 will bring not only new approaches but also methodologies and technologies, which must be introduced to the company. The transition to such sophisticated production will not be possible immediately. The reason is the high financial costs and the lack of qualified employees.

Pfeiffer (2015) outlines specific competencies and qualification requirements concerning the four dimensions relevant to industry qualification 4.0, and, finally, uses it to make recommendations for policymakers, companies and social partners. Benesova et al. (2018) in their research, focused on the educational requirements for manufacturing electronics in modern concept 4.0. The central vision of the idea is smart factories that will be connected by physical-cyber systems. These factories will also use new technologies such as augmented reality. Employee skills and qualifications become essential because control or maintenance will only require employees with high requirements. Education 4.0 is a new concept of education that will combine real and virtual worlds.

Method

The location of this research was carried out in Medan City by taking respondents in several higher education institutions namely; Universitas Sumatera Utara (USU), Universitas Negeri Medan (UNIMED), Universitas Medan Area (UMA), Universitas Dharma Agung (UDA) and Politeknik Negeri Medan (POLMED). USU and UNIMED, in this case, represented state universities. UMA and UDA represent private universities. While Polmed represented vocational/polytechnic education.

The population in this study are all freshly graduated alumni in various tertiary education institutions in the city of Medan. The fresh graduated is obtained from the estimated number of final semester students graduating at each campus in the previous year. So that the population distribution is calculated by the Slovin formula; $n = N / (1 + N \cdot e^2) = 450$ respondents.

This study uses primary data, namely, data obtained from the source directly. Primary data is collected to answer/confirming research questions. Primary data are generally derived from questionnaire distribution activities (Sugiyono, 2012). The form of the questionnaire is closed in which the respondent is given alternative choices of answers to each question. All variables are measured using a Likert scale, using a 5-level range that allows respondents to provide solutions to the research questionnaire. The answer choices include; strongly agree (SS) score 5, agree (S) score 4, disagree (KS) score 3, disagree (TS) score two and strongly disagree (STS) with a score of 1. The design of this research is a quantitative research using statistical analysis (Sugiyono, 2016: 11). This study analyses the dominant factors that influence competence to enter industry 4.0. The number of estimator variables used included ten variables with the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).

The research variables consist of two types, namely the independent variable and the dependent variable. The independent variable is a variable that affects or causes changes to the dependent variable. The independent variables in this study include; 1) Sensemaking, 2) Social intelligence, 3) Novel and adaptive thinking, 4) Cross-cultural competency, 5) Computational thinking, 6) New-media literacy, 7) Transdisciplinary, 8) Design Thinking, 9) Cognitive Load Management, and 10) Virtual collaboration. The dependent variable is a variable that is influenced by the independent variable, so the amount of change in the dependent variable depends on the magnitude of the effect that is done by the independent variable. The dependent variable in this study was the readiness of students to face Industry 4.0.

The stages of data analysis in this study began with the validity test; to see how the accuracy and accuracy of measuring instruments in determining the size function (Azwar, 2009: 5). A tool is declared valid if it can measure the variables appropriately (Arikunto, 2006). Validity itself comes from the word validity, which means the extent to which an instrument has accuracy and accuracy in justifying its measurement function (Azwar, 2009: 5). After the validity test, the reliability test is then performed; to see the extent to which the results of a measurement can be trusted (Azwar, 2009: 3). Then proceed with the normality test and the data

outlier test. With univariate normality and multivariate data used in this analysis, normality tests can be tested. Testing this univariate normality is to observe the value of the skewness of the data used in the CR value in the skewness data is in the range between + 2.58 at a significance level of 0.01, then the research data used can be said to be normal. While the outlier test by looking at the value of Mahalanobis distance. If the Mahalanobis distance is higher than the chi-square value, it means that it is categorized as multivariate outliers.

After passing the testing stages, the data are then analyzed using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). Where Brown and More in Hoyle (2012: 361) suggest that CFA is a type of structural modeling equation that specifically addresses measurement models, that is, the relationship between observed steps or indicators (for example, test items, test scores, behavior observation ranks) and latent variables or factors. CFA is a technique used to look for factors that can explain the relationship or correlation between various independent indicators that are observed (Widarjono, 2010:235). Because the indicators used are derived from existing theoretical foundations, this factor analyst is a confirmatory factor analysis, which is an analysis that aims to test the theory empirically or confirm the structure of existing factors (Gudono, 2011: 207).

Findings and Discussion

The composition of respondents by sex is spread proportionally between men and women. From a total of 450 research respondents, consisting of 225 male respondents (50%) and 225 (50%) female respondents. Likewise, the composition of respondents based on the origin of higher education is spread proportionally. The number of respondents from USU totaled 97 respondents (20.8%), from UNIMED 94 respondents (20.2%), from UMA as many as 88 respondents (18.9%), from UDA 92 respondents (19.7%) and Polmed 95 respondent (20.4%).

The sense-making variable (X1) in this study was measured using three items based on three leading indicators. The overall average value of 4.270. Of the three indicators used, the indicator with the highest average value is X1.1 (perspective) with a value of 4.293, while the lowest value is X1.2 (self-meaning) with a value of 4.252. The social intelligence (X2) variable in this study was measured using three statements based on three leading indicators. The overall average score is 4,302. Of the three indicators used, the indicator with the highest average value is X2.1 (empathy) with a value of 4.332, while the lowest value is X2.3 (influence in groups) with a value of 4.329.

Novel and adaptive thinking (X3) variables in this study were measured using three items based on three leading indicators. The overall average score is 4,281. Of the three indicators used, the indicator with the highest average value is X3.3 (concept and procedure) with a value of 4.421 while the lowest value is X3.2 (prediction) with a value of 4.288. The cross-cultural competence (X4) variable in this study was measured using three statements based on three leading indicators. The overall average value of 4.220. Of the three indicators used, the indicator with the highest average value is X4.2 (extraversion/comfort interacting with others)

with a value of 4.292, while the lowest value is X4.3 (openness to experience) with a value of 4.160.

The computational thinking (X5) variable in this study was measured using three items based on three leading indicators — the overall average value of 4.190. Of the three indicators used, the indicator with the highest average value is X5.2 (abstraction and decomposition) with a value of 4.240, while the lowest value is X5.3 (algorithmic design) with a value of 4.165. The new media literacy (X6) variable in this study measured using three statements based on three leading indicators. The overall average value of 4.217. Of the three indicators used, the indicator with the highest average value is X6.1 (functional and critical consuming literacy) with an amount of 4.240 while the lowest value is X6.3 (critical presuming literacy) with an amount of 4.184.

Transdisciplinary variables (X7) in this study were measured using 3 statements based on three leading indicators. The overall average score is 4.261. Of the three indicators used, the indicator with the highest average value is X7.3 (problem-solving - innovation argument) with a value of 4.240, while the lowest value is X7.1 (transcendence) with a value of 4.251. The design thinking variable (X8) in this study was measured using three statements based on three leading indicators. The overall average value of 4.184. Of the three indicators used, the indicator with the highest average value is X8.2 (courage to experiment) with a value of 4.204 while the lowest value is X8.1 (communication of ideas) with a value of 4.162.

Cognitive load management (X9) variables in this study were measured using three statements based on three leading indicators. The overall average value of 4.083. Of the three indicators used, the indicator with the highest average value is X9.2 (extraneous cognitive load - extrinsic cognitive load complexity due to distortion of expectations and reality) with a value of 4.117 while the lowest value is X9.1 (intrinsic cognitive load - complexity of cognitive load intrinsically) with a value of 4.076. The virtual collaboration variable (X10) in this study was measured using three statements based on three leading indicators. The overall average value of 4.046. Of the three indicators used, the indicator with the highest average value is X10.1 (virtual team) with a value of 4.047, while the lowest value is X10.3 (virtual meeting) with a value of 4.033. While the readiness to face the industry 4.0 variable in this study was measured using three statements based on three leading indicators — the overall average value of 4.372. Of the three indicators used, the indicator with the highest average value is Y1.3 (skill readiness and competence) with a value of 4.047, while the lowest value is Y1.1 (mental readiness) with a value of 4.033. Based on the mean results of the data processing, it can be arranged the number of respondents' preferences for the research variables, as presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Ranking of respondents' answer preferences on research variables

No	Indicators	Mean	Rank
1	X1 Sense making	4,270	4
2	X2 Social intelligence	4,302	2
3	X3 Novel and adaptive thinking	4,281	3
4	X4 Cross cultural competency	4,220	6
5	X5 Computational Thinking	4,190	8
6	X6 New Media Literacy	4,217	7
7	X7 Transdisciplinary	4,261	5
8	X8 Design Thinking	4,184	9
9	X9 Cognitive Load Management	4,083	10
10	X10 Virtual Collaboration	4,046	11
11	Y1 Readiness to enter industry 4.0	4,372	1

A validity test is done by a convergent validity test, which is testing the construct (indicator) whether it has a high proportion of variance or not. Meet the criteria if the value of C.R. > 1.96, while the loading factor or standardized loading estimate > 0.5. The results of data analysis showed that the CR values of all question items > 1.96 and loading factor values > 0.5 so that it can be concluded that all items used in this study were valid. The reliability test is carried out by using the construct reliability test, which is testing the reliability and consistency of the data. Meet the criteria if Construct Reliability > 0.7. Construct Reliability values between 0.6 to 0.7 can still be accepted, provided that the construct validity (indicator) in the model is good.

Ghozali (2013) explains that indicators of variables are called reliable if the value of AVE \geq 0.05 and CR \geq 0.07. The reliability test results of all variables declared valid. Testing the next data is to analyze the level of normality of the data used in this study. Based on data analysis obtained that there is no CR value outside + 2.58 so that it can be concluded that univariate is good. The normality test is carried out using a critical ratio criterion of \pm 2.58 at a significance level of 0.01 (Ghozali, 2004: 105) so that it can be concluded that there are no distorted data. Whereas the multivariate outliers test can be seen in the Mahalanobis distance at the level of $p < 0.05$. Based on the Chi-square value with 360 degrees of freedom at a significance level of 0.001 which is 405.24, the Mahalanobis value that exceeds or is above 405.24 identifies the presence of multivariate outlier's data. Based on the data, it appears that the highest value lies in the 464 observation of 265,288 which is still below 405.24 and it can be concluded that there are no multivariate outliers from the data used in this study.

As stated in this study using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), Hoyle (2012:361) argues that CFA is a type of structural modeling equation that addresses the measurement model explicitly, that is, the relationship between the observed steps or indicators (for example, test items, test scores, behavioral observation ratings) and latent variables or factors. CFA is a technique used to look for factors that can explain the relationship or correlation between various independent indicators that are observed (Widarjono, 2010:235). Because the indicators used

are derived from existing theoretical foundations, this factor analysis is a confirmatory factor analysis, which is an analysis that aims to test the theory empirically or confirm the structure of existing factors (Gudono, 2011:207). Furthermore, to see whether or not the CFA result can be seen from the size of the loading factor (estimate) of each variable construct. It can also be seen from the value of Average Variance Extracted (AVE) which must be ≥ 0.05 and CR value ≥ 0.07 . In addition, observations are also used on the output goodness of fit. Related to the output results, the CR and AVE values have been stated previously, where the variables and constructs have met the specified criteria. Furthermore, based on Figure 1, it is found that all-important indicators report that the model used is good and meets the required goodness of fit criteria. A loading factor value of > 0.5 indicates that all constructs used to meet the criteria and the variables used are representative enough to be an industry competency model 4.0.

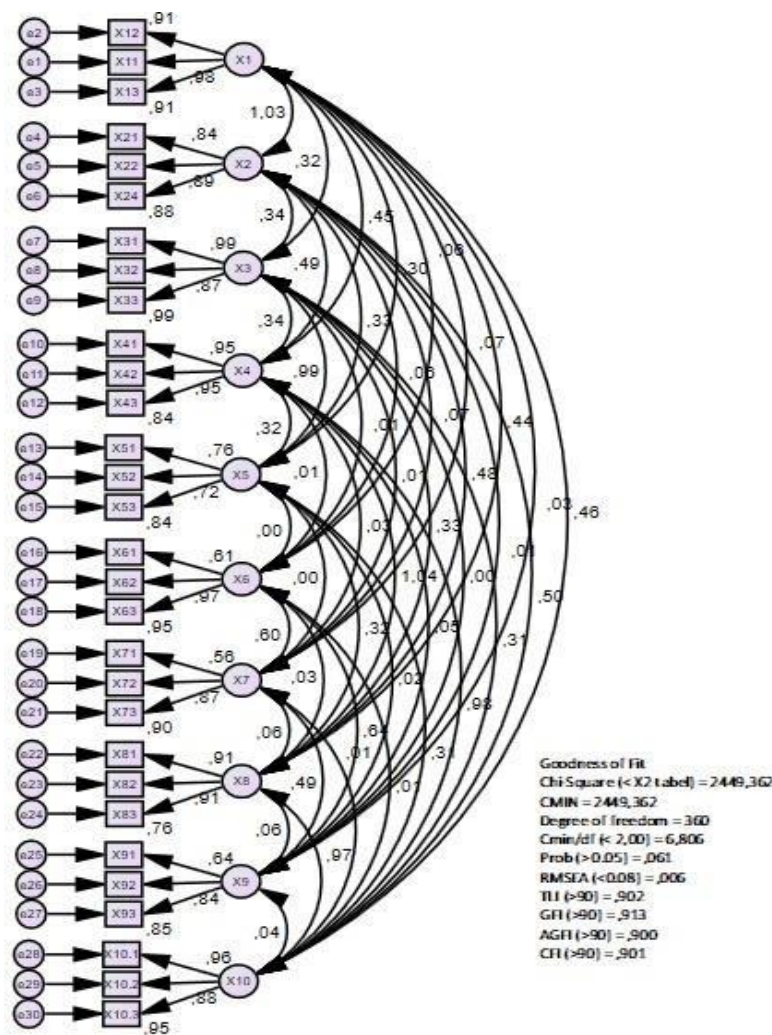


Figure 1. Output Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Furthermore, after all the validity of the variables is proven, the next step is to analyze the effect of each of these variables on the dependent variable, namely the readiness of students to enter industry 4.0. Estimation results are presented in Figure 2.

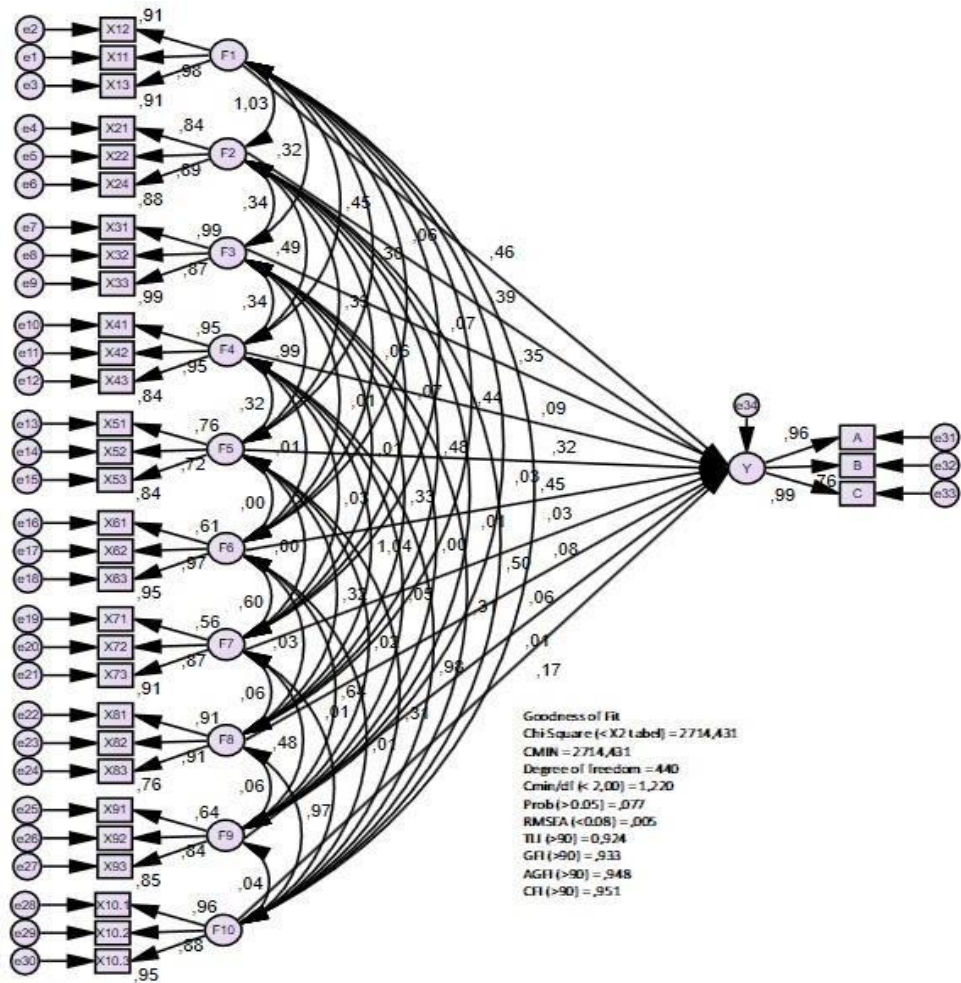


Figure 2. Output Full Model Readiness to Enter Industry 4.0

From Table 24, it can be seen that this human resource competency model has met the criteria for the goodness of fit. This is indicated by the value of TLI, CFI, and GFI which are close to 1. The TLI value is 0.924, and the CFI value is 0.951 while the GFI value is 0.933.

Table 1. The Goodness of Fit Model HRD Competency to Face Industry 4.0

Indicators of Goodness of Fit	Rule of Thumb Goodness of Fit	Result	Conclusion
Chi square (Cmin)	Smaller is better	2714,431	Fit
Degree of freedom	The value should be +	440	Fit
Probability	> 0,05	0,061	Fit
RMSEA	$0,05 \leq RMSEA \leq 0,08$	0,005	Fit
Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)	$0,80 \leq TLI \leq 1$	0,924	Fit
Composite Fit Index (CFI)	$0,80 \leq CFI \leq 1$	0,951	Fit
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	$0,80 \leq GFI \leq 1$	0,933	Fit

The results of hypothesis testing prove that the coefficient estimation of the sense-making variable (X1) is positive at 0.355. This variable has a positive influence on the readiness of HR competencies facing industry 4.0 (Y). Statistically, the effect was significant because of p-value $0.006 < 0.05$ and CR value

$2.772 > 1.96$. The estimated coefficient of social intelligence (X2) is positive by 0.311. This variable has a positive influence on the readiness of HR competencies facing industry 4.0 (Y) and statistically, the effect is significant because the p-value is $0.031 < 0.05$ and the CR value is $2.157 > 1.96$. The estimated coefficient of the novel and adaptive thinking (X3) variable is positive at 0.421. This variable has a positive influence on the readiness of HR competencies facing industry 4.0 (Y), and statistically, the effect is significant because the p-value is $0.048 < 0.05$ and the CR value is $2.192 > 1.96$.

The estimated coefficient of the cross-cultural competence (X4) variable is positive at 0.068. This variable has a positive influence on the readiness of HR competencies facing industry 4.0 (Y), and statistically, the effect is significant because the p-value is $0.028 < 0.05$ and the CR value is $2.632 > 1.96$. The estimated coefficient of the conceptual thinking variable (X5) is positive at 0.396. This variable has a positive influence on the readiness of HR competencies facing industry 4.0 (Y) and statistically, the effect is significant because the p-value is $0.003 < 0.05$ and the CR value is $2.176 > 1.96$. The estimated coefficient of the new media literacy (X6) variable is positive at 0.025. This variable has a positive influence on the readiness of HR competencies facing industry 4.0 (Y) and statistically, the effect is not significant because the p-value is $0.491 > 0.05$ and the CR value is $0.689 < 1.96$.

Furthermore, the estimated coefficient of the transdisciplinary variable (X7) is positive at 0.056. This variable has a positive influence on the readiness of HR competencies facing industry 4.0 (Y), and statistically, the effect is significant because the p-value is $0.003 < 0.05$ and the CR value is $2.632 > 1.96$. The estimated coefficient of design thinking variable (X8) is positive at 0.047. This variable has a positive influence on the readiness of HR competencies facing industry 4.0 (Y) and statistically, the effect is not significant because the p-value is $0.892 < 0.05$ and the CR value is $0.136 < 1.96$. The estimated coefficient of cognitive load

management (X9) is positive at 0.011. This variable has a positive influence on the readiness of HR competencies facing industry 4.0 (Y) and statistically, the effect is significant because the p-value is 0.035 <0.05 and the CR value is 2.208 > 1.96. The estimated coefficient of the virtual collaboration variable (X10) is positive at 0.147. This variable has a positive influence on the readiness of HR competencies facing industry 4.0 (Y) and statistically, the effect is significant because the p-value is 0.010 <0.05 and the CR value is 2.373 > 1.96.

Table. 3 Hypothesis testing with CR value and probability

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Y	<---	X1 Sense making	,355	,128	2,772	,006	Sig
Y	<---	X2 Social intelligence	,311	,144	2,157	,031	Sig
Y	<---	X3 Novelty Adaptive	,421	2,195	2,192	,048	Sig
Y	<---	X4 Cross Cultural Com	,068	,108	2,632	,028	Sig
			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Y	<---	X5 Computational Thinking	,396	2,254	2,176	,050	Sig
Y	<---	X6 New Media Literacy	,025	,036	,689	,491	Not sig
Y	<---	X7 Transdisciplinary	,056	,034	2,632	,003	Sig
Y	<---	X8 Design Thinking	,047	,346	,136	,892	Not sig
Y	<---	X9 Cognitive Load Mgt	,011	,051	2,208	,035	Sig
Y	<---	X10 Virtual Collaboration	,147	,395	2,371	,010	Sig

Conclusion

The results of this study indicate that based on the results of confirmatory factor analysis - CFA, ten variables used have a positive relationship/correlation between variables and can be an estimator to see how fresh human resources are prepared in facing industry 4.0. The results of the analysis using the SEM method show that there are eight variables that are positive and significantly affect the readiness of industrial 4.0 human resources, namely; sense-making, social intelligence, novel and adaptive thinking, cross-cultural communication, computational thinking, transdisciplinary, cognitive load management and virtual collaboration. Whereas the two insignificant variables are new media literacy and design thinking.

The recommended recommendations related to this research are the institutions providing higher education, in an effort to encourage improvement in the quality of human resources, especially in anticipating industry 4.0 to notice and maximize aspects; sense-making, social intelligence, novel and adaptive thinking, cross-cultural competency, computational thinking, new media literacy, transdisciplinary, design thinking, cognitive load management, and virtual collaboration. Other researchers who will continue this research with the same theme are expected to be able to develop this research model to become more complex, such as adding new variables and carried out on different objects from previous research so that other studies will be created in the future.

References

- Anwar, C., Saregar, A., Hasanah, U., & Widayanti, W. (2018). The effectiveness of Islamic religious education in the universities: The effects on the students' characters in the era of industry 4.0. *Tadris: Jurnal Keguruan dan Ilmu Tarbiyah*, 3(1), 77. <https://doi.org/10.24042/tadris.v3i1.2162>
- Arikunto, S. (2006). *Prosedur penelitian suatu pendekatan praktek*. Jakarta: PT Rineka Cipta.
- Azwar, S. (2009). *Reliabilitas dan validitas*. Yogyakarta: Pustaka Pelajar.
- Barzykowski, K., Majda, A., Przyłęcki, P., & Szkup, M. (2019). The crosscultural competence inventory: Validity and psychometric properties of the polish adaptation. *PLOS ONE*, 14(3), e0212730. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0212730>
- Beavers, S., Christopher, P. G., Cheryl, L., Margaret, K. S., & John, P. K. (2017). Virtual collaboration. United States. Retrieved from <https://patents.google.com/patent/US10169824B2/en>
- Benesova, A., Hirman, M., Steiner, F., & Tupa, J. (2018). Analysis of education requirements for electronics manufacturing within concept industry 4.0. In *2018 41st International Spring Seminar on Electronics Technology (ISSE)* (pp. 1–5). IEEE. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ISSE.2018.8443681>
- Benešová, A. & Tupa, J. (2017). Requirements for education and qualification of people in industry 4.0. *Procedia Manufacturing*, 11, 2195–2202. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.promfg.2017.07.366>
- Blanchet, M., Rinn, T., Von Thaden, G., & De Thieulloy, G. (2014). *Industry 4.0: The new industrial revolution-how Europe will succeed*. München: Roland berger strategy consultants GmbH.
- Bocconi, S., Chiocciariello, A., Dettori, G., Ferrari, A., & Engelhardt, K. (2016). *Developing computational thinking in compulsory education - implications for policy and practice*. JRC Working Papers.
- Chen, D.T., Lin, T.B., Li, J.Y., & Lee, L. (2018). Establishing the norm of new media literacy of singaporean students: Implications to policy and pedagogy. *Computers & Education*, 124, 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2018.04.010>
- Chen, J. C. H., Volk, L., & Lin, B. (2004). Virtual collaboration in the workplace. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, V(1).
- Choiriyah, R. (2015). Pengaruh kemampuan penalaran adaptif terhadap kemampuan memecahkan masalah matematika peserta didik kelas VIII SMP NU 1 Gresik. Universitas Muhammadiyah Gresik.
- Cooper, G. (1990). Cognitive load theory as an aid for instructional design. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, 6(2). <https://doi.org/10.14742/ajet.2322>
- Coşkun, S., Kayıkcı, Y., Gençay, E., Coşkun, S., Kayıkcı, Y., & Gençay, E. (2019). Adapting engineering education to industry 4.0 vision. *Technologies*, 7(1), 10. <https://doi.org/10.3390/technologies7010010>

- Daraiseh, S. (2018). Intercultural competence among English learners at Yarmouk University Jordan. *US-China Foreign Language*, 16(10), 503–514. <https://doi.org/10.17265/15398080/2018.10.001>
- Dujin, A., Geissler, C., & Horstkötter, D. (2014). Think Act Industry 4.0. *The New Industrial Revolution: How Europe Will Succeed*. Munich: Ronald Berger Strategy Consultants GmbH.
- Evans, P. C. & Annunziata, M. (2012). Industrial internet: Pushing the boundaries. *General Electric Reports*, 488-508.
- Gudono. (2011). *Analisis data multivariat*. Yogyakarta: Badan Penerbit Fakultas Ekonomi.
- Hoyle, R. H. (2012). *Handbook of structural equation modeling*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Kelly, N., Kerr, J., & Wright, N. (2018). How design thinking can help teachers collaborate. Retrieved from <https://theconversation.com/how-designthinking-can-help-teachers-collaborate-95932>
- Lasi, H., Fettke, P., Kemper, H.-G., Feld, T., & Hoffmann, M. (2014). *Industry 4.0. Business & Information Systems Engineering*, 6(4), 239–242. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12599-014-0334-4>
- Leiba-O'sullivan, S. (1999). The distinction between stable and dynamic crosscultural competencies: Implications for expatriate trainability. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 30(4), 709–725. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8490835>
- Livingstone, S. (2004). Media literacy and the challenge of new information and communication technologies. *The Communication Review*, 7(1), 3–14. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10714420490280152>
- Lucke, D., Constantinescu, C., & Westkämper, E. (2008). Smart factory - A step towards the next generation of manufacturing. In *Manufacturing Systems and Technologies for the New Frontier* (pp. 115–118). London: Springer London. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-84800-267-8_23
- Mobnasesemka. (2018). Apa itu industri 4.0? Dan apa saja elemen yang harus ada? Retrieved June 30, 2018, from <http://www.mobnasesemka.com/apa-ituindustri-4-0/>
- Montuori, A. (2013). Complexity and transdisciplinarity: Reflections on theory and practice. *World Futures*, 69(4–6), 200–230. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02604027.2013.803349>
- Moray, N. (2013). *Mental workload: Its theory and measurement* - Google books (8th ed.). Springer Science & Business Media.
- Motyl, B., Baronio, G., Uberti, S., Speranza, D., & Filippi, S. (2017). How will change the future engineers' skills in the industry 4.0 framework? A questionnaire survey. *Procedia Manufacturing*, 11, 1501–1509. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.promfg.2017.07.282>
- Naiman, L. (2019). Design thinking as a strategy for innovation. Retrieved July 26, 2019, from <https://www.creativityatwork.com/design-thinking-strategyfor-innovation/>

- Nicolescu, B. (2002). *Manifesto of transdisciplinarity* - Google books. Suny Press.
- Nurwardani, P. (2018a). Strategi pembelajaran sains dan teknologi di perguruan tinggi mengawal revolusi industri 4.0. Orasi Ilmiah Universitas Parahyangan.
- Nurwardani, P. (2018b). Strategi pembelajaran sains dan teknologi di perguruan tinggi mengawal revolusi industri 4.0. Bandung: Universitas Parahyangan.
- Paas, F., Renkl, A., & Sweller, J. (2003). Cognitive load theory and instructional design: recent developments. *Educational Psychologist*, 38(1), 1–4. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15326985EP3801_1
- Paas, F., Renkl, A., & Sweller, J. (2004). Cognitive load theory: Instructional implications of the interaction between information structures and cognitive architecture. *Instructional Science*, 32(1/2), 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1023/B:TRUC.0000021806.17516.d0>
- Perez, S. E., Watson, I. I., Jack, C., & Barnicle, S. (2019). Effects of Cross-cultural Communication Competence on Tennis Performance. *Journal of Articles in Support of the Null Hypothesis*, 15(2), 65-79.
- Peters, L. M., & Manz, C. C. (2007). Identifying antecedents of virtual team collaboration. *Team Performance Management: An International Journal*, 13(3/4), 117–129.
- Pfeiffer, S. (2015). Effects of industry 4.0 on vocational education and training. *Voced Plus*. Retrieved from <https://www.voced.edu.au/content/ngv:78324>
- Plaas, J. L., Moreno, R., & Brunken, R. (2010). *Cognitive load theory* - Google books. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Plass, J. L. & Kalyuga, S. (2019). Four ways of considering emotion in cognitive load theory. *Educational Psychology Review*, 31(2), 339–359. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-019-09473-5>
- Poerwaningtyas, I., Rianto, P., Ni'am, M., Adiputra, W. M., Marganingtyas, D., Mirasari, E., & Misbah, N. A. (2013). Model-model gerakan literasi media dan pemantauan media di Indonesia. (P. Rianto, Ed.). Yogyakarta: Pusat Kajian Media dan Budaya Populer.
- Putubuku. (2008). Sense making theory. Retrieved June 30, 2018, from <https://iperpin.wordpress.com/2008/03/27/hello-world/>
- Quint, F., Sebastian, K., & Gorecky, D. (2015). A mixed-reality learning environment. *Procedia Computer Science*, 75, 43–48. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.PROCS.2015.12.199>
- Rahim, M., Usman, I., & Puluhalawa, M. (2017). Kecerdasan sosial dan prestasi belajar siswa (Tinjauan dari Perspektif Bimbingan dan Konseling Belajar). In *Proceeding Seminar dan Lokakarya Nasional Revitalisasi Laboratorium dan Jurnal Ilmiah dalam Implementasi Kurikulum Bimbingan dan Konseling Berbasis KKNI*.
- Rennstich, J. K. (2019). Creative online collaboration: A special challenge for cocreation. *Education and Information Technologies*, 24(2), 1835–1836. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-019-09875-6>
- Rojas-Lopez, A. & Garcia-Penalvo, F. J. (2018). Learning scenarios for the subject methodology of programming from evaluating the computational thinking of

- new students. *IEEE Revista Iberoamericana de Tecnologías Del Aprendizaje*, 13(1), 30–36. <https://doi.org/10.1109/RITA.2018.2809941>
- Rüßmann, M., Lorenz, M., Gerbert, P., Waldner, M., Justus, J., Engel, P., & Harnisch, M. (2015). Industry 4.0: The future of productivity and growth in manufacturing industries. *Boston Consulting Group*, 9(1), 54–89.
- Sanders, A., Elangeswaran, C., & Wulfsberg, J. (2016). Industry 4.0 implies lean manufacturing: Research activities in industry 4.0 function as enablers for lean manufacturing. *Journal of Industrial Engineering and Management*, 9(3), 811. <https://doi.org/10.3926/jiem.1940>
- Sari, F. F. (2012). Penerapan pembelajaran matematika mengacu pada teori beban kognitif (Cognitive Load Theory) untuk meningkatkan hasil belajar siswa kelas VIII-4 SMP Negeri 21 Malang. Universitas Negeri Malang. Program Studi Pendidikan Matematika.
- Srivastava, S. C. & Chandra, S. (2018). Social presence in virtual world collaboration: An uncertainty reduction perspective using a mixed methods approach. *MIS Quarterly*, 42.
- Sugiyono. (2016). *Metode penelitian kuantitatif kualitatif dan kombinasi (Mixed methods)*. Bandung: Alfabeta.
- Sweller, J. (2010). *Cognitive load theory: Recent theoretical advances*.
- Tejedor, G., Segalàs, J., & Rosas-Casals, M. (2018). Transdisciplinarity in higher education for sustainability: How discourses are approached in engineering education. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 175, 29–37. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2017.11.085>
- Tenberg, R., & Pittich, D. (2017). Ausbildung 4.0 oder nur 1.2? Analyse eines technisch-betrieblichen wandels und dessen implikationen für die technische berufsausbildung. *Journal of Technical Education (JOTED)*, 5(1).
- Tonra, W. S. (2014). Teori beban kognitif. Retrieved July 26, 2019, from <http://wildasyamtonra89.blogspot.com/2014/11/teori-beban-kognitif.html>
- Tortorella, G. L. & Fettermann, D. (2018). Implementation of industry 4.0 and lean production in Brazilian manufacturing companies. *International Journal of Production Research*, 56(8), 2975–2987. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00207543.2017.1391420>
- Widarjono, A. (2010). *Analisis statistika multivariat terapan* (1st ed.). Yogyakarta: UPP STIM YKPN.
- Wiseman, R. L. & Jolene, K. (1993). *Handbook of international and intercultural communication* - Google books. Newbury Park CA: Sage.
- Wisubro. (2018). Lima elemen penting menjawab tantangan revolusi industri 4.0 - JPP.go.id.
- Zhang, Y., Sun, J., Yang, Z., & Wang, Y. (2018). Mobile social media in interorganizational projects: Aligning tool, task and team for virtual collaboration effectiveness. *International Journal of Project Management*, 36(8), 1096–1108. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.IJPROMAN.2018.09.003>

Zhou, K., Taigang Liu, & Lifeng Zhou. (2015). Industry 4.0: Towards future industrial opportunities and challenges. In *2015 12th International Conference on Fuzzy Systems and Knowledge Discovery (FSKD)* (pp. 2147–2152). IEEE. <https://doi.org/10.1109/FSKD.2015.7382284>

**STUDENT ATTITUDES TOWARDS NATURAL SCIENCE: REVIEW
OF PLEASURES AND CAREER INTERESTS
AT JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL 17 JAMBI CITY**

Nirmala Sari¹, Erika Erika², Neldawati Neldawati³
Universitas Jambi and SMPN 17 Kota Jambi
nirmalasari311998@gmail.com, erk.erikaaaa@gmail.com,
ippratiwi23@gmail.com
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.24071/ijiet.2020.040108>
received 18 November 2019; accepted 6 December 2019

Abstract

The research conducted aims to identify students' attitudes toward science subjects through two indicators, namely the pleasure of learning science and career interests in the field of science owned by students at Junior High School 17 Jambi City. The research instrument used was a questionnaire. The subjects of this research were 128 students at Junior High School 17 Jambi city with a total of 128 students. Samples were taken using a total sampling technique. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics. The results showed that 72 people out of 128 respondents had sufficient attitudes in the pleasure of learning science and also had enough interest in a career in the field of science. The results of this study also showed that when a child likes to study science, the child also has a good interest in a career in the natural sciences.

Keywords: attitude, career, pleasure

Introduction

Education is the most important thing in advancing the life of a nation. Because with education, a person will be able to place himself in a very decent way in the family environment even in the community (Astalini, & Kurniawan, 2018). According to Budi (2010), education is an effort to improve the capabilities of human resources. The education system in Indonesia starts from primary education, namely elementary school, junior high school and senior high school.

According to Mawaddah and Maryanti (2016), Junior High School is the first level of basic education which is useful for laying the foundations of intelligence, personality, and knowledge for students to continue to the next level. At the junior high school level, there are natural science subjects, or what we are familiar with as science subjects. Science is a branch of science that studies about phenomena that occur in nature (Purbosari, 2016). Natural science is the body of knowledge that results from one's curiosity. As the body of knowledge, science is formed from facts, concepts, principles, hypotheses, theories, and models. Science is implemented in education through a learning process that has become a

compulsory subject from elementary to the high school level. The success of the learning process is influenced by the quality and way of teaching a teacher (Darmaji, 2018). Two factors can affect the learning process, namely internal factors, and external factors. Internal factors can be in the form of interests, learning motivation, attitudes, study habits, and self-concepts, while external factors can be in the form of the school environment, peers, class atmosphere, school curriculum, facilities, and infrastructure (Astalini, Kurniawan, Perdana & Kurniasari, 2018).

Internal factors such as attitude greatly affect the learning process. Attitude is a central part of human identity (Rahman, 2019). Rosa (2012) states that attitude is a person's tendency to react to an object or situation that is encountered in a certain way so that the attitude can be positive or negative. A positive attitude is a tendency for someone's actions that lead to approaching, liking, and expecting certain objects. Attitude not only includes feelings of dislike, but also positive attitudes that include our attachments and loyalty to people, things and ideas (Jufriada, et al., 2019). While negative attitudes are the tendencies of one's actions that lead to laziness, carelessness, wasteful, undisciplined and so on certain objects. Darmawangsa (2018) states that the attitude in learning is very important, as is the attitude in learning towards natural science subjects. One of the functions and objectives of science subjects is that students can gain experience in applying scientific methods through experiments and experiments so that they are trained to be scientific. Because to measure students' attitudes towards science lessons an indicator is needed. These indicators are:

- 1) Pleasure in learning science
- 2) Career interests in the field of Natural Sciences

The pleasure of learning science according to it is defined that every student who has a positive attitude towards science subjects must have a sense of comfort and pleasure when dealing with science subjects (Kurniawan, et al., 2018). Fun during the learning process can be shown through positive responses given by students in natural science subjects. The attitude of liking each student also shows students' enjoyment of Science, while the attitude of dislike will indicate that students have a feeling of displeasure towards Science. Students' happy attitude towards Natural Sciences can be shown how students are open and enthusiastic about Natural Science subjects inside or outside the classroom. According to Hamdu and Agustina (2011) when students have the will and desire to learn, then it can increase the achievement of these students. Not only have achievements in the field of science, students who have a positive attitude towards science subjects will certainly also have the desire to have a career in the field of science.

Interest in a career in the field of Natural Sciences according to (Kurniawan et al., 2018) is the attitude of students who are interested in a career or continuing their education in the Natural Sciences field. Interest in a career in the field of science indicates that students have plans for a career in the field of science. According to Winkel and Hastuti (2006), career planning is an important aspect and should be owned by students to determine further studies that are appropriate to their interests and interests. Careful career planning while at school can help someone to get to know their interests and talents (Atmaja, 2014). Apart from that

career planning should begin with the understanding of students to explore careers. Career exploration is an attempt by a person in finding information about the career choices that he will develop. Career exploration is so important to be instilled since early adolescence or junior high school so students have lots of information and the right choices and have plenty of time to think about their future in putting their talents and interests to the next level.

A positive view of learning science will generate interest in a career in the field of science. The things that affect the interests and interests of this career according to Komara (2016) are interests, talents, learning achievements and self-confidence. When students have an interest in science subjects, they should also have a sense of interest in a career in the field of science. Agree with Komara (2016) Parson and Williamson (in Suherman, 2007) also said that the factors that influence the interests and interests for a career are the ability, achievement, and interests of students.

The purpose of this study is to describe the attitudes of students towards science subjects which are reviewed through indicators of the pleasure of learning science and career interests in the field of science in students of Junior High School 17 Jambi City.

Method

This research was conducted at Junior High School 17 Jambi City in August 2019. The purpose of this study was to describe the attitudes of students 'pleasure in learning science and students' interest in pursuing a career in the natural sciences. The research design used is quantitative with the type of survey. In KBBi the survey is defined as one of the research techniques that clearly limits the data being reviewed and investigated.

The subjects of the study were students in Junior High School 17 Jambi city class of 2019/2020 with a total of 128 students. Samples were taken using a total sampling technique.

The questionnaire instrument that researchers used in this study were adopted from Astalini and Kurniawan (2019). The type of questionnaire that researchers used was a closed questionnaire using a Likert scale. According to (Maison, Astalini, Kurniawan, & Sholihah, 2018) when using the Likert scale each statement item will be divided into 5 scales with weights for positive statements 5,4,3,2 and 1. Whereas for negative statement weights are 1, 2,3,4 and 5. The indicators and ranges used in the questionnaire attitudes toward science subjects are shown in the table below:

Table 1. Categories and Indicators for Questionnaire Attitudes Towards Natural Sciences

Category	Range	No Item	
		Pleasure of learning science	Career interests in the field of science
Very Not Good	9.0-16.2		
Not Good	16.3-23.4		
Enough	23.5-30.6	4,11,17,24,29,36,42,49,56	6,13,19,26,31,38,44,51,52
Good	30.7-37.8		
Very Good	37.9-45.0		

In conducting this research, the first step taken by the researcher was to spread the questionnaire. After distributing the questionnaire, data will be obtained. And the data were analyzed using SPSS with descriptive statistical analysis. According to (Rosana & Setyawarno, 2016). In general descriptive statistics are used to describe the characteristics of data in the form of averages and variations of data.

Result and Discussion

The renewal of this study is an indicator of the attitude towards science subjects that is used is the pleasure in learning science and career interests in the field of science that will be identified in students of Junior High School 17 Jambi City. This indicator was obtained from Fraser's research (1981) which was implemented in Indonesia by Astalini and Kurniawan (2019).

Pleasure of Learning Science

According to Davoudi, et al (2016) Fun in learning is an emotional variable and an important concept in the learning process because it delights in describing educational problems to students. The pleasure of learning science can be interpreted as how willing students learn science and see the responses of students to learning science.

The results of the statistical analysis of the data obtained by researchers in students of Junior High School 17 Kota Jambi regarding the indicators of natural science learning pleasure can be seen in the following table:

Table 2. Description of pleasure in science learning

Interval	Category	Frequency	(%)
9.0-16.2	Very Not Good	0	0
16.3-23.4	Not Good	10	7.8
23.5-30.6	Enough	72	56.3
30.7-37.8	Good	42	32.8
37.9-45.0	Very Good	4	3.1
	Jumlah	128	100

Table 2 describes that the response of students in the very bad category was 0% (0 out of 128 students), then the category was not good 7.8% (10 out of 128 students), then the category was quite 56.3% (72 out of 128 students), then the good category was 32.8 % (42 out of 128 students), and very good category 3.1% (4 out of 128 students). Thus, based on the results of the data analysis that students of Junior Hugh School 17 Kota Jambi in the indicators of pleasure in learning science are dominantly categorized quite well.

The most important interaction during the learning process is the psychological relationship between the teacher and students in fostering attention and desire so that students are willing and happy to learn. Enjoyable learning cannot be separated from the dialogical interaction of the teacher and students which is the starting point for the formation of effective learning conditions (Sulthon, 2016). The pleasure in learning science is the love of students to learn

science that is upheld by high curiosity (Astalini, Kurniawan & Sumaryanti, 2018). Teachers can create a sense of fun in science lessons by involving students directly in many ways, inviting work and showing off the work of students, taking time to rest and play, making the classroom comfortable, choosing interesting methods and media materials, transparency of assessment and creating several activities together (Syahid, 2019). The affective dimension involves feelings related to science, divided into sub-components, both positive and negative. The pleasure of science learning compilation is done through a sense of pleasure in science subjects while displeasure is conveyed through fear and anxiety during the learning process (Ward, Donnan, & McNabb, 2016).

In general, students who have fun in learning science will judge or view science learning positively. By looking at science positively, of course, it is able to arouse the interest of students to continue to study science and will have a sense of interest in a career in the field of science. Students who are said to have the pleasure of learning science can be viewed from several aspects such as he thinks that science is a very pleasant lesson, he is very enthusiastic when learning about science begins, and he also thinks that science is an important lesson.

Career interests in the natural sciences

The students' view of science does not only affect the pleasure of learning science but also affects a sense of career interest in the field of science. To see the identification of students' career interests in the field of Natural Sciences, you can say look at the following table:

Table 3. Description of career interest in science

Interval	Category	Frequency	(%)
9.0-16.2	Very Not Good	0	0
16.3-23.4	Not Good	24	18.8
23.5-30.6	Enough	76	59.4
30.7-37.8	Good	24	18.8
37.9-45.0	Very Good	4	3.1
	Jumlah	128	100

Table 3 describes that student responses in the very bad category were 0% (0 out of 128 students), then the category was not good 18.8% (24 out of 128 students), then the category was quite 59.4% (76 out of 128 students), then the good category 18.8 % (24 out of 128 students), and very good category 3.1% (4 out of 128 students). Thus, based on the results of the data analysis, the students of Junior High School 17 Jambi City in the indicator of pleasure in learning science are dominantly categorized quite well.

From the results of the study, we can identify that most students are interested enough to have a career in the field of Natural Sciences. Interest in a career in the field of science is closely related to the interests and enjoyment of studying science. Students who have fun in learning science, in general, these students will also have an interest in a career in the natural sciences because they tend to feel positive or assess science as it has been described previously.

So from the results of the study, we can say that students' views on science are very diverse. There are students who look at science positively, then these students will also have the pleasure of learning science that is good enough, good even very good and will have an interest in a career in the field of science. Whereas for students who view science negatively, the student will not have the pleasure of learning science even he will not have an interest in a career in science. This result is also in accordance with research (Astalini, Kurniawan, & Putri, 2018) that interest in a career in science in junior high school students is categorized enough with a percentage of 41.8% meaning almost most students want to continue their careers in the field of science.

Conclusion

Based on the results of the study concluded that the attitudes of students towards science subjects at Junior High School 17 Jambi City were dominant enough in the indicators of pleasure in learning science and indicators of career interest in the field of science. Students who see science positively will have a good level of pleasure in learning science and will have a good interest in a career in the field of science. And vice versa, students who view science negatively, then generally will not have a sense of pleasure in learning science and do not even have a good interest in a career in the field of science.

References

- . Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia. [Online]. Tersedia di <https://kbbi.kemdikbud.go.id/entri/survei> Diakses 22 November 2019
- Amir, H. M., & Ashrafosadat, P. (2016). Relation between team motivation, enjoyment, and cooperation and learning results in learning area based on team- based learning among students of Tehran University of medical science. *Social and Behavioral Sciences*.
- Astalini, A., & Kurniawan, D. A. (2019). Pengembangan instrumen sikap siswa sekolah menengah pertama terhadap mata pelajaran IPA. *Jurnal Pendidikan Sains (Jps)*, 7(1), 1. <https://doi.org/10.26714/jps.7.1.2019.1-7>
- Astalini, Kurniawan, D.A., & Putri, A.D. (2018). Identifikasi sikap implikasi sosial dari ipa, ketertarikan menambah waktu belajar ipa, dan ketertarikan berkarir dibidang ipa siswa smp se- kabupaten muaro jambi. *Jurnal Tarbiyah: Jurnal Ilmiah Kependidikan*, 7(2), 93–108.
- Astalini, Kurniawan, D.A., & Sumaryanti. (2018). Sikap siswa terhadap pelajaran Fisika di SMAN Kabupaten Batanghari. *Jurnal Ilmu Pendidikan Fisika*, 3(2) : 59-64.
- Astalini, Kurniawan, D. A., Perdana, R., & Kurniasari, D. (2018). Identification of student attitudes toward Physics learning at Batanghari District High School. *The Educational Review, USA*, 2(9).
- Atmaja, T.T. (2014). Upaya Meningkatkan perencanaan karir siswa melalui bimbingan karir dengan penggunaan media modul. *Psikopedagogia*, 3(2), 58-68.
- Budi, S. (2010). 456-1514-1-Pb. *Jurnal Pendidikan Dan Kebudayaan*, 3, 229–238.

- Darmaji, D., Kurniawan, D.A., Suryani, A. & Lestari, A. (2018). An identification of physics pre-service teachers' science process skills through science process skills-based practicum guidebook. *Jurnal Ilmiah Pendidikan Fisika Al-Biruni*, 7(2), 239-245.
- Darmawangsa, R., Astalini., Kurniawan, D. A. (2018). Pengembangan instrumen sikap siswa sekolah menengah atas terhadap mata pelajaran fisika. *JPF: Jurnal Pendidikan Fisika*, 6(1), 107-114
- Hamdu, G., & Agustina, L. (2011). Pengaruh motivasi belajar siswa terhadap prestasi belajar IPA di SMP Negeri 25 Batam. *Jurnal Penelitian Pendidikan*, 12(1), 81–86.
- Jufrida, J., dkk. (2019). Students' attitude and motivation in mathematical physics. *International Journal of Evaluation and Research in Education (IJERE)*, 8(3), 401-408.
- Komara, I. B. (2016). Hubungan antara kepercayaan diri dengan prestasi belajar dan perencanaan karir siswa SMP. *PSIKOPEDAGOGIA Jurnal Bimbingan Dan Konseling*, 5(1), 33. <https://doi.org/10.12928/psikopedagogia.v5i1.4474>
- Kurniawan, D. A., Astalini, & Anggraini, L. (2018). Evaluasi sikap siswa smp terhadap IPA di Kabupaten Muaro Jambi. *Ilmiah DIDAKTIKA*, 19(1), 124–139.
- Maison, Astalini, Kurniawan, D. A., & Sholihah, L. R. (2018). Deskripsi sikap siswa SMA di Batanghari berdasarkan indikator normalitas ilmuwan, adopsi dari sikap ilmiah, ketertarikan memperbanyak waktu, dan ketertarikan berkarir di bidang fisika. *Edu Sains*, 10(1), 160–167.
- Mawaddah, S., & Maryanti, R. (2016). Kemampuan pemahaman konsep matematis siswa SMP dalam pembelajaran menggunakan model penemuan terbimbing (Discovery Learning). *EDU-MAT: Jurnal Pendidikan Matematika*, 4(1), 76–85. <https://doi.org/10.20527/edumat.v4i1.2292>
- Muhamad, S. (2004). *Psikologi pembelajaran dan pengajaran*. Bandung: Pustaka Bani Quraisyi.
- Muller, D. (1992). *Mengukur sikap sosial pegangan untuk peneliti dan praktisi*. Terjemahan Eddy Soeari Kartawijaya. Jakarta; Bumi Aksara
- Purbosari, P. M. (2016). Pembelajaran berbasis proyek membuat ensiklopedia Ilmu Pengetahuan Alam (IPA) untuk meningkatkan academic skill pada mahasiswa. *Scholaria: Jurnal Pendidikan Dan Kebudayaan*, 6(3), 231. <https://doi.org/10.24246/j.scholaria.2016.v6.i3.p231-238>
- Rahman, M. M. (2019). Secondary school students attitude towards Junior School Certificate (JSC) examination in Bangladesh. *International Journal of Education*, 11(2), 161. <https://doi.org/10.17509/ije.v11i2.14746>
- Rosa, N. M. (2012). Pengaruh Sikap pada mata pelajaran kimia dan konsep diri terhadap prestasi belajar kimia. *Jurnal Ilmiah Program Studi Pendidikan Matematika Universitas Indraprasta PGRI*, 2(3), 218-226.
- Rosana, D., & Setyawarno, D. (2016). *Statistik terapan untuk penelitian pendidikan*. Yogyakarta.
- Suherman, U. (2010). *Konseling karir sepanjang rentan kehidupan*. Bandung: UPI.
- Sulthon. (2016). Pembelajaran IPA yang efektif dan menyenangkan bagi siswa

- Madrasah Ibtidaiyah (MI). *Elementary*, 4(1).
- Syahid, A. A. (2019). Gembira bersekolah: Memaknai fun learning di sekolah dasar. *Conference Series Journal*, 1(1), 1-7.
- Undang undang republik Indonesia nomor 20 tahun 2003
- Ward, G. Donnan, L.E., McNabb. K. (2016). Attitudes and experiences of classroom science: Children's voices. *International Journal of Education*, 9(1), 10–16.
- Winnkel, & Hastuti, S. (2010). *Bimbingan dan konseling di insitusi pendidikan*. Yogyakarta: Media Abadi.



International Journal of Indonesian Education and Teaching
<http://e-journal.usd.ac.id/index.php/IJJET>
Sanata Dharma University, Yogyakarta, Indonesia

PERSONALITY TRAITS, MOTIVATIONAL ORIENTATIONS AND SPEAKING ACHIEVEMENT IN THE EFL CONTEXT

Sefvirda Arniatika

University of Lampung, Indonesia

sefvirdaa@gmail.com

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.24071/ijiet.2020.040109>

received 18 November 2019; accepted 7 December 2019

Abstract

Despite the fact that a number of studies have shown a relationship between personality traits (extrovert and introvert) with oral performance in the EFL setting, the link between extrovert and introvert personality, EFL motivational orientations, and speaking achievement is very rare. Therefore, this present study aims to find what differences are truly existed between extrovert and introvert personality regarding to their motivational orientations and speaking achievement, and how extrovert and introvert personality are inter-correlated with EFL motivational orientations and speaking achievement. In order to identify the students' personality, the researcher used The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ) and Self-Report Questionnaire to identify the students' motivational orientations. The samples of this study are 40 students in XII grade of Senior High School in East Lampung, Indonesia. The data is further analyzed by using Independent samples T-test and Pearson product moment correlation coefficient. The results show that there is no significant difference between extrovert and introvert personality in both their motivational orientations and speaking achievement. Moreover, it is also found that there is a combination of motivational orientations that co-exists in the extrovert personality. However, both personality traits and motivational orientations are not supposed to be a strong predictor of students' speaking achievement. Therefore, this present study is largely extended to give a plausible explanation to the field under investigation.

Keywords: Personality traits, extrovert, introvert, EFL motivational orientations, speaking achievement

Introduction

More recently, studies on individual and personality differences are a central theme in psychology. In many occasions, the individual differences may contribute to the success of language learning. The term of personality traits are very interesting field to be researched since they may influence on the way on how people learn and what they decide to learn (Moody, 1988). In accordance to the students' achievement in speaking, people may assume that extroverts are

better than introverts since extroverts are identified as more sociable and talkative, while introverts remain to quiet and introspective (Eysenck, 1965).

Studies on the relationship between personality traits (extrovert and introvert) with oral performance in the EFL context have been well documented, but there are only a few studies have been conducted to find what differences are truly existed between extrovert and introvert personality regarding to their motivational orientations and speaking achievement, and how extrovert and introvert personality are inter-correlated with EFL motivational orientations and speaking achievement. To mention a few, more recent study conducted by Samand et al. (2019), which examined the relationship between extrovert-introvert students' personality and their speaking performance, shows that the insignificance correlation between those variables is caused by another factor, namely motivation. However, the study did not provide the empirical evidence of the correlation between motivation and speaking performance.

Earlier study conducted by Chen et al. (2015) also confirmed that personality types of extrovert and introvert are not necessarily considered as the decisive factor to achieve a better achievement in speaking. Since there are so many factors concerning to the individual differences, motivation is also considered as the predictor. By following the results of some previous studies, it may be assumed that extrovert-introvert personality, motivation, and speaking achievement are inter-correlated. However, there is still a need for an empirical study to investigate on how extrovert-introvert may differ in their motivational orientation and speaking achievement, and how they are inter-correlated at each other.

Based on the objectives above, the following research questions are further formulated as follows:

1. Is there any statistically significant difference between extrovert and introvert students in EFL motivational orientations?
2. Is there any statistically significant difference between extrovert and introvert students in speaking achievement?
3. How personality traits are inter-correlated with EFL motivational orientations and speaking achievement?

The contribution of this study is extended to theoretically support the expert literature of this current field under investigation. The findings of this study will be very beneficial for teachers, parents and students to lead to a decision of maintaining or changing the students' personality traits and improve their motivation in studying English as a foreign language. Even personality traits and motivational orientations are not strong predictors in the success of language learning, the great opportunities will be achieved better when the extrovert students are highly intrinsically motivated.

Literature Review

People's characteristics influence their social behaviors, orientation and interest. This leads to the notion that every person should have different behavior, orientation and interest. Therefore, it is unquestionable that when there is a different characteristic of personality, there is also possible to have different motivational orientations. Apparently, personality has long been a particular focus

of interest in education because it describes the preferences on how people learn and what they learn (McCaulley & Natter, 1974; Myres & Myres, 1980). Extroverts, for instance, have characteristics such as talk active, good at expressing face and body language, good at tasks and prefer quicker. In contrary, introverts are characterized as quiet, work independently and tend to be alone (Taylor, 1998).

Motivation represents the most significant factor of success (Dornyei, 1994). It is considered subjected to variation depending on situational factors. Some of the original research (see e.g. Maslow, 1954; Herzberg, Mausner & Synderman, 1959; Alderfer, 1972) had been conducted to identify factors underlying motivation. More recent research has further identified and grouped motivation into extrinsic and intrinsic motivation that depend greatly on the context, people involved and specific circumstances (Ehrman, Leaver, & Oxford; 2003). Another study also identified motivation, especially in EFL context, is falling into the international, extrinsic, and intrinsic (Setiyadi, et al., 2019). The terminology of having three motivational orientations is based on the hypothesis that the motivation theory of western country is irrelevant to the context where English is acquired and learnt as a foreign language. For those who acquire and learn English, particularly in Indonesia, the term of motivation becomes the reasons for their learning another language. In accordance to this, students may have more than just one reason to validate their involvement in language learning (Vallerand, et al., 2008). Therefore, beyond the extrinsic and intrinsic, the EFL students in Indonesia are oriented by international motivation since they have the reason to study English for the success of communication with other countries around the world.

Moreover, in the sense of extrovert and introvert personality with the success of language learning, Lightbown and Spada (2006) stated that many classroom teachers believe that in second or foreign language learning, extroverts are more successful than introverts especially in their communicative ability. In line with the previous research, many language teachers and learners believe that the role of extrovert and introvert personality constitutes a major factor contributing to success or failure in language learning (Naiman et al.'s, 1978). However, this finding is not a final conclusion to the belief that the success of language learning is regarded to the personality traits of extrovert and introvert. There are some possible factors that may influence the EFL students' speaking ability namely age or maturational constraints, aural medium, socio cultural factors and affective factors (Richard & Renandya, 2002). Thus, a further research is strongly needed to examine whether the extrovert is still outperforming in language learning rather than the introverts. Therefore, this present study aims to find what differences are truly existed between extrovert and introvert personality regarding to their motivational orientations and speaking achievement, and how extrovert and introvert personality are inter-correlated with EFL motivational orientations and speaking achievement.

Method

This study was a quantitative research. In order to find the difference and correlation between personality traits regarding to their EFL motivational orientations and speaking achievement, the researcher would firstly classify the students' personality types. The types of personality are categorized into extrovert and introvert. In attempting to answer the first and second research questions, the researcher would compare the means of three motivational orientations namely: international orientation, extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation based on extrovert and introvert personality. Another means of comparison would be also analyzed to find out the difference in speaking achievement between extrovert and introvert personality. Finally, the third research question would be analyzed by inter-correlating extrovert and introvert personality with EFL motivational orientations and speaking achievement.

Sample

A purposive sampling was used for data collection. The samples of this study were 40 students of XII grade in East Lampung, Indonesia. The samples were chosen since they have been studying English for 2 years in their school and they had higher English proficiency than other graders in the school.

Instrument

In gathering the data, the researcher used The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ) and Self-Report questionnaire. The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ) was employed to investigate the students' personality types into extrovert and introvert personality (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1975). The questionnaire adapted by the researcher consists of 10 items. The questionnaire was composed of two sub-scales: 5 items (Item no 1-5) were used to identify the introvert personality, while the rest items (Item no 6-10) were used to identify the extrovert personality. The validity and reliability of this questionnaire was calculated by using Cronbach's Alpha and each sub-scale of personality traits was valid and reliable. Here is the table of personality traits questionnaire scales.

Table 1.
Personality traits questionnaire scales and internal consistency coefficients

Scales	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Introvert	5 items	.83
Extrovert	5 items	.91
Personality Traits	10 items	.73

Meanwhile, Self-Report questionnaire was used to identify the motivational orientations of the students. The questionnaire was adopted from Setiyadi, et al. (2019) consists of 12 items and divided into 3 sub-scales: international orientation (item 1-4), extrinsic orientation (item 5-8), and intrinsic motivation (item 9-12). The validity and reliability of the questionnaire has been calculated by using Cronbach's Alpha ($\rho=.86$).

In order to gather the data of speaking achievement, the researcher did not conduct any specific test and measurement. The data is collected based on the average mark of students speaking test in the regular teaching process conducted by the English teacher.

Data Analysis

SPSS 16.0 was used to analyze the data gathered. In order to investigate the difference between extrovert and introvert students in EFL motivational orientations, the data were analyzed by running Independent samples T-test. The same analysis was also undertaken to find out the difference between extrovert and introvert students in their speaking achievement. Finally, Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was computed to investigate how personality traits are inter-correlated with EFL motivational orientations and speaking achievement.

Result and Discussion

Result

Extrovert-introvert personality and motivational orientations

In order to attempt answering the first research question, Independent Samples T-test was used to investigate the difference between extrovert and introvert personality concerning to their motivational orientations in the EFL context.

Table 3. Difference between extrovert and introvert in motivational orientations

Motivational Orientation	Personality Traits	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Significance
International orientation	Extrovert	20	4.08	.76	.018
	Introvert	20	3.35	1.04	
Extrinsic orientation	Extrovert	20	3.91	.93	.499
	Introvert	20	3.72	.81	
Intrinsic orientation	Extrovert	20	3.79	.83	.130
	Introvert	20	3.40	.75	

** p < .01

Regarding to this finding, it can be concluded that there is insignificant difference between extrovert and introvert personality in their motivational orientations. The mean scores of the extrovert international orientation (M= 4.08), extrinsic motivation (M= 3.91) and intrinsic orientation (M=3.79) are higher than the introvert (M= 3.35; M= 3.72; M= 3.40). It indicates that extrovert personality may achieve outperforming motivation rather than introvert personality. However, the outperforming motivation of extrovert personality is not significantly difference with the introvert personality since the significance of each orientation is further calculated as follows: international orientation (p= .018), extrinsic motivation (p= .499) and intrinsic motivation (p= .130).

Extrovert-introvert personality and speaking achievement

Another finding attempts to answer the second research question by running Independent samples T-Test to examine whether there is any statistically

significant difference between extrovert and introvert students personality in their speaking achievement.

Table 4. Difference between extrovert and introvert in speaking achievement

	Personality Traits	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Significance
Speaking Achievement	Extrovert	20	2.39	.634	.614
	Introvert	20	2.39	.611	

** p < .01

As can be seen in the Table 4, there was not any statistically significant difference between extrovert and introvert students personality in their speaking achievement. The score of extrovert personality (M= 2.39, SD= .634) and introvert personality (M= 2.39, SD= .611) is insignificant (p= .614). The result suggests that extrovert and introvert personality do not have any significant effect on students' speaking achievement.

Correlation among the variables

In order to find out the answer for the third research question, the analysis of Pearson product moment correlation coefficient is used to determine how extrovert and introvert personality are inter-correlated with motivational orientation and speaking achievement.

Table 5. Correlations among the variables

	(a1)	(a2)	(b1)	(b2)	(b3)	(c)
Introvert (a1)	-					
Extrovert (a2)	-.56**	-				
International orientation (b1)	-.19	.43**	-			
Extrinsic orientation (b2)	.30	.34*	.48**	-		
Intrinsic orientation (b3)	-.19	.40**	.38*	.69**	-	
Speaking achievement (c)	-.07	.15	.02	.38*	.29	-

** p < .01

As can be seen from Table 5, the two sub-scales of personality traits were statistically significantly correlated. It is the same as the three sub-scales of motivational orientations that indicates positive correlation. In order to figure the correlation between the extrovert and introvert personality and motivational orientations, extrovert personality is significantly inter-correlated with three motivational orientations rather than introvert personality, namely international orientation, extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation.

While extrovert personality shows positive and statistically significant correlation rather than introvert personality with both extrinsic and intrinsic orientations, extrovert personality seems to have the strongest linear correlation with international orientation. It suggests that extrovert personality strongly affects to the students' international orientation rather than other motivational orientations. By this finding, the inter-correlation among the personality traits and

motivational orientations may be implied that the students who are categorized as the extrovert learners may have a combination of the motivational orientations in learning English. This is not a surprising finding since many earlier studies have been documented that the combination of motivational orientation in learning English can co-exist and even associated positively to motivate the students for a greater accomplishment of task (Lepper et al., 2005; Hayenga & Corpus, 2010; Setiyadi et al., 2016). Another similar study is conducted by Zhang et al. (2013) that find out the extrovert students are more likely to be more motivated intrinsically as they are interested to always communicate with other people. This indicates that the extrovert students have stronger motivation intensity.

Discussion

The main goal of this present study was extended to theoretically give further information regarding to the influence of extrovert and introvert personality on their motivational orientations, and the influence of extrovert-introvert students' personality and motivational orientations on speaking achievement.

Students' personality and their motivational orientations

The plausible reason why both extrovert and introvert personality have no significant difference in their motivational orientation is that both of personality traits have the same motivational intensity in studying English. According to Silverman (2012), introverts try to be perfect in school. Therefore, the introvert students may have a higher motivational intensity to study English at school. In accordance to this, many good attributes are also attached to the introvert students as their effort to be motivated in achieving their goals. Thompson's (2012) reported that good at listening, planning concentration on tasks for a long time, uninterrupted period of time, taking time to think and focusing, and act independently are the characteristic of introvert students.

Meanwhile, extrovert students tend to be more motivated intrinsically as they are interested to always communicate with other people. This indicates that the extrovert students have stronger motivation intensity (Zhang et al., 2013). Besides, the motivation to always perform well in a certain situation is also characterized when the extrinsic rewards do exist (Hart et al., 2007). However, the insignificant difference between extrovert and introvert personality in their motivational orientations can be further elaborated as the impact of the English status in Indonesia. Since English in Indonesia is introduced as a foreign language, the awareness of the society to go beyond with English in entering the new millennium is also emerged. Many parents also support their children to early prepare learning English since they were in the elementary school (Lestari, 2003; Chodidjah, 2008). Thus, students who were extrovert and introvert have already fulfilled by the same awareness to learn English by the aim to have strongly preparation for the coming years.

Students' personality and their speaking achievement

The finding of this present study shows that there is insignificant difference between extrovert and introvert students according to their speaking achievement.

This finding is similar to the research conducted by Nadiyah (2010) entitled “Comparative Analysis on Choleric Students and Melancholic Students Concerning Their English Speaking Skill”. The research found that there is no statistically significant difference between the extrovert-introvert students with their English competence. The insignificant result may imply that the success of the students’ speaking achievement is not mainly regarded to their personality, but another factor such as their own learning strategy. It is already confirmed that the extrovert learners prefer to use greater number of interpersonal communication strategies or communicative strategies, while the introvert students tend to learn mostly by using metacognitive and cognitive strategy (Kayaoğlu, 2013).

The inter-correlation among extrovert-introvert personality, motivational orientations and speaking achievement

In order to investigate the inter-correlation between personality and speaking achievement, the finding reveals that there is no significant correlation. A study conducted by Chen et al. (2015) entitled “A Survey Study: The Correlation between Introversiion/Extroversion and Oral English Learning Outcome” reported that there is insignificant correlation between students’ personality and their oral English learning. It suggests that personality types (extrovert and introvert) are not being a prior factor for the success of students’ oral English learning.

In line with this finding, Samand et al. (2019) also did the study regarding to the relationship between extrovert-introvert personality and students’ speaking performance in English study program of Halu Oleo University. The findings of this study indicate that both of extrovert-introvert personality was not correlated significantly with students’ speaking achievement. This may imply that students’ speaking achievement might be influenced by another factor. In this sense, the possible factor to define why there is no correlation between the students’ personality and their speaking achievement is that the students have already being strongly motivated to study speaking English. Therefore, the difference between students’ personality of extrovert and introvert is not a decisive factor for the success of students’ higher achievement in speaking.

Another similar finding is also found in the study conducted by Azis (2010) that investigates the correlation between extrovert and introvert personality with the oral performance of the EFL learners regarding to its components of fluency, accuracy, complexity, pronunciation and global impression. The study reveals that there is insignificant correlation between extrovert-introvert personality and their oral performance. The plausible reason to the extent why extrovert-introvert personality does not have any correlation with speaking achievement is further explained by Shumin in Richard & Renandya (2002). According to the explanation, some possible factors that may influence to the EFL students’ speaking ability are age or maturational constraints, aural medium, socio cultural factors and affective factors. Therefore, there is no doubt to state that students’ speaking achievement is not influenced by their extrovert-introvert personality.

However, the linear relationship of intrinsic orientation and speaking achievement shows statistically significant correlation but it is not particularly strong correlation. The plausible explanation is because intrinsic motivation is

positively correlated to predict the success of one's ability. Thus, the competence of mastering one's ability is highly achieved when the students are intrinsically motivated (Gottfried, 1985; Pintrich & de Groot, 1990). Similar to the finding, intrinsic motivation is a strong predictor to the success of learning. When the students are confident in their own abilities, the achievement of their learning success is possibly higher (Garcia & Pintrich, 1996; Greene & Miller, 1996; Walker et al., 2006). This suggests that the students who are intrinsically motivated had more positive effects on speaking achievement than any other motivational orientation. Thus, even the extrovert students may have combination of EFL motivational orientations, speaking achievement is only correlated significantly with the intrinsic orientation, while other orientations had insignificant effect.

Conclusion

This study is largely extended to investigate i) what are the differences between extrovert and introvert students' personality regarding to their EFL motivational orientations and speaking achievement, ii) how personality traits (extrovert and introvert) is inter-correlated with motivational orientations and speaking achievement in the EFL context. The findings show that in the context of EFL in Indonesia, the students who have different personality traits of extrovert and introvert have no statistically significant difference both in their motivational orientation and their speaking achievement. Meanwhile, the inter-correlation between extrovert-introvert personality, motivational orientation and speaking achievement can be described into three parts. The first correlation is between extrovert-introvert personality and three motivational orientations. The result indicates that extrovert personality is significantly inter-correlated with three motivational orientations namely international orientation, extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation. In addition, extrovert personality seems to have the strongest linear correlation with international orientation. While in the correlation between extrovert-introvert students' personality with students' speaking achievement, the result shows that there is insignificant correlation. However, the linear relationship of intrinsic orientation and speaking achievement shows statistically significant correlation but it is not particularly strong correlation. This suggests that the students who are intrinsically motivated had more positive effects on speaking achievement than any other motivational orientation.

Regarding to the finding, although personality traits and motivation were generally significantly correlated, the inter-correlation with speaking achievement is insignificant. Therefore, there is a need for a further research to investigate the reasons for the low coefficients of the insignificant inter-correlation to the speaking achievement.

References

- Alderfer, C. P. (1972). *Existence, relatedness, and growth*. New York: Free Press.
- Azis, R. (2010). *Extraversion-introversion and the oral performance of Koya University EFL Students*. A Master's Thesis, Koya University, Ankara.

- Chen, Y., Jiang Y., & Mu, Z. (2015). A Survey Study: The correlation between introversion/extroversion and oral English learning outcome. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 6, 581-587.
- Chodidjah, I. (2008). *Scrutinizing the teaching of English in elementary schools in East Asian countries*. Paper presented at the ASIA TEFL International Conferences 2008, Bali, 1-3 August 2008.
- Ehrman, M. E., Leaver, B. L., and Oxford, R. L. (2003). A brief overview of individual differences in second language learning. *System*, 31, 313–330.
- Eysenck, H. J. (1965). *Fact and fiction in psychology*. Harmondsworth: Penguin.
- Eysenck, H. & Eysenck, S. (1975). *Persian version of the manual of Eysenck Personality Questionnaire*. London: Hodder & Stoughton.
- Garcia, T., & Pintrich, P. R. (1996). The effects of autonomy on motivation and performance in the college classroom. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 21, 477–486.
- Gottfried, A. E. (1985). Academic intrinsic motivation in elementary and junior high school students. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 77, 631–645.
- Greene, B. A., & Miller, R. B. (1996). Influences on achievement: Goals, perceived ability, and cognitive engagement. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 21, 181–192.
- Hart, J. W., Paul A. S., & Mark F. S. (2007). The big five and achievement motivation: exploring the relationship between personality and a two-factor model of motivation. *Individual Differences Research Journal*, 5, 267-174.
- Hayenga, A.O., & Corpus, J.H. (2010). Profile on intrinsic and extrinsic Motivation: A person-centered approach to motivation and achievement in middle school. *Motiv.Emot*, 34, 371-383.
- Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Synderman, B. B. (1959). *The motivation to work*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Kayaoğlu, M.N. (2013). Impact of extraversion and introversion on language-learning behaviors. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 41, 819-826.
- Lepper, M.R., Corpus, J. H., & Iyengar, S.S. (2005). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in the classroom age differences and academic correlates. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 97, 184-196.
- Lestari, L. A. (2003). Should English be a compulsory subject in primary schools?. *Bahasa dan Seni*, 31, 2.
- Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (2006). *How languages are learned: Oxford handbook for language teachers (3rd ed.)*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Maslow, A.H. (1954). *Motivation and personality*. New York: Harper and Row.
- McCaulley, M. H., and Natter, F. (1974). *Psychological (Myres-Briggs) type differences in education*. Gainesville, FL: Center for Applications of Psychological Type.
- Moody, R. (1988). Personality preferences and foreign language learning. *The Modern Language Journal*, 72, 389–401.
- Myres, I. B., and Myres, P. B. (1980). *Gifts differing*. Palo Alto: Consulting Psychologists.

- Nadiyah. (2010). *Comparative analysis on choleric students and melancholic students concerning their English speaking skill*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Syarif Hidayatullah State Islamic University, Indonesia.
- Naiman, N., Frohlich, M., & Todesco, A. (1978). *The good language learner*. Toronto: Ontario institute for studies in education.
- Pintrich, P. R., & de Groot, E. V. (1990). Motivational and self-regulated learning components of classroom academic performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82, 33–40.
- Richard, C. J., & Renandya, A. W. (2002). *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Samand, S. M., Sailan, Z., & Lio, A. (2019). Analysis on the relationship of extrovert-introvert personality and students' speaking performance in English study program of Halu Oleo University. *Journal of Language Education and Educational Technology*, 4.
- Setiyadi, A.B., Mahpul, & Wicaksono, B.A. (2019). Exploring motivational orientations of English as foreign language (EFL) learners: A case study in Indonesia. *South African Journal of Education*, 39.
- Silverman, L. (2012). *Introversion and giftedness*. Colorado: Gifted Development Center in Denver.
- Taylor, J. (1998). *Using asynchronous computer conferencing to encourage interaction in seminar discussions*. Retrieved October 24, 2019, from <http://www.virtualschool.edu/mon.html>
- Thompson, S. (2012). Introvert or extrovert? Tips for a balanced classroom. *Canadian Teacher Magazine*, 5, 6-18.
- Vallerand, R.J., Pelletier, L.G., & Koestner, R. (2008). Reflections on self-determination theory. *Canadian Psychology*, 49, 257-262.
- Walker, C. O., Greene, B. A., & Mansell, R. A. (2006). Identification with academics, intrinsic/extrinsic motivation, and self-efficacy as predictors of cognitive engagement. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 16, 1–12.
- Zhang, W., Su, D., & Liu, M. (2013). Personality traits, motivation and foreign language attainment. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 4, 58-66.



**REDEFINING IDENTITY: THE INTERNATIONAL SCHOOL
LANGUAGE TEACHERS' NARRATIVES OF THE PAST
AND PRESENT ENTERPRISE**

Veronika Swanti

Sanata Dharma University

veronika.swanti@gmail.com

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.24071/ijiet.2020.040110>

received 26 July 2019; accepted 18 October 2019

Abstract

Researchers have been studying pre-service and in-service language teacher identity for more than two decades across countries. However, there is few research conducted in Indonesia regarding in-service language teacher identity in an international school. The present study aims at investigating international school language teachers' prior experience and current teaching enterprise in redefining their professional and personal identity. The study employs qualitative method embracing questionnaire and in-depth interviews. There are 6 participants including teachers of Indonesian, English, Chinese, French, and Spanish language subjects. This study found that language teachers at AHS perceived their professional identity through the production of metaphors and the recalling of past and present teaching enterprise. Further exploration on the language teacher identity construction in Indonesia is then needed.

Keywords: language teacher identity, international school, professional identity, metaphor

Introduction

Succeeding the emerging interest on teacher identity studies, researchers have been studying pre-service and in-service language teacher identity for the last decade across countries. Most of the studies explored the identity (of language teachers) through five ways embracing the influence of contextual factors on teachers and their practice, the variety of discourses, the narratives to explain selves and teaching lives, the metaphors regarding the roles of teacher, and the constant 'reinventing' of themselves that teachers undergo (Beauchamp and Thomas, 2009, p. 175).

Research on pre-service language teacher identity has been conducted through the years. In Indonesian context, Kuswandono (2014) discussed how thirteen preservice teachers (PSTs) in Guru University in Indonesia describe themselves in relation to their professional identity through reflective practice during their campus-based practicum. This study suggested that teacher education needs to provide more reflective dialogues to shape PSTs' identity and

professionalism. Another study on language teacher identity focused on Indonesian pre-service teachers' identities in a microteaching context: learning to teach English in an Indonesian teacher education program (Riyanti and Sarroub, 2016). Employing ethnographic research tools investigating 11 participants in West Kalimantan, this study suggested that that pre-service teachers' identity development is influenced by their conceptualization of what constitutes sound English teaching in their multilingual setting.

Investigation on the in-service language teacher have also been conducted to explore the transformation of teacher identities. In Indonesian context, Astuti (2016) conducted a study on the professional identity of English as a Foreign Language novice teachers as practitioner of cooperative learning. This study presented four challenges to the development of the target professional identity which are the unavailability of community of cooperative learning practitioners, hegemony vs. identity development, agency in the midst of tensions, and institutional identity vs. professional identity.

From the related studies presented formerly, it should be noted that the in-service language teacher identity in an international school in Indonesia, however, has not been addressed in current studies. Few studies discuss on what it means to be a language teacher in an international school in Indonesia. The purpose of the present study, therefore, is to explore the international school language teachers' prior personal and professional experience and their current teaching enterprise in attempts to redefine their identities. Aim High School, a certified International Baccalaureate world school, was chosen to be investigated.

Literature Review

Understanding language teacher identity requires understanding on teacher identity in general. Unlike many professions, Palmer (2010, p. 17) states that teaching is always done at the dangerous intersection of personal and public life. To understand how teachers construct and define their identity, therefore, it is suggested to understand the concept of teacher personal and professional identity. Employing a sociocultural perspective, Olsen (2008, p. 136) views teacher identity as a label influenced by contexts, prior constructs of self, social positioning, and meaning systems. Karabay (2016, p. 2) posits that teacher identity refers to the construct of the professional personality that is formed during career advancement. The present study characterizes language teacher identity as a mix of individual and professional label including both allotted and asserted personality which is transformative and built through the course of language teaching.

Prior personal and professional experience are believed to bring influence to the construction of language teacher's identity. Olsen (2008, p. 25) presents prior personal experience as those related to the influence of family and schooling. Prior professional experience includes experience of working with kids. This section presents the significance of prior personal and professional experience and the borderland discourse teachers have encountered during the journey of language teaching.

The role of others influences the individual's construction of identity (Alsup, 2006). Significant others include family, friends, partners, or peers. They play significant roles in the individual's professional development. Individual's decision in being a teacher is influenced by the role models, including past teachers. Castañeda (2011) argues that what past teachers did as result of their daily practice, behavior, discourse or subject knowledge, for example, seemed to have had an impact on the aspirations of individuals, either positively or negatively. Knowles and Holt-Reynolds (1991) argue that experiences as a student and as a teacher tended to have the most powerful influence on how new teachers chose to teach. Alsup (2006, p. 78) also states that experience is a powerful factor when learning to teach. It is believed that prior professional experience a teacher encountered during teacher education or beginning career takes part in teacher identity construction. Beauchamp and Thomas (2009) define discourse as the kind of interaction that has the power to confront teachers' ideas about themselves and their profession. Alsup (2006) suggests the term borderland discourse as a moment where teachers employ critical thinking and reflection in making hard choices that modify personal or professional discourses. The tension teachers encountered during teacher education period and during early teaching experience contributes to the construction of teacher identity.

Due to its nature, language teacher identity transforms through the journey of teaching. Teacher identity could shift with every new teaching skill, new expectation from students and teachers, new social context, new question and new idea (Issa, Ai-Feng, and Zhi-Lian, 2010). This transformation then happens not only during teacher education but also during professional life as a teacher. Teacher's metaphor (Karabay, 2016), teacher's knowledge and belief (Alsup, 2006), and community membership (Castaneda, 2011) are believed to give significant contributions to the construction of language teacher identity.

Karabay (2016) suggests a metaphor study to investigate teachers' or prospective teachers' views about their teaching identities. Research on teacher identity construction through metaphor has been conducted by investigating prospective teachers (Mellado, Montaña, Luengo, and Bermejo, 2014; Duru, 2015; Arslana and Karatas, 2015; Karabay, 2016), novice teachers (Thomas and Beauchamp, 2011; Fisher-Ari and Lynch, 2015), head teachers (Argyropoulou and Hatira, 2014), and higher education teachers (Billot and King, 2015). Karabay (2016, p. 8) reveals categories of metaphors of the teacher's roles as knowledge providers, nurturers, instructors and directors, molders and formers, power indicators, and curers.

International Baccalaureate curriculum (Baccalaureate, 2008) demands language teachers to play important roles in the international school community. This curriculum recognizes that, since language is central to learning, all teachers are, in practice, language teachers with responsibilities in facilitating communication. Language teachers in this curriculum are required to position themselves both as a facilitator of language learning as well as a unique individual representing their cultural identity.

This study addresses two research questions derived from the literature. The first question seeks to find out what metaphors the language teachers in Aim High

School adopt to represent their professional identities. The second question aim to find out how the language teachers in Aim High School construct meanings of their prior experience and current teaching enterprise related to their self and professional identities transformation.

Method

This study implemented qualitative methods in collecting and analyzing the data. Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen, and Walker (2013) state that qualitative method focuses the study on understanding social phenomena from the perspective of the human participants in natural settings. Social phenomena of the language teachers' identity construction reflected on their narratives has been the concern of this study.

This study was conducted in Aim High School (AHS). Established in 1989, AHS is the only certified International Baccalaureate school in Yogyakarta. English is used as the primary means of communication in delivering lessons from three international curriculum applied of International Baccalaureate and Cambridge for secondary students, and International Primary Curriculum for primary students. AHS was chosen since this school employs teachers from various educational backgrounds and citizenship to teach students from diverse citizenship as well. As the curriculum focus on the use of language and the encouragement of students' mother tongue, language teachers play important roles both as a facilitator of language learning as well as a unique individual representing their cultural identity.

This study examined the prior experience and current teaching enterprise influencing the language teachers' identity of 6 language teachers at Aim High School. The language subjects taught cover Chinese, English, Indonesian, Spanish, and France. Questionnaires in English and interviews in Javanese, Indonesian, and English had been conducted to collect the data. The questionnaires complied two parts presenting participants' demographics and open-ended questions to explore participants' prior experience and current teaching enterprise. Participants' demography with their names written as pseudonyms were presented in a table to see the participants' nationality, educational background, language taught, age, years of teaching language at AHS, and total years of teaching language.

Result and Discussion

The study found that all of the participants were female with age ranged from 24 to 40. Most of them had worked in AHS at least for 3 years except one new English teacher, Vivian, who had just worked for 3 months. Most of the participants had previously worked as language teachers ranged from 2.5 to 19 years before working at AHS except the French language teacher (Freya). The result showed that not all participants had backgrounds on language education study. From 2 participants who graduated from English education study program, one was teaching English but the other one was teaching Indonesian language.

This study found six metaphors provided by the participants: Shakespeare's novel, a book in a large library, a fishing rod supplier, love, a chosen landscape

(soil), and a GPS device. The chosen metaphors were categorized under the categorization suggested by Karabay (2016) embracing traditional roles (knowledge provider, molder and former, power indicator, curer) and modern roles (nurturer, instructive and directive). It is believed that the traditional roles of language teachers focus more on the teachers as the resource/leader while modern roles of language teachers focus more on how to meet the individual needs and interests of students as well as to guide students in the learningteaching process. Karanezi, Rapti, and Halimi (2015) argue that the traditional teaching methodologies with teacher in the center were not anymore able to meet the needs of teaching methodologies changes at schools. Focusing on promoting critical thinking, modern teaching methodologies, with the student in the center, are being implemented all over the world. Three participants (Vivian, Sarah, and Freya) provided metaphors representing traditional language teacher's role as knowledge providers embracing Shakespeare's novel, a book in a large library, and a chosen landscape (soil) respectively. One participant (Megan) represented modern language teacher's role as a nurturer, focusing on how teachers acted as love which takes a hand, opens a mind and touches a heart. Two other participants (Nancy and Cara) respectively provided metaphors representing modern language teacher's instructive and directive role embracing a fishing rod supplier and a GPS device. It means that half of the participants represent language teacher's traditional roles, and the other half represent modern roles of language teachers.

Traditional role metaphors focus on the knowledge and skills of language teachers. A metaphor of Shakespeare's novel claimed that language teachers had broad knowledge of English language, broad perspective, broad self-expression. A metaphor of a book in a large library declared that a language teacher had one specific talent to help children. A metaphor of a chosen landscape (soil) argued that if language teachers are joyful and optimistic then the students will feel their energy and will be joyful too, but if the language teachers are not in a good mood, their lesson will be not interesting. The modern role metaphors, in contrary, focus more on how to guide the students in achieving their personal aspirations. A metaphor of love stated that being a good teacher is not only teaching the student academically but also considering to touch their heart. A metaphor on a fishing rod supplier asserted that language teacher is giving guidance while student developing. Another metaphor of a GPS device professed that language teacher shows the students the way to connect with the world for any purpose, like the GPS which shows the route to any place the driver's heading. The study also found that participants who adopted the traditional role metaphors had less language teaching experience than those who provided modern role metaphors. Three participants who adopted the traditional role metaphors had worked as language teachers for 2.5 years, 3 years, and 5 years respectively. The other three participants had taught languages for 8, 14, and 19 years respectively.

McLeod (2008) suggests four categories of self-image identification embracing physical description, social roles, personal traits, and existential statements. Physical description includes physical conditions such as height or colors of eyes. Social roles embrace the roles people play such as student, housewife, or member of the football team. Personal traits involve self

characteristics or likes/dislikes. Existential statement is more abstract that can range from "I'm a child of the universe" to "I'm a human being" to "I'm a spiritual being". Aypay and Aypay (2011) also support this categorization by suggesting 4 respective categories incorporating physical, social, reflective, and oceanic statements. This study then employs categorization comprising physical description, social roles, reflective personal traits, and existential statements.

This study found that all of the participants provided statements of social roles. Most of the participants provided statements of reflective personal traits. Physical description was provided by one participant, followed by existential statement provided by one participant. Most of the participants identified their roles in the society supporting the argument by Burke and Stets (2009) as cited in Trask (2016, p. 326) that identity is a set of constructions that clarify who one is when occupying a particular role in society and as a member of a specific group, as well as owning the characteristics which contribute to the uniqueness of oneself. Most of the teacher participants declared themselves as teachers in general. Some of them added more roles they played in the society such as a student, a sales staff, a widow, a member of various organizations, a member of a family, a friend, a colleague, a designer, a traveller, an exchange student, a language teacher, a design teacher, an immigrant, a child in a family. Reflective personal traits were provided by most of the participants. The traits covered the love of learning, a grateful person, a positive person, a passionate person, a lucky one, a sociable kid. Even though Vivian did not provide reflective personal traits, she introduced her physical description covering her name and birth date. From the description, it is clear that younger participants did not provide reflective personal traits. This finding is inconsistent with the research in the literature as stated by McLeod (2008) and Aypay & Aypay (2011) that young people define themselves in terms of personal traits while older people tend to describe themselves in terms of social roles. Megan was the only one to provide existential statement where she considered herself as a world citizen. She elaborated this spiritual statement by mentioning that whenever she saw her life and the world from the positive side, world always gave its best for her life. This statement supports Webster's (2005) that spiritual quality of personal identity is existential in character due to a person's ability to see the relation of life purposes.

The study also found that age was significant in identifying teachers' ability to position themselves in the society. Older teacher participants (above 25 years old) tend to be able to identify their social roles and elaborate them personally than the younger participants. This indicated that age played important role in the identification of self-image.

The study found that there were 4 participants raised by a family of teachers. One participant was not born in a teacher family but had been influenced by a religion teacher upon pursuit of teaching. The other teacher participant gained interest in teaching after getting married and mothering her children. This is consistent with Alsup's (2006) argument that significant others (family, friends, partners, or peers) play significant roles in the individual's professional development.

The study found that most of the participants provide good and bad images towards their past teachers. The participants recalled negative daily practices of their past teachers such as being too theoretical and being old-fashioned. Positive behavior of past teachers were recalled as respectful, fearless, patient, caring, always fine, perfect, helping, motivating, responsible, and highly appreciated. Negative behavior of being not motivating the students was also mentioned. More than half of the participants revealed that past teachers' discourse for being strict and supportive in the same time gave them positive image about teachers. Past teachers' subject knowledge was also recalled as positive images embracing smart, knowledgeable, creative, innovative, dynamic, and varied. This finding supports Castañeda (2011) that past teachers' daily practice, behaviour, discourse or subject knowledge seemed to have had an impact on the aspirations of individuals, either positively or negatively.

All participants evoked their favorite teachers who influenced their perspectives about teaching. The participants provided positive characteristics of their past teachers as role models embracing how they show good quality of teaching and how they treat students personally. Being open minded, calm but powerful, never afraid to share opinions, creative, innovative, influencing, inspiring, and experienced were the teaching qualities shown by the participants' past teachers. Most of the participants adored their past teachers who were strict but friendly in the same time. They also focused on the students' learning as they were open for discussion, supporting, guiding, motivating, engaging, and trusting the students. This findings also support Olsen (2008) that individual's decision in being a teacher results from the influence of role models.

The study found that most of the participants had previously worked as a language teacher at one or more institutions before working as a language teacher at Aim High School. Although Vivian and Sarah were regarded as fresh graduates and new language teacher at AHS, they had former experience of teaching languages during their undergraduate program. This helped them evoked their teaching achievement and teaching challenges during teaching practices. Freya was the only participant who considered AHS as the first workplace to teach French language. Despite the fact that she did not have background on educational study and had no plan in teaching, she finally coped with the difficulties in starting teaching after obtaining help from her friend.

All six participants are women and it supports Olsen's (2011) argument that perhaps it is no surprise that gender emerged as a variable within their decisions to enter teaching. There were three gender-related influences on language teachers' reasons for entry embracing "playing teacher" activity, female education workers, and mothering. This study found that the participants provided two gender-related influences embracing female education workers and mothering. Vivian, Sarah, Megan, and Freya had mothers who worked as teachers. Nancy recalled how her female religion teacher influenced her for choosing a teaching profession while Cara believed the influence was from within as she encountered her mothering role. This finding of reasons for entry was highly connected with the section on family/friends influence.

The study found that the participants considered their qualification for teaching as their reasons for being a teacher. Vivian clearly stated that she chose to be a teacher since she graduated from a teacher education program. Sarah believed that her love of being around children elevated her reason in choosing this profession. While Nancy was aware of her ability to share knowledge, Megan perceived that she was able to have a dynamic job. Other than ability to share knowledge, Freya focused on her quality for working in a team. Working with other people was the reason for entry into the teaching profession stated by Cara. This finding supports Olsen's (2011) that reasons for entry focused on a perceived personal compatibility with the job of teaching. This study, however, found a better explanation on the urge of the participants for being a teacher. Most of the participants revealed that the reason for entry into the teaching profession was emerged from their love of using the language, sharing knowledge, and working with people. Vivian argued that language was fun. While Sarah loved to be around with children and teenagers, Freya loved working with a team and Cara loved working with people. While Nancy and Freya both loved sharing knowledge, Megan proudly loved teaching itself.

The study found that each participant was unique in relation with educational background. There were only two of the participants graduated from teacher education study. Other than that, among all the participants, there was only one teacher teaching the same subject as they studied in the university. Vivian had been teaching "in-field" as she graduated from English teacher education study and taught English language. However, her identity as a Non-native speaker of English in an international school made her unique. Another participant, Cara, similarly graduated from an English teacher education but taught Indonesian language rather than English. Her Indonesian nationality helped her cope with the subject knowledge. Megan was also an Indonesian citizen teaching Indonesian language but graduated from English letters faculty. The knowledge of English use then became a benefit for Cara and Megan to communicate with students as English was the mere language of delivery at AHS. Nancy was Indonesian, teaching Chinese, and graduated from psychology major. It was her experience of studying abroad in China that qualified her as a Non-native Chinese speaker. Sarah was Spanish, teaching Spanish, and graduated from management study while Freya was French, teaching French, but graduated from art and design major.

Most of the participants did not experience teacher education but they were native to the language taught. This phenomenon of teaching 'out-of-field' supports McConney & Price (2009) as cited in Hobbs (2013) regarding a technical meaning where teachers do not have education-related and discipline-related qualifications. The identity complexity of the language teachers at AHS implied that teachers might face borderland discourses or tensions during teaching. Vivian's concern about students' attitude came as she realized after teaching at AHS that students seemed to be inattentive as they were born native speakers of English where they did not need to learn how to speak English. English teaching in an international school was not only about skills but also attitude and culture.

Problems regarding education-related qualification were also encountered by Sarah, Nancy, and Freya. Sarah had to learn how to teach by doing and observing her mother and brother, who did not experience teacher education as well. Even though having multiple previous workplaces, Nancy still had a problem in classroom management and finding best-fit books for teaching Chinese language. Freya, having no plan to teach language, had to learn how to teach from her friend.

Megan was believed to be settle in the profession as she seemed to be able to cope with the tensions. Megan stated that she did not feel comfortable with the administrative works of traditional curriculum in Indonesian education so she moved to an international school. Meanwhile, Cara did not state the tension of working on administrative works but focused more on the students' awareness of the importance of the language.

This study found that there were two areas of concern suggested by the participants regarding the significance of being a language teacher in their current teaching practice. They were the language significance and the personal qualification. Cara elaborated the importance of language as a universal tool to learn and discuss things across subjects as well as revealed that being a teacher increased her knowledge of other subject areas. Vivian focused on the importance of language teacher as teaching language was not only about transferring knowledge but also mixing it with culture, point of view or perspective, ideas, and genres. Sarah suggested that language was fun and it was easy to seek students attention in learning language. Nancy pointed that Chinese language was not difficult but challenging. Personal qualifications were mentioned by Megan as she was open-minded, loved to discuss things with students, and offered innovative and interesting ways of learning. Another personal qualification was stated by Freya as she tried not to bring her soul states into classroom and to always be in a good mood.

The study also found that all participants provided positive attitude in coping with the multiculturalism in an international school. Vivian and Megan stated that even though it was considered hard or challenging, they still enjoyed and tried to understand the situation. Megan shows how she understood how to cope with problems emerged in a multicultural situation and to suggest solution for the setbacks. Megan suggested that a good communication was the key to cope with the multicultural atmosphere.

Being asked about the aspirations to accomplish from being a language teacher, the participants affirmed that they had the desire to help students learn languages. Vivian wanted to help Indonesian people speak English. Sarah wished to help people learn language and culture by establishing a language institute. Nancy aspired to support students to learn Chinese art and culture as well as to experience the learning atmosphere through competition, field trip, and study tour. Megan pursued her dream of encouraging foreigners to learn Indonesian by publishing bilingual books and videos. Freya had a dream to support students' desire of learning languages by organizing a field trip to respective country of the language. Cara would like to make students to be proud of Indonesia after

engaging in any activities conducted. This might be concluded that all participants put students as the central focus upon teaching language.

Conclusion

First, metaphors produced by the language teachers showed how they perceived their teacher's role employing traditional view (teacher-centered) and modern view (student-centered). The metaphors produced by language teachers were dynamic and subject to change due to their teachers' professional practice.

Second, language teachers' prior experience and current teaching enterprise were interconnected and significant in the transformation of the language teacher identity. It was impossible not to link up self-image identification, prior personal experience, prior professional experience, reasons for entry, teacher education experience, current teaching context/practice, and career plans encountered by the language teachers at AHS.

Third, each issue investigated in this study revealed deductive assumption as well as implication regarding the language teachers' identity transformation. The importance of language, personal qualifications, and positive attitude towards language teaching are vital in maintaining the language teachers' consistence in the current profession.

Fourth, through the discourses and challenges encountered during teaching, language teachers at AHS humbly revealed their pursuit of helping other people thrive through language teaching and learning. This shows that the aspiration of modern teacher's role is already kept safe by teachers in their heart. This implies that the language teachers at AHS are prepared to learn and acquire knowledge and beliefs through professional development.

References

- Alsup, J. (2006). *Teacher identity discourses: Negotiating personal and professional spaces*. Routledge.
- Argyropoulou, E., & Hatira, K. (2014). Metaphors and drawings as research tools of head teachers' perceptions on their management and leadership roles and responsibilities. *European Early Childhood Education Research Journal*, 22(4), 496-512.
- Arslan, D., & Karatas, Z. (2015). Mirror of prospective teachers' mind: metaphors. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 197, 1464-1471.
- Ary, D., Jacobs, L. C., Sorensen, C. K., & Walker, D. (2013). *Introduction to research in education*. Cengage Learning.
- Astuti, P. (2016). Practitioner of cooperative learning as part of novice teachers' professional identity. *TEFLIN Journal*, 27(2), 132-152.
- Aypay, A., & Aypay, A. (2011). The Twenty Statement Test in Teacher Development. *Online Submission*, 2(4), 95-106.
- Baccalaureate, International. (2008). Guidelines for developing a school language policy. Retrieved from <http://occ.ibo.org/ibis/occ/spec/learn.cfm?subject=learn>

- Beauchamp, C., & Thomas, L. (2009). Understanding teacher identity: An overview of issues in the literature and implications for teacher education. *Cambridge journal of education*, 39(2), 175-189.
- Billot, J., & King, V. (2015). Understanding academic identity through metaphor. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 20(8), 833-844.
- Castaneda, J. A. F. (2011). Teacher Identity Construction: exploring the nature of becoming a primary school language teacher. *University of Newcastle upon Tyne*.
- Duru, S. (2015). A Metaphor Analysis of Elementary Student Teachers' Conceptions of Teachers in Student-and Teacher-Centered Contexts. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 60, 281-300.
- Fisher-Ari, T. R., & Lynch, H. L. (2015). Archeology, legos, and haunted houses: novice teachers' shifting understandings of self and curricula through metaphor. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 47(4), 529-552.
- Hobbs, L. (2013). Teaching 'out-of-field' as a boundary-crossing event: Factors shaping teacher identity. *International Journal of Science and Mathematics Education*, 11(2), 271-297.
- Karabay, A. (2016). An Investigation of Prospective Teachers' Views Regarding Teacher Identity via Metaphors. *EURASIAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH*, (65), 1-18.
- Karanezi, X., Rapti, E., & Halimi, G. (2015). Traditional and Modern Teaching Methodologies: Which One is More Successful and What are the Challenges?. *Academic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies*, 4(2 S2), 311.
- Klieme, E., & Vieluf, S. (2009). Teaching practices, teachers' beliefs and attitudes. Creating Effective Teaching and Learning Environments. *First Results from TALIS*, 87-135.
- Kuswandono, P. (2014). Voices of pre-service English teachers: reflecting motivations during practicum learning. *TEFLIN Journal*, 25(2), 185.
- Maxwell, Daniel. (2016). ASEAN's international school boom: How AEC is transforming the region's education sector. *ASEAN Correspondent*. Retrieved from <https://asiancorrespondent.com/2016/02/asean-international-schools/#qDUjAKRsPtLZIScm.99>
- McLeod, Saul. (2008). Self Concept. Simply Psychology. Retrieved from <https://www.simplypsychology.org/self-concept.html>
- Mellado, L., de la Montaña, J. L., Luengo, M. R., & Bermejo, M. L. (2014). Personal and emotional metaphors of prospective secondary teachers. *Journal of Education Research*, 8(4).
- Olsen, B. (2008). Teaching what they learn, learning what they live. *Boulder, CO: Paradigm*.
- Palmer, P. J. (2010). The courage to teach: Exploring the inner landscape of a teacher's life. *John Wiley & Sons*.
- Riyanti, D., & Sarroub, L. K. (2016). Indonesian Pre-Service Teachers' Identities in a Microteaching Context: Learning to Teach English in an Indonesian Teacher Education Program.

- Thomas, L., & Beauchamp, C. (2011). Understanding new teachers' professional identities through metaphor. *Teaching and teacher Education*, 27(4), 762-769.
- Trask, S. (2016). "Just" Teaching: Linking Teacher Identity to Community and Practice. *Learning Landscapes*, 10(1), 323-339.
- Varghese, M., Morgan, B., Johnston, B., & Johnson, K. A. (2005). Theorizing language teacher identity: Three perspectives and beyond. *Journal of language, Identity, and Education*, 4(1), 21-44.
- Webster, R. S. (2005). Personal identity: moving beyond essence. *International journal of children's spirituality*, 10(1), 5-16.
- Zheng, H. B., & Song, W. J. (2010). Metaphor analysis in the educational discourse: A critical review. *Online Submission*, 8(9), 42-49.



PRIMARY TEACHERS AND CULTURAL – BASED ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS; VOICES, ISSUES, AND DEMANDS

Agci Hikmawati and Rindu Handayani

STKIP Muhammadiyah Bangka Belitung

agci.hikmawati@stkipmbb.ac.id and rindu.handayani@stkipmbb.ac.id

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.24071/ijiet.2020.040111>

received 15 November 2019; accepted 27 December 2019

Abstract

Teachers and textbooks are two significant successful factors of achieving better standard of education. However, teaching English can be verified if the teachers only depend on the existing materials without noticing the needs of the students. This study attempted to seek for issues as well solutions in overcoming teachers' difficulties in primary school of SD N 13 Koba, Bangka Regency, Bangka Belitung Province. Two teachers were involved in the study to be interviewed and as the sources of the data. The results of the interview reveal that indeed teachers at this primary school faced issues in teaching English such as their limited knowledge of English, insufficient English teaching times and unprepared more qualified teachers. As for the solution, providing them with lively cultural – based English textbook is one of the ways. As the rule makers, governments could provide more fees to the teachers and add research funds so that researchers are motivated to conduct better and larger scale of areas and participants.

Keywords: primary teachers, cultural – based textbook, issues in English learning

Introduction

Teachers and textbooks are two significant successful factors of achieving better standard of education. However, teaching English can be verified if the teachers only depend on the existing materials without noticing the needs of the students. The essential of teaching and learning goes to the process in which the students and teacher can both engage well. The felicitous of the students in learning will result and affect in their final assessment. Many studies report that adding local values will improve their English understanding as well as promote better achievement of English skills. Kusuma (2016) suggests that the criteria of good material in English is by adding some local content information within the texts. Teachers are the essential features of education. Agents of change who educate students to be competent and skillful in their fields, moreover in teaching profession. Cao, Postareff, Lindblom-Ylanne, and Toom (2019) argue that teacher educators should be explored of how they facilitate their methods in teaching. To support these statements, the facts arised when the researchers undergone with the interview with two of the teachers at SD N 13 Koba, Central Bangka Regency.

They admitted that it was demanding for them to select the appropriate materials for the students due to his limited exposure towards English, as he is not a teacher of English. He felt that English local based textbook would help him breaking down the issues that he is facing. In addition, Umami Kaltsum and Susiati (2019) consent to the need of a specific regional element in English textbook. In some European countries which employ English as a foreign language, they demand some criteria for primary teachers to obtain better result of early child education. Take for instance, several countries that apply ELLiE teaching model in Figure 1.

Country	General teacher	Semi-specialist teacher	Specialist teacher	Unqualified teacher
Croatia	×		×	
England	×		×	×
Italy		×		
Netherlands	×	×	×	
Poland	×		×	
Spain	×		×	
Sweden	×	×		×

Figure 1. ELLiE (Early Language Learning in Europe) Teaching Model (in Enever, 2014)

It is worth noticing that even developed countries such as Netherlands, Italy, and Sweden necessitate semi-specialist teachers at primary schools. This study revealed the issues that the primary teachers overcome during their teaching process. When the researchers conducted a small survey, by having little conversation and playing English vocabulary games to the students, they were lively and vigorously engaged in the process of learning. In spite of the vocabulary limits they have, but they could take part to the games very well. This evidence, nonetheless, is not necessarily determining that they could take part in all aspects of English learning. Looking at the fact that primary school students are great duplicators, the authors found that teaching English at schools should have been motivating, being fun and energetic. However, to seek for best answers, the writers selected the teachers to be the participants as they acknowledge best of their surroundings. The problems stated in this study were; 1) what are the issues of teachers in teaching English at primary schools?, and 2) what kind of media that could help teachers address English materials at primary schools?. The aims are; 1) to cognize issues in dealing with teaching English at primary schools, and 2) to find best medium to teach English.

Method

Design

This study tried to reveal the issues found and the solutions to overcome the problems. To accomplish the aims of the research, a descriptive study of qualitative design was employed. The researchers applied one-on-one interview

to the teachers at SD N 13 Koba. Those 12 questions then also improved as researchers wanted to dig up more information. One-on-one interview is a process of data collection in which only one person in the research asks queries at the same time (Cresswell, 2012). This one-on-one interview allowed researchers to collect and record the data from participants. The researchers, however, explored elaborative probes when conducting the interview. As what Cresswell (2012) mentions, the use of good, straightforward and simple questions allow people to understand the problems and provide meaningful answers.

Participants/Data Collection

The participants of the present study are the teachers of SD N 13 Koba through purposeful sampling technique. Teacher 1 is the teacher of the 5th grade while teacher 2 is the teacher of 6th grade. Two teachers teaching at higher classes (the fifth and the sixth grades) were interviewed for purposeful reasons, namely; 1) English is taught at higher classes, 2) higher classes students acknowledge more vocabulary both in Bahasa Indonesia and English, 3) teachers of higher classes are given chance to explore English though it is an optional subject.

Data Analyses

Qualitative researchers analyze the data several times by reading them and performing each analysis (Cresswell, 2012). There were five steps, then, carried out in analyzing the data, they are; 1) Listening several times to the data records, 2) transcribing and typing them into words, 3) presenting the data in table, 4) analysing and interpreting each answer, 5) relating answers with experts judgments to find the solvents.

Result and Discussion

To answer the two research questions; 1) what are the issues of teachers in teaching English at primary schools?, and 2) what kind of media that could help teachers address English materials at primary schools?, twelve interview questions with probes explorations were deployed to find the best solutions of the problems faced by the teachers. The ten questions were then described to seek for information about how English is taught at the school.

The results of the interview have been translated from Bahasa Indonesia and are presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Interview Questions & Answers

Questions	Answers
Can you speak English or have you ever taught English?	T1: No, I studied English at schools but many things I've forgotten. English was learnt to fulfill the grades only. T2 : I know English but not very well. I know few vocabulary only. English is no my language.
Do you teach English at your school?	T1 : English lesson in this school is

	<p>not a mandatory, so when I have time I give them some easy English vocabulary. But mostly I focus on other subjects.</p> <p>T2 : I only teach it whenever I have time. At the higher class we focus more on passing the national examination, many additional hours need to be fulfilled.</p>
<p>How do you teach your students at school if you do not master English?</p>	<p>T1: English is an optional subject here. So I rarely teach them.</p> <p>T2 : If we have time, we practice some easy vocabulary like foods, drinks, vegetables, etc.</p>
<p>But do you want your students enable to speak English?</p>	<p>T1 : Yes very much. I am so sympathy for them that as a teacher, I am not so good in English, I mean I do not master English well. When they enter junior schools, it is a problem for them because they are not accustomed to English.</p> <p>T2 : Yes, but I am not so very good in English.</p>
<p>Do you think that English should be taught at elementary school and why?</p>	<p>T1: For my case, yes, it is hard for students to speak and learn English well when they enter junior schools. There is only one student who joins English course in my class. And the attitudes towards English is not so good. It means that they don't really care about English because they don't know the vocabulary.</p> <p>T2 : I think they need to study English but with the real teacher of English, because my English knowledge is limited.</p>
<p>Do you want to expand your knowledge in English or do you need any books that could help you teach?</p>	<p>T1 : I think I need English books which can build up their motivation and mine as well to learn English</p> <p>T2 : I want to enlarge my English as well as the books to use to transfer my knowledge.</p>
<p>Do you think local content materials could help engage with English?</p>	<p>T1 : I think so, there has no English textbooks with local content materials which could support my teaching,</p>

<p>What kind of local content materials that can be delivered?</p>	<p>T2 : Yes, with local content I think it will be easier for them to study. T1 : Many things, I don't know. I hope someone makes that book. T2 : I think we need something that is related to their daily activities.</p>
<p>Can you suggest one or two local content themes to be put in the book?</p>	<p>T1 : Yes, I think we are culturally rich, we can talk about Kaolin lake, Pelawan forest, etc. T2 : There are so many legends in our hometown that can be taken as themes. I am sure those are useful.</p>
<p>Why do you think it is important to make English textbook based on local materials?</p>	<p>T1 : Because we need them to understand their own culture. T2 : I think it is easier if we learn things with our own perspectives and values to support better learning environment.</p>
<p>If you can, will you write cultural – based English textbook for your students?</p>	<p>T1 : I am not able to do such thing. Please someone does it. T2 : For the sake of the students, I would if I could, but I have limited exposure towards English. I hope the government could think about it.</p>
<p>What other problems that you find in English teaching in elementary schools?</p>	<p>T1 : We don't have English teacher here and English is the optional subject, it is big problem for them. T2 : I do need English textbooks that can help me teach English better to them.</p>

Issues faced by the teachers

The issues emerged are; 1) teachers' limited exposures towards English, 2) there is no English teacher to support English learning, and 3) English as an optional subject. While one of the media that could aid teachers' performances in English teaching is providing them a cultural – based English textbook with easy – used and learnt. The issues faced by the teachers in teaching English

Teachers' limited exposures towards English

Teachers at primary schools should have the best notion towards English. Teaching effectively is reflecting wisely. Reflecting teaching promotes professional development, critical thinking, self-evaluation and self-oriented learning (Shu, 2017). Through reflective teaching, teachers cognise their strengths and weaknesses, evolve their teaching methods, as well as amend their previous skills for the better. Have the interviewed teachers reflected their teaching?

“T1 : Yes very much. I am so sympathy for them that as a teacher, I am not so good in English, I mean I do not master English well. When they

enter junior schools, it is a problem for them because they are not accustomed to English.

T2 : Yes, but I am not so very good in English.”

The answers above certify that their English skills are fiddling and are adequate for themselves. It is no surprise since they are not graduated from English department program. It is taught with bounded times at non – English study program of higher educations. However, they did not mention why they had little knowledge of English. This is confirming Cresswell’s (2012) impression that limited answers of the interviewee could be an issue due to their insecurity of telling the truth to the interviewer. The teachers, however, feel so motivated to enhance their English skills, though they did not own the media to help them perceive better English skills. Cheng and Dornyei (2007) emphasize that ‘even the brightest learner will not persist long enough, without ample motivation to acquire a genuinely useful language skill’.

“T1 : I think I need English books which can build up their motivation and mine as well to learn English.

T2 : I want to enlarge my English as well as the books to use to transfer my knowledge. “

From the answer of T2, it entails that he actually desires to achieve better English proficiency. He shows his motivation and interest towards English which actually could better their self-efficacy. Self-efficacy of teachers is considered as one of the key concepts that affect educational performance (Uztosun, 2016). But the lack of the sources is one of the problems since they are not concerned with English learning. Enever (2014) demonstrates that teacher’s anxiety in controlling the classroom relates to their language competency. Nevertheless, this finding contradicts with Marian and Jesus (2015) whose study result demonstrated that teaching English was the only reason that made the teachers desire to be primary school teachers.

Lack of efficient time and qualified English teachers support to accompaniment English learning

This result corresponds with Uztosun (2016) who states that one of the major issues in several countries where English classes were included in primary education years, was that primary schools were lack of suitably qualified teachers, take for example, Croatia and Italy (Enever, 2014), China (Jin, Liang, Jiang, Zhang, Yuan, and Xie, 2014), and Turkey (Gursoy, Korkmaz & Damar, 2013). Efficient and effective of the use of time would be sufficient to upgrade students’ English skills. As a matter of fact, Kirpatrick (2007) states that English teaching in Indonesia has failed to support educational development throughtout the country. Hettiarachchi (2013) writes up that the demotivators of Sri Lankan public school teachers included limited facilities, inefficiency of school administration and zonal education, English curriculum and students’ proficiency. Similarly, a study conducted in Thailand, Forman (2014) reports that other than limited time given,

the development of materials for local teachers is seriously limited by large-scale class sizes, associated markings, and heavy teaching charges, as well as by the low pay that most teachers have to take on further private work. Likewise, these obstacles are also faced by Indonesians as Dardjowidjojo (2000) summarizes that large class sizes, low salary, low proficiency of English teachers, lack of preparation of curriculum contribute to problematic factors in developing English atmosphere. In 2001, Alwasilah revealed that unskilled teachers, abject facilities, and discouraging environment for learning are some common issues faced by Indonesians. As a matter of fact, Dardjowidjojo (2000) also states that mostly high school graduates are unable to intelligibly communicate in English, unless for those who have taken English courses. Those several drawbacks in some developing countries such as Indonesia, Thailand and Sri Lanka might leave a questionable educational systems within. Governments of the developing countries better take these matter critically. Because teachers are the key parts of estimable humans development. However, the authors confirm that researchs conducted by Dardjowidjojo (2000) and Alwasilah (2001) had been taken into accounts for more than ten years, compared to Forman (2014) that revealed the issues in the past several years. It is worth explaining that the both studies reveal essential results to English development in South East Asia regions.

Cultural – based English textbook as one of the media to improve skills

There is no question that English textbooks portraying local values contribute significant improvements to students’ motivations and skills. Scholars reveal that culturally textbooks that emerge their own culture promote benefecial of English learning.

“T1 : Yes, I think we are culturally rich, we can talk about Kaolin lake, Pelawan forest, etc.

T2 : There are so many legends in our hometown that can be taken as themes. I am sure those are useful.”

Those statements correlate to what Richards and Renandya (2002) express that textbook is inappropriate for students as it differs in form of culture and is not contextualised. Forman (2014) reveals that by using a textbook written by the natives which is totally dissimilar with students and teachers’ prior knowledge, no single answer was correctly answered by the students. Even in his study, the participants said not to use the book anymore as it did not meet the purpose of their learning appendage. Nonetheless, contradictive judgements appear. Shin, Eslami, and Chen (2011) state that the contents of the materials must be local and global in nature to explore global comprehending of the students. Similarly, Setyono, Widodo, Abd Rashid and Engku Ibrahim (2017) argue that multicultural materials within English textbooks could enhance students’ understanding of indigenous people around the world with universal values. Furthermore, Huang (2019) believes that contextualised textbooks can better impact to language learning and communication as well as become the platform for cultural diversity and tolerance. This is mattering to the researchers as it means there are pros and

contras among textbooks written perceptions. However, the authors value all of the notions since they all have their own unicity and modes in perceiving an issue. In addition, local and worldwide beliefs, values, and understandings are needed to be inserted within English textbooks. The writers believe that by bringing both regional and international motions together, the students could enlarge their perceptual experiences larger, expand their apprehension towards global culture, and honour their own as well as other civilization altogether.

Conclusion

To sum up, teachers brings essential roles in developing students' ability and skills of English. Despite the facts that they meet some obstacles in teaching process, that they needed to be heard, as teachers. Not only that the difficulties in teaching they have, but also the inexistence of such meaningful yet adequate and appropriate medium to teach they need. Governments, as the rule makers, could keep this study results as the demand of changing educational system for the better. the facts arise in findings above reveal that Indonesia is not the only country that pays less attention to teachers' needs such as low pay and limited time access to teach English. So the funds for researchs and teachers' payments should be noticed at best. Teahers as the educators should be more aware of the students to continue their unendless support and care, because teaching is not only about giving materials and accepting fees, but also being empathy, motivators, and facilitators. Further, for better research results, future researchers could conduct similar study which include larger scale groups of participants. Also, the present study result could promote to making English textbooks which culturally relevant to students' prior knowledge, and globally accepted to boarden their international assumptions.

References

- Rashid, R. S. A. A., & Ibrahim, E. H. E. (2018). English language textbooks and portrayal of culture: A content analysis. *MATEC Web of Conferences*, 150, 05076. doi: 10.1051/mateconf/201815005076
- Alwasilah, C. (2001). 'The emerging Indonesian English (Indoenglish): A pedagogical exploration'. In Wibowo, D (ed.): 18-22.
- Cao, Y., Postareff, L., Lindblom-Ylanne, S., & Toom, A. (2019). Teacher educators' approaches to teaching and connections with their perceptions of the closeness of their research and teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 85, 125-136. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2019.06.013>
- Cheng, H. & Dornyei. (2007). The use of motivational strategies in language instruction: the case of EFL teaching in Taiwan. *Innovation in language learning and teaching*, 1(1), 153-174.
- Dardjowidjojo, S. (2000). English teaching in Indonesia. *English Australia Journal*, 18(1), 21-30.
- Enever, J. (2014). Primary English teacher education in Europe. *ELT Journal*, 68(3), 231-242. doi:10.1093/elt/cct079

- Fenyvesi, K. (2018). English learning motivation of young learners in Danish primary schools. *Language Teaching Research*, 136216881880483. doi:10.1177/1362168818804835
- Forman, R. (2014). How local teachers respond to the culture and language of a global English as a Foreign Language textbook. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 27(1), 72-88, DOI: 10.1080/07908318.2013.868473
- Gürsoy, E., Korkmaz, Ş. Ç., & Damar, E. A. (2013). Foreign language teaching within 4+4+4 education system in Turkey: Language teachers' voice. *Eurasion Journal of Educational Research*, 53, 59-74.
- Hettiarachchi, S. (2013). English language teacher motivation in Sri Lankan public schools. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 4(1), 1-11. doi:10.4304/jltr.4.1.1-11
- Huang, P. (2019). Textbook interaction: A study of the language and cultural contextualisation of English learning textbooks. *Learning, Culture and Social Interaction*, 21, 87-99. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lcsi.2019.02.006>
- Jin, L., Liang, X., Jiang, C., Zhang, J., Yuan, Y., & Xie, Q. (2014). Studying the motivations of Chinese young EFL learners through metaphor analysis. *ELT Journal*, 68, 286-298.
- Kirpatrick, A. (2007). Teaching English across cultures. What do English language teachers need to know to know how to teach English. *EA Journal*, 23(2), 20-36. <https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/143879198.pdf>
- Kusuma, I. P. I. (2016). Developing reading material for elementary students in tourism area by inserting local culture. *Jeels (Journal of English Education and Linguistics Studies)*, 3(1). doi:10.30762/jeels.v3i1.176
- Marian, A.-P., & Jesus, G.-L. (2015). Why do primary school english teachers decide to teach english? *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 197, 589-594. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.07.198
- Setyono, B., & Widodo, H. P. (2019). The representation of multicultural values in the Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture-Endorsed EFL textbook: a critical discourse analysis. *Intercultural Education*, 30(4), 383-397. doi:10.1080/14675986.2019.1548102
- Shin, J., Eslami, Z. E., & Chen, W.-C. (2011). Presentation of local and international culture in current international English-language teaching textbooks. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 24(3), 253-268
- Shu, X.Y. (2017). Learning how to teach english in elementary school: The role of reflective teaching in training elementary school teachers. *Open Access Library Journal*, 4, e3496. <https://doi.org/10.4236/oalib.1103496>
- Kaltsum, H. U. (2019). Local content in English textbook of elementary school in Surakarta (Content Analysis). *KnE Social Sciences*, 3(10), 496. doi:10.18502/kss.v3i10.3938
- Uztosun, M. S. (2016). Pre-service and in-service English teachers' efficacy beliefs about teaching English at primary schools. *İlköğretim Online*, 15(4). doi:10.17051/io.2016.80068

FACTORS AFFECTING PERFORMANCE OF COURSE CENTER MANAGEMENT IN URBAN AREAS

Anwar Sanusi, Victor Wiley and Thomas Lucas

STIE Triguna, Indonesia

anwarsanusistietriguna@gmail.com, victorwiley10@gmail.com and
thomasreliable10@gmail.com

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.24071/ijjet.2020.040112>

received 16 December 2019; accepted 2 January 2020

Abstract

Observing the role of course center to provide public access to informal learning is rare in many literature body. In addition, there is lack of information about strategies implemented by course center to improve their performance in managing the course center management. The paper analyzes the factors influencing the performance of course center in Jakarta region to fulfill the learner needs. A novelty is proposed in this paper as a model to understand how the course center can improve their performance to provide informal learning and the performance of center management. The paper uses a quantitative type with purposive sampling questionnaire which distributed to the tutor, course center manager, course owners and office staffs. Our analysis result showed that the course center needs integrating their strategies to maximize their function in the community. This research is useful to provide input to the government and course managers so that the course center in Jakarta can improve their performance to fulfill the learner needs.

Keywords: course manager, competence, performance

Introduction

Courses as informal learning activities are organized by learning center to provide education to community (Green, 2017). The course center has legal form of small institution and sometimes it is informal center (Zoogah, et al., 2015). The course centers are characterized by various lessons covering English translation class, job planning and interview class, journal writing club, robotic and microcontroller lessons (Dunn, 2015).

The course center also has many nickname such as “Bimbel” shortened from terminology of “bimbingan belajar” or informal learning center similar to club or “paguyuban” (Aisyah, S., & Ag, 2015). For the simplification, this research used the terminology “informal education center” rather than club (Ratana-Ubol & Henschke, 2015).

In common community, course center has main position in community since its characteristics of flexible time of the learning activities (Simonson, et al.,

2014). The course also can expand public access to get informal and customized education to get learning and education. However, there is lack of research observing the role of course center to provide public access to informal learning. In addition, there is rare examination about strategies implemented by course center to improve their performance in managing the course center management (Ginter, et al., 2018). As informal center, course center sometimes organized as self-sufficient body and work based of the community demand (Mayombe & Lombard, 2016). Previous studies showed that many course centers are lacking of knowledge and experience to plan the curriculum targets and quality learning services. In addition, the course centers lack of resource to compete and maximize their function in the community (Anis, et al., 2018). From actor side, the course center also faced with the diverse competence and experience of their tutor, course center manager, course owners and office staffs. These combined factors have led to long term issues and problematic course center management (Weiyo, et al., 2018).

Previous research has tried to resolve the issues by proposing models of performance mapping of course management. However, the models only resolve partially the issues faced by course center to improve their performance, strategies and capabilities (Romiszowski, 2016). Literature body has lack of information and lack of observation about the role of course manager in running the center. Therefore, the performance measurement has become a novelty and our model wants to expand the literature body by measuring manager role as main actor in the successful course management strategies (Beebe, 2015).

Scholars have stated that course manager has wide role in the routine management of course center such as supervision, strategy and capability (Romiszowski, 2016). However, many studies reported that the course manager lack of knowledge tasks and function which led to lower supervision knowledge and performance of course manager (Kerzner, H., & Kerzner, 2017). The performance can be measure from their ability to handle operational and educational programs (Vo, et al., 2017). There are various study results showed that the manager understands of the purpose of the establishment of the center also lead to the failed supervision and finally their performance. Many course managers only focused on the development issues and tuition fees (Ting, et al., 2017; Buckingham & Goodall, 2015). In addition, many studies informed that the course manager does not provide open access of community participation to involve in the course center activities. There are three causes, firstly, (a) low community participation, (b) lack of cooperation with parents and (c) unenjoyably atmosphere of learning in the course location site.

Even though the benefit of the community participation activity is wide and important, however, many course managers do not know how to build relationship with their community. (Bowman, et al., 2015). The issue becomes more problematic when the course manager must accept diverse learner background (Taufiqurrohman, et al., 2017). Based on this background, we are interested to observe the role of course managers in the process of managing the center performance as research topic.

This paper has five parts. Firstly, it summarizes the research problem formulation, gap and novelty. Secondly, it observed the literature review about the role of course manager in course center activities. In part three, it provides explanation about research methods. Part four consisted two components, (a) it tested the relationship of supervision knowledge, strategy and capability of the course manager toward their performance; and (b) supervision knowledge, strategy and capability of the course manager toward the attitude of course manager in accepting diverse learner background. Part five consisted conclusion and recommendation for course manager to implement and evaluate their management strategies.

Theoretical Review

Professionalism of course manager

Course center daily activities are managed by a course manager (Yulia, 2014). The word profession and professional have been related to the term "Professionalism" which means quality, competence, and productive behavior (Elton, 2018). The term also refers to certain characteristic of achieving certification indicator and goal (Biesta, 2015). The concept was supported by Satori (2008) that professionalism refers to the commitment of members of a profession group or association to improve their member skills and continuously develop the strategies in order their member can perform well the work that suits their profession (Furner, 2017).

Professionalism is also related to community expectations especially in education context and center in providing informal learning activities. There are indicator of professionalism which must be owned by a course tutor covering personal competence, social competence and teaching competence (Munzaki, et al., 2016). According to Sanjaya (2005) the tutor profession must be based on competencies of personal, professional and social aspects.

Personality competence

The National Standard of Education Act of article 28 paragraph (3) point b regulated the definition of personality competence as a steady, stable, mature, wise, and authoritative personality capability and a role model for learners with noble character. This definition is also expanded by Asnani & Nurismilida (2017) as individual with steady, stable, mature, wise and prudent personality skill to handle authoritative and role model for learners and community.

Pedagogic competence

Pedagogic competence refers to an ability of a tutor to handle classroom activity which includes understanding of knowledge bases, learner educational base, curriculum planning, syllabus development, learning design, teaching, learning outcomes evaluation, and actualization of learner's development to various potentials (Afif, et al., 2017). For course manager, pedagogic competence is the ability to manage the learning activities which includes the learner-tutor interaction, learning activities design, and learning application.

Professionalism competence

Professional competence are similar for both course tutor and course manager especially from their authority and ability to carry out the profession task in teaching and managing classroom (Ana, et al., 2016) which covering the following aspects:

1. Mastering educational foundation, eg, measurement of achieving basic competencies and learning outcomes, function of coursework in the community, recognizing educational psychology in learning process.
2. Mastering teaching materials and education curriculum.
3. Developing syllabus and learning program. Both tutor and manager must establish competence achievement plan as target and learning objectives. They also must select adequate teaching materials, developing learning strategies, instructional media, and utilizing various learning resources.
4. Implementing the learning program event. They must create productive learning atmosphere, manage learning space, and manage interaction of teaching and learning interaction.
5. Assessing learning outcomes by using a class-based assessment system (Surya, 2006: 176).

Social Community Competence

Social competencies have many dyadic faces. Basically, the competencies represent the ability of educators as part of public to communicate both orally and written by using communication and information technology. Functionally, it represents the ability of tutor to socialize effectively with learners, education personnel, parents / guardians of the learners and get along well with the surrounding community (Walker & Pattison, 2016).

Role of manager in course management

Management is essentially a process of planning, organizing, implementing, leading and controlling the efforts of members of the organization and utilizes all organizational resources to achieve certain goals set. According to Armstrong, M., & Taylor, S. (2014) management is the process of integrating unrelated sources into total systems to accomplish goals and maintain their resources. The resources in management included people, tools, materials, money, and means. All directed and coordinated to be centralized in order to accomplish goals (Harrison, F., & Lock, 2017).

In course management, the course manager is the individual in charge to establish motivation to the subordinates. The manager also must set the motivation and adequate human resource in order to achieve the goals. However, it does not mean that the course manager is responsible to determine the success path of educational center or organization of the courses (Kerzner & Kerzner, 2017).

Meanwhile, Roman (2017) also stated that the management functions, e.g., Planning, Organizing, Actuating and Controlling.

Planning

Planning can be interpreted as the basic process to arrange plans, select strategies and how to achieve goals. Each plan is generated to give an exact way to achieve organizational goals (Bryson, 2018). Argenti (2018) holds a view that the plan contains several aspects as below.

1. plan is a continuous process
2. plan will involve all leaders of the organization
3. plan must be arranged in storied and hierarchical way
4. plan concerns the organization's activities for the future
5. Plan is the answer to the status quo of the concerned organization.

A plan is suitable to implement if it meets the following criteria:

1. Clear, it must be understandable and can answer the question what, which, why, when, where and how.
2. Pragmatic, it must be based on concrete calculations and logical assumptions
3. Operational, it can be implemented with existing capabilities
4. Ambitious but still realistic
5. Takes place through consistent time staging
6. Flexible in any sense at any time which adapted to situations and conditions. It can change from the original assumption, wherever possible without prejudice to established goals and objectives.
7. Priority scale. A good plan is measured from the ability to implement. It is not based on the will (Hill & Alexander, 2017).

Organizing

Organizing can be understood as the whole management activities in grouping people as well as assignment of tasks, functions, authority and responsibilities. It has goals of creating activities that are efficient and effective in achieving the goals. In this connection, Schaltegger & Burritt, (2017) explained that organizing process has several elements:

1. General objectives to be achieved by the organization and the specific objectives or objectives of each organizational unit.
2. Activities definition or tasks description which required achieving the objectives.
3. Functional activities or tasks in a practical work unit.
4. Duties of individual units, groups and individuals including necessary physical resources.
5. The authority of each organizational unit and system of working relationships to do coordination in task implementation.

To implement the organizing strategy, course manager need to measure (A) the organization as functional unit, (b) work grouping to describe the division of labor; (c) the organization should regulate the delegation of authority and responsibility, (d) the organization must reflect the span of control, (e) the organization must contain unity of command, (f) the organization must be balanced with rational thinking.

Actuating

Actuating has similar term with mobilization or encouragement. The actuating strategy can be understood as an overall effort, method, technique and method to encourage members of the organization to willingly work as possible to achieve organizational goals efficiently, effectively and economically (Gholston, 2015).

Specifically, the actuating also has element such as:

1. Integration of individual and organizational goals
2. Unity of group and organizational goals
3. Cooperation between leaders
4. Participation in decision making
5. Delegation of sufficient authority
6. Establishment of effective communication, and
7. Effective and efficient monitoring (Rana, et al., 2016).

Supervision

The control effort or supervisory function has four activities, e.g., (1) setting performance standards; (2) measuring achievements; (3) comparing achievements with standards, (4) reducing risk and deviations from standard of achievement (Lacy & Williams, 2018). Supervision has main goal to expand the monitoring efforts to be carried out effectively. Supervision must reflect the following conditions;

1. should be planned about, what, who, why, when, where and how
2. must be done seriously without doubting
3. reflect employees needs
4. reported the results to the control
5. should be flexible but firm
6. should follow the pattern of the organization
7. should be done as efficiently as possible, and consider the economic aspect between the outcome and the sacrifice
8. Must be accompanied by improvement.

The course manager is the driving force in motivating subordinates, human resources to achieve the goals. However, it does not mean the course manager can determine everything. The manager and the tutor will determine the success of an educational center especially in the course center.

Method

This research uses quantitative approach in the form of associative rule. It is intended to know the factors that influence the performance of course management in Jakarta area. The Object is studied from 2015 to 2017. It used descriptive statistics method to answer the purpose of the research.

This research collected respondents who work as course manager of local Bimbel in Jakarta area. It used Simple Random Sampling approach. The approach collected the sample representing the population randomly with same probability through online questionnaire where the links is distributed through social media.

The questionnaire is attached to a cover letter to course managers. They are given simple brief letter explaining research purpose and instruction to fill the questionnaire. To answer the first research question, it asked their job description, responsibility and also their demographics. This analysis uses descriptive statistics to explore the respondent’s situation. It does not intend to conclude in general. For the second research objective, this research uses quantitative approach. The approach helps the author to analyze data with cleaning process into numbers and formulas with certain calculations. The cleaned data are analyzed and investigated with software Eviews 7 statistical software package.

Result and Discussion

Table 1. Respondent demographics

Respondent	Total People	%
Respondents by gender		
• Men	68	62%
• Women	42	38%
Respondents by job		
• Tutors	44	44%
• course managers	54	54%
Respondents by age		
• 25-30 year old	15	7,15 %
• 30-35 year old	15	7,15 %
• 35-40 year old	49	49 %
• 40-45 year old	21	21 %
Respondents based on education level		
• Higher education (D3, S1,)	87	77 %
• Master degree	12	18.5%
• Doctoral degree	11	4.5%

Source: primary data (2018)

Based on table above, the majority of respondents by gender are men 68 people (62%) and women 42 respondents (38%). Most of them are tutors (44%), whereas the rests are course managers. the questionnaire did not asking about the course owners since it is out of our research scope. For their age, both tutor and manager admitted their ages are between 35-40 years old 49 people (49%). For the educational background most of them obtained higher education (D3 and S1) 87 people (77%), followed by master degree 12 people (18.5%) and doctoral degree 11 people (4.5%).

We examine the relationship of all variable tested in this research. The independent variables are Personality, Pedagogic, Professional, Social, Planning, Organizing, Actuating, Monitoring, Government Policy and Community Participation and the dependent variable is course performance. Our overall model has value of fitness of 251.68 compared with residual 3.12. This means that the proposed model is considered very well. Furthermore, our model obtained R-

squared 0.87 which means that variance rate in the dependent variable (course performance) can be explained by independent variables. All of these variables measure overall strength of the relationship and reflect 87% of all relationship between the independent and the dependent variables.

We also tested partially between personality competence and course performance. The testing result showed a greatest role of personality competence especially its construct, e.g., curriculum quality has significant effect on the course performance with t-value 2.05 (0.043) and significance of 0.05. for pedagogic variable, our testing result showed minus result of t-value -0.51 (0.608), so we conclude there is no relationship between pedagogic competence with course performance. The result is similar to social competence with t-value -0.63 (0.528). The result is different between professional competence and course performance with t-value 1.79 (0.076).

Further, the variable of planning has a small effect on the course performance with t-value 0.17 (0.862). Thus, the organizing efforts among the tutors also have significant result after we tested with course performance with t-value 2.17 (0.032). Finally, supervisor variable and government policy are tested toward course performance which resulted t-value of 4.16 (0.000) and 5.70 (0.000). However, the community participation give small t-value after we tested toward course performance (t-value 0.79 (0.430)). For full details are given in Table 2.

Table 2. Testing result of the proposed model

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
Personality competence and course performance	0.175	0.065	2.05	0.043
supervisor	0.226	0.081	4.16	0.000
the organizing efforts among the tutors	0.006	0.085	2.17	0.032
pedagogic variable	0.013	0.081	-0.51	0.608
social competence	0.322	0.057	-0.63	0.528
professional competence and course performance	0.281	0.071	1.79	0.076
Planning	0.155	0.172	0.17	0.862
government policy	0.152	0.032	5.70	0.000
community participation	0.040	0.070	0.79	0.430
R-squared	0.875	Mean dependent var		3.620
Adjusted R-squared	0.607	S.D. dependent var		1.073
S.E. of regression	0.671	Akaike info criterion		2.076
Sum squared resid	87.130	Schwarz criterion		2.192
Log likelihood	-200.69	Hannan-Quinn criter.		2.123
Durbin-Watson stat	1.787			

Source: statistical result (2018)

Conclusion

In this paper, we have tested our model representing the course management and the performance of both tutors and managers. We conducted the testing process in several steps. Firstly, we examine the planning and evaluation which have been done by the course manager both in long-term and short-term program. Second, the curriculum management which covers the government curriculum and the local curriculum are also tested as the planning variable. It covers the constructs of curriculum planning, syllabus development, learning design, teaching and learning outcomes evaluation, and actualization of learner development

Third, the management of teaching and learning process in this course is guided by annual and semester programs prepared by the tutors. Fourth the courses managers are usually become the head of course center and also the tutors. However, we did not observe and asked the course owner. Fifth, the management of facilities and infrastructure is handled directly by the course manager both from procurement, maintenance and repair of course facilities. This research does not measure the provision of course facilities both physical and nonphysical aspects even though it impacted on the atmosphere of learning. The physical environment, such as ornamental trees is important to improve discipline among the course citizens.

Sixth, financial management is handled by course manager. For other external activities such as public relation and corporate social responsibility (CSR), they are not examined in this research. Even though the relationships of course center with the surrounding community are realized with the social work, scholarship, discount price, however, this does not provide significant result to the learner admission. Seventh, the admission service for new learners is not examined and tested in this research since this research does not prioritizing the learning progress or coaching activities.

Course center has wide access to community education. It needs adequate course management to use the facilities and provide public access of educational services. The course center has opportunities to bring benefit to the expansion of public access to education. To get a complete development program, many course centers in Jakarta area has been included the five main targets as their strategic mission of the centers, such as: (1) providing educational facilities and infrastructure, including optimizing the utilization of center space facilities. (2) Developing a quality curriculum and teaching materials including piloting learning models. (3) Enhancing understanding and importance of education to parents, communities and municipal government. (4) Improving the quality of managerial staff and educators, and (5) developing policies, planning, monitoring, evaluating and supervising the implementation of educational development of course learners. They have to develop quality standards and norms that are very beneficial for quality assurance of course center education.

Course center can facilitate the growth and development of all aspects of the learner's personality. Educational courses provide opportunities for the learners to develop their personality. Therefore, special education courses such as Bimbel can provide a variety of activities with flexible time and place that are qualified in

order to develop various aspects of development including the development of cognitive, social, emotional, physical, motoric, and linguistic and arts.

Improving the quality and relevance of the course education can be done through several programs, among others: (1) program development strategy in each regency and district, (2) control system development and quality assurance mechanism; (3) capacity building of the organizational resources; and (4) development and implementation of learning strategies; and (5) professional development of educators and education personnel. Such insightful strategies are given and disclosed in detail as below.

The development of tutor's competence in the teaching and learning process can improve the teaching quality to provide interesting and engrossing learning. Course manager have to work with the government to provide trained tutors and supervisors in accordance with their main duties and functions.

The course center in Jakarta area has been directed into higher standard which influenced by internal and external conditions. There are positive support given by the community and government such as (1) the learners have opportunity to obtain education, (2) government has provide provision to support the quality center, (3) the education management in the course center is implemented with quality and applying principles of democracy, transparent, accountable and retrieval decisions with participatory way; (4), as the course center can fulfill their standard requirement, the center can get more wide support from government funding and stakeholders including active participation and support from parents and the community in implementing their programs.

Improving course management has been conducted by many course centers through both internal and external aspects. From the internal aspects, there is various result due to the course manager always strives to develop their competence, quality, ability, and professionalism. From external side, it needs government supervision, evaluation and monitoring including administrative skill in utilizing facilities.

Course manager is expected to immediately address the problems that hinder the course performance. In addition, course manager must observe and evaluate their tutor competence to improve the course performance so that the course management can provide effective and efficient learning results.

References

- Aan, K., Dedi, S., & Djaman, S. (2016). Headmaster leadership organizational commitment, school climate, teacher performance and academic service quality of school. *The Social Sciences*, 11(10), 2625-2635.
- Afif, Z. N. M., Ulfatin, N., Kusmintardjo, K., & Imron, A. (2017). Pedagogical competence improvement of teachers through a Neuro Linguistic Programming (NLP) in Indonesia. In International Conference on Education (pp. 991-1007).
- Aisyah, S., & Ag, S. (2015). *Perkembangan peserta didik dan bimbingan belajar*. Deepublish.

- Anis, A., Islam, R., & Abdullah, N. A. (2018). Challenges faced by Malaysian private HLIs in providing quality education: A thematic analysis. *Quality Assurance in Education*, (just-accepted), 00-00.
- Argenti, J. (2018). *Practical corporate planning*. Routledge.
- Armstrong, M., & Taylor, S. (2014). *Armstrong's handbook of human resource management practice*. Kogan Page Publishers.
- Asnani, A., & Nurismilida, N. (2017). The influence of lecturer competences on learners learning achievement of faculty of literature, Islamic University of North Sumatra. *Proceedings of AICS-Social Sciences*, 7, 834-840.
- Bardach, E., & Patashnik, E. M. (2015). *A practical guide for policy analysis: The eightfold path to more effective problem solving*. CQ press.
- Beebe, S. N. (2015). *Professional practice for health care managers course instructor*.
- Biesta, G. (2015). What is education for? On good education, teacher judgement, and educational professionalism. *European Journal of Education*, 50(1), 75-87.
- Bowman, N. A., Hill, P. L., Denson, N., & Bronkema, R. (2015). Keep on truckin' or stay the course? Exploring grit dimensions as differential predictors of educational achievement, satisfaction, and intentions. *Social Psychological and Personality Science*, 6(6), 639-645.
- Bryson, J. M. (2018). *Strategic planning for public and nonprofit organizations: A guide to strengthening and sustaining organizational achievement*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Buckingham, M., & Goodall, A. (2015). Reinventing performance management. *Harvard Business Review*, 93(4), 40-50.
- Dunn, K. (2015). *Learning robotics online: Teaching a blended robotics course for secondary school learners*.
- Elbadrawy, A., Studham, R. S., & Karypis, G. (2015). Collaborative multi-regression models for predicting learners' performance in course activities. In *Proceedings of the Fifth International Conference on Learning Analytics And Knowledge* (pp. 103-107). ACM.
- Elton, L. (2018). University teaching: A professional model for quality. In *Handbook of Quality Assurance for University Teaching* (pp. 83-93). Routledge.
- Fahmi, M. (2017). Indonesian higher education. *Education and Globalization in Southeast Asia: Issues and Challenges*, 111.
- Faujiah, A. (2017). Building the Smart Village through the Implementation of the non-formal education to improve English language skills in the Village of Geluran Taman Sidoarjo. *Educatio: Jurnal Pendidikan STAIM Nganjuk*, 2(1), 113-124.
- Furner, M. (2017). *Advocacy and objectivity: A crisis in the professionalization of American social science*. Routledge.
- Gholston, S. (2015). *Developing strategies for hiring managers: A case study on hiring employees*.
- Ginter, P. M., Duncan, W. J., & Swayne, L. E. (2018). *The strategic management of health care organizations*. John Wiley & Sons.

- Green, L. (2017). *Music, informal learning and the school: A new classroom pedagogy*. Routledge.
- Harrison, F., & Lock, D. (2017). *Advanced project management: a structured approach*. Routledge.
- Hill, N., & Alexander, J. (2017). *The handbook of customer satisfaction and loyalty measurement*. Routledge.
- Kalkbrenner, B. J., & Roosen, J. (2016). Citizens' willingness to participate in local renewable energy projects: The role of community and trust in Germany. *Energy Research & Social Science*, 13, 60-70.
- Kerzner, H., & Kerzner, H. R. (2017). *Project management: a systems approach to planning, scheduling, and controlling*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Lacy, A. C., & Williams, S. M. (2018). *Measurement and evaluation in physical education and exercise science*. Routledge.
- Manners, R. A. (2017). *Professional dominance: The social structure of medical care*. Routledge.
- Mayombe, C., & Lombard, A. (2016). The importance of material resources and qualified trainers in adult non-formal education and training centres in South Africa. *International Review of Education*, 62(2), 187-204.
- Munzaki, D. F., Suadah, L., & Risdaneva, R. (2016). Teaching methods used by learners Of Department of English Language Education of UIN Ar-raniry in teaching English at English Course. *Englisia Journal*, 4(1), 10-26.
- Postiglione, G. A. (2015). Improving school to university transitions during mass higher education: a policy perspective. In *Mass Higher Education Development in East Asia* (pp. 245-267). Springer, Cham.
- Rana, S., Ardichvili, A., & Polesello, D. (2016). Promoting self-directed learning in a learning organization: tools and practices. *European Journal of Training and Development*, 40(7), 470-489.
- Ratana-Ubol, A., & Henschke, J. A. (2015). Cultural learning processes through local wisdom: A case study on adult and lifelong learning in Thailand. *International Journal of Adult Vocational Education and Technology (IJAVET)*, 6(2), 41-60.
- Romiszowski, A. J. (2016). *Designing instructional systems: Decision making in course planning and curriculum design*. Routledge.
- Rozman, R. (2017). The organizational function of governance: Development, problems, and possible changes. *Management: Journal of Contemporary Management Issues*, 5(2), 94-110.
- Sari, F. A. (2016). Enhancing Efl Learners'willingness To Communicate: Teachers'beliefs About Their Roles And Strategies. *Kajian Linguistik dan Sastra*, 1(1), 1-16.
- Schaltegger, S., & Burritt, R. (2017). *Contemporary environmental accounting: issues, concepts and practice*. Routledge.
- Simonson, M., Smaldino, S., & Zvacek, S. M. (Eds.). (2014). *Teaching and learning at a distance: Foundations of distance education*. IAP.
- Taufiqurrohman, T., Latif, A. B., Faundiyah, L., & Astutik, D. (2017). Rumah belajar: The societal-based management of education. *Journal of Dedicators Community*, 1(2).

- Ting, I. H., Wu, W. J., Kao, H. T., & Wang, D. (2015). An implementation of online learning and course management system based on facebook. In International Workshop on Learning Technology for Education in Cloud (pp. 208-218). Springer, Cham.
- Ting, I. H., Wu, W. J., Kao, H. T., & Wang, D. (2015, August). An implementation of online learning and course management system based on facebook. In International Workshop on Learning Technology for Education in Cloud (pp. 208-218). Springer, Cham.
- Vo, H. M., Zhu, C., & Diep, N. A. (2017). The effect of blended learning on learner performance at course-level in higher education: A meta-analysis. *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, 53, 17-28.
- Walker, G., & Pattison, E. (2016). Using Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Framework to Design Support Systems for Education and Special Education: Learning About Thought Systems. In Special and Gifted Education: Concepts, Methodologies, Tools, and Applications (pp. 11-31). IGI Global.
- Weijo, H. A., Martin, D. M., Arnould, E. J., Fischer, E., & Ger, G. (2018). Consumer movements and collective creativity: The case of restaurant day. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 45(2), 251-274.
- Westhorp, G., Walker, B., Rogers, P., Overbeeke, N., Ball, D., & Brice, G. (2014). *Enhancing community accountability, empowerment and education outcomes in low and middle-income countries: A realist review*. EPPI-Centre, Social Science Research Unit, Institute of Education, University of London.
- Yulia, Y. (2014). An evaluation of English language teaching programs in Indonesian junior high schools in the Yogyakarta Province.
- Zahariadis, N., & Herweg, N. (2017). The multiple streams approach. In The Routledge Handbook of European Public Policy (pp. 54-63). Routledge.
- Zoogah, D. B., Peng, M. W., & Woldu, H. (2015). Centers, resources, and organizational effectiveness in Africa. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 29(1), 7-31.

DEVELOPMENT OF POETRY TEACHING MATERIALS BASED ON CREATIVE PROCESS

Suherli Kusmana¹, Jaja Wilsa² and Astiwati³

Universitas Swadaya Gunung Jati and Sekolah Menengah Kejuruan Terpadu Al-Ikhwan, Tasikmalaya

suherli2@gmail.com¹, jajawilsa@gmail.com², and astiwati19@gmail.com³

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.24071/ijjet.2020.040113>

received 19 December 2019; accepted 29 December 2019

Abstract

This study aims to overcome the problem of the quality of Indonesian language learning outcomes in high schools (SMA), especially the topic of poetry texts which are still low. The results of this study are intended to assist the government in improving the quality of the implementation of the 2013 curriculum at the high school level. The weakness of applying the 2013 curriculum is the limitations of teaching materials, including poetry text teaching materials. Learning this material is expected to encourage students to express their thoughts, feelings, and ideas through beautiful, rhythmic language, literary values but not offending others. The method used in this research is research and development with five selected literary writers who are productive in producing poetry texts. Next, in testing the developed teaching material, students from SMA Negeri 1 Manonjaya Tasikmalaya were chosen. Teaching material developed based on the poet's creative process in producing literary works of poetry text is combined with the composition of basic competencies based on the curriculum with scientific presentation. Teaching material which is evaluated based on content, presentation, language, and graphic criteria by academics and practitioners meets the eligibility criteria as teaching material in high school. Based on the testing of the application of teaching materials, it was found that the teaching materials were able to encourage students to produce quality poetry texts. Indonesian Language learning also takes place effectively in achieving goals.

Keywords: poetry text teaching material, creative process

Introduction

The development of poetry text teaching materials in high schools is very important because in their teens, the ability to express ideas, thoughts, and feelings is directed at the development of creativity. Competencies developed as mandated in the curriculum are to recognize, examine, and produce poetic texts. Learning outcomes with poetry text material is to produce works in the form of poetry texts. However, there are still many poetry works made by students which are plagiarism, works that are lacking in, works that can offend other parties. High

school students must be able to avoid poetry activities that do not reflect the attitude of a student who entrusts a moral message to his readers through poetry. Therefore we need good teaching materials that are relevant and in accordance with the current development of society. Development of teaching materials that are relatively new is still being done (Brian, 2012: 143; Du Toit, 2014: 25) including those excavated from the field and the environment.

Poets are poetists whose works have been accepted as excellent literary works of art. Poets write poetry by applying creative and imaginative processes, armed with an understanding of a work. Teaching material extracted and developed from the creative process carried out by the poet in carrying out the creative process will be able to challenge and encourage high school students to develop the ability to express ideas, feelings, and thoughts properly. Poetry text teaching material presented based on the creative process (Du Toit, 2014: 25; Vass, 2001: 102) is not yet available so the results of this study will be very useful, both for scientific development and for learning Text Poetry in high school. This research starts from a study of the need for teaching materials in high school and then a descriptive study of the creative process by the poet. By using the results of the study of the 2013 Curriculum concept, the results of the study of the need for teaching materials, and the results of the study of the poet's creative process, prototypes of Poetry Text teaching materials are developed based on the creative process. The prototype that was compiled was then validated by experts and practitioners, then revised and finally conducted a trial. The testing activities are carried out in the form of learning to high school students in accordance with the teaching material that they are supposed to learn.

Teaching Material

Teaching materials are materials used by students to be able to learn. Teaching material is a set of information that must be absorbed by students through enjoyable learning (Iskandarwassid and Sunendar, 2011: 171). This means that in preparing teaching materials students are expected to really feel the benefits of teaching materials or materials after they learn them. Thus, teaching material is a set of learning tools or tools that contain learning materials, methods, boundaries, and ways to evaluate systematically and attractively designed in order to achieve the expected goals, namely achieving competence and subcompetence with all its complexity (Lestari, 2013 : 1).

Teaching materials should make it easier for students who have difficulty in understanding learning material, are able to meet the needs of students, information is presented to be learned by students which contains all the material or theory of learning, is complete, so that students no longer need to look for other sources of material, follow technological developments, and makes it easier for users when they want to use it (Jannice, 2009: 33; Hapsari, 2016: 22). Teaching material is one of the most important parts in the learning process because there is a number of information, instructions, processes, and evaluations that support learning activities (Nag et. Al., 2018; Hamdani, 2011; Kusmana et al. 1919) to reach the goal. Therefore, every material, both instruction and information exposure; presentation; use of language; and the writing graphics are helpful and

friendly to the wearer. Good teaching materials not only contain knowledge, but are developed in a quality way and use a theoretical foundation. For this reason, in order to produce teaching materials that are capable of carrying out their functions and roles in effective learning, teaching materials need to be designed and developed using the latest approach.

The development of the latest teaching materials uses the Content and Language Integrated Learning approach or CLIL (Doiz, 2014: 209-224), with stages: (1) establishing context, (2) examining models / examples; (3) guided construction; and (4) independent construction through scientific procedures (scientific) through the 5M pattern consisting of: observing, questioning, gathering information, reasoning, and communicating (Kusmana, 2016: 9; Yani, 2014: 110). Based on CLIL, the teaching materials used to develop students' competence in producing poetry texts can be developed from examining the processes carried out by poets in producing poetry.

Poetry

Poetry text is one of the teaching materials that can be used by teachers to develop students' basic competencies. Poetry text is one of the outcomes of student learning outcomes in Indonesian subjects in high school. Poetry according to Waluyo (2003: 1) is a literary work with a language that is condensed, shortened, and given a rhythm with a unified sound and selection of words (imaginative). Poetry is a form of work that expresses the thoughts and feelings of poets imaginatively and contemplatively (Setiawan, 2017; Taisin, 2014). Poetry can represent the thoughts and feelings of the writer expressed through the wrapping of language formed the physical and inner structure of the writer through a particular language. Suminto A. Sayuti (2008: 3) states that poetry is a form of language expression that takes into account the aspects of the sounds in it, which expresses the imaginative, emotional, and intellectual experience of the poet drawn from his individual and social life ; expressed by a certain choice of technique, so it can evoke certain experiences in the reader or audience. From this understanding we can understand that poetry was created by a poet to convey a message to the reader either implicitly or explicitly to fulfill the inner satisfaction of a poet writer or poet. In Malay, there was only one term known as "rhyme" which meant poezie or gedicht. Poezie (poetry) is a type of literature that is paired with the term prose. Suryaman (2005: 20) states that poetry is the work of emotions, imagination, thoughts, ideas, tones, rhythms, sensory impressions, word order, figurative words, density, and mixed feelings with the attention of the reader. So poetry is the expression of one's heart whether it is sad, happy, and happy and the poem must use figures of speech so that the poem is interesting and the reader feels as if he has experienced what is happening in the contents of the poem. As according to Pradopo (2012: 7), poetry is an expression of thought that evokes feelings that stimulate, imagination of the five senses in rhythmic wording. The poem is a recording and interpretation of important human experience, then transformed into the most memorable form. Another opinion put forward by Warsidi (2009: 22) which states poetry as literary inventiveness is a manifestation of the experiences of poets expressed sincerely, as is, truly, and full of

imagination (imagination) with a language that is unique to sincerity, sincerity, wealth imagination and distinctive language also result in a variety of experiences expressed to be alive and captivating.

Creative Process

The creative process is the stages produced by a quality work and has a difference with other works. The work produced requires time and stages in the process so that it becomes a creative work. Creative processes refer to the sequence of thoughts and actions that lead to creative products (Lumbart, 1994). Poetry text is one of the creative products, because in the process of its creation it cannot be done immediately without a process. This is in line with what was stated by Noor (2012: 230-232) that a poet never departs and empty space or emptiness in creating poetry.

In producing creative work, a poet performs the process of contemplation by connecting his experience and thoughts as a reality with expressions that can also be thought and felt by others, even though they are different. Thus, all experiences that occur to the poet, both spiritual and physical will be described visually through creative words. As a creative work, poetry has characteristics that reflect the poet's creativity in carrying out the creative process (Aninditaet.all., 2017; Nag et.al .: 2018; Kusmana, et.al. 2019). The poet's creativity is a process of internalizing the reality faced or experienced by disclosure to the reader. Thus, good poetry is the result of a creative process that illustrates the thoughts and feelings of a poet in interpreting reality into a work that can be read by others. Environment and atmosphere play an important role in the process of a poet in creating poetry (Noor, 2012: 262-266; Setiawan, 2017: 88-99) states that. Even in getting ideas from where and whenever, but to write them into creative work requires a special atmosphere.

In the poetry text there is something that can be described, either explicitly or implicitly. The picture not only presents the atmosphere, but also depicts color, weather, sound, and even smell. Viewpoints in seeing, interpreting, and describing something are aspects related to the poet's perception and subjectivity. Everything related to natural phenomena is a metaphor that can be used in expressing the experience of the soul in poetic words. Poetry works are fiction because events experienced by the poet are in words and no longer in their daily lives (Damon, 2012: 265-266; Setiawan, 2017). Therefore, literary works in the form of poetry cannot be measured to the size commonly used in everyday life. The creative work of poetry can be understood intelligently because it is written in the form of words, but it would not make sense if returned to real life. The creative work uses imagery to symbolize reality in the form of poetic words and can be enjoyed by readers. Poetry as a creative work that has the value of creativity was produced by a poet as a creative process.

Method

This research uses the Research and Development (R&D) research method as developed by Borg & Gall (1983). The results of this study are valid and effective teaching material products (Sukmadinata, 2012) for use in learning. The

development research model used with the ADDIE model consists of five stages, namely Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation, and Evaluation (Aldoobi, 2016: 68). Thus, the research procedures undertaken consist of the research phase of analyzing the need for teaching materials in high school, analysis of competency standards, analysis of the results of interviews with productive poets, development of teaching materials, validation of teaching materials, and testing of teaching materials. The next stage of development consists of developing teaching materials, validating and revising teaching materials for sub-materials identifying poetry texts. The evaluation phase of teaching materials is based on limited trials to find out the effectiveness of the use of teaching materials in learning poetry text material.

There are two categories of research subjects, namely research subject analysis of the availability of teaching materials and the results of interviews with poets about the creative process in producing quality poetry texts, and analysis of the need for developing poetry text teaching materials that are preferred by students. From this, the research subjects used were five Indonesian poets who were productive in producing poetry texts. Meanwhile, the subject of research at the time of product validation through the prototype assessment of poetry text teaching materials based on the poet's creative process was Indonesian academics and education practitioners. Furthermore, the research subjects in conducting a prototype trial of teaching materials were students at SMA Negeri 1 Manonjaya Tasikmalaya.

The instrument used in this study was an interview to explore the creative process carried out by poets in producing quality poetry, analytical guidelines for analyzing poetry texts, guidelines for teaching material validation to measure the validity of teaching materials, and tests used to measure learning success in using prototype teaching materials poetry texts based on the creative process. The data collected from the interview results were analyzed to obtain a synthesis of the process of writing poetry, while the data from the analysis of poetry texts was used as a starting point for learning poetry texts to high school students. Test result data from the implementation of learning trials to measure the effectiveness of the use of teaching materials are processed using t-tests or significance tests of two means.

Result and Discussion

Result

Based on the results of interviews with the poets obtained information about the source of ideas in writing poetry. The source of ideas for writing poetry is based on impressive everyday events. These everyday problems are considered disturbing the poet's conscience but he can only express it through words or poetry. It is also possible that the source of the idea of the poem came from an everyday event but was quite memorable or impressive to the poet he received through the five senses. Poetry ideas can also be sourced from a life based on poetry readings and experiences.

The idea of writing poetry aside from social issues that bother poets or become something that is quite memorable for the poet himself. For example, the

idea of religious poetry comes from the experience of worship since childhood. Poetry with social topics originates from social problems which deeply disturb the poet's conscience. The idea of poetry can also be sourced from the poet's empathy in the social environment he observes, so that the idea of writing poetry is lifted from everyday experience or problems from those close to the poet. Even the idea of poetry is in the form of a poet's view of the nature of life and all its contents.

The idea of writing poetry can also come from objects observed by the senses but impress the poet. The idea, for example about panoramas, songs, music, culinary, books read, films watched, or memorable experiences while traveling or while traveling. However, the idea of writing poetry can also arise because there are competition activities, so that they are adjusted to the theme of the competition. Usually, from a competition the topic or theme of the competition is determined so that the poet uses the source of ideas from the theme determined by the committee.

With regard to the creative process, from the results of interviews with poets about the creative process they have the view that the understanding of the elements of poetry must be owned by the poet's writer. Therefore, understanding literary elements is a must for a writer, before writing literature. Understanding poetic elements can color the poetry products he writes. Understanding the elements of photography, rhyme, rhythm, images, diction, and language style. A poet writer must also understand the characteristics and forms of poetry, so that when writing poetry his creativity does not go too far out of the conventions of a poetry feature. Poet writers must also understand the patterns of writing rhymes, gurindam, carmina, poetry, or free poetry. A poet writer should also be able to understand the types and forms of poetry, for example there are forms of symbolic poetry, narrative poetry, and can distinguish between poetry and prose.

From the understanding of the literary elements, the characteristics of poetry, the types of poetry, and the forms of poetry, the poetry writer's creativity grows in producing a work of poetry. Poems made by poet writers are inspired by the characteristics, types and forms of poetry that have been circulating so far. It is possible, novice poet writers have the creativity to work based on their analysis of the works of poetry that exist today. From this analysis poetry can be produced based on the poet's culmination of phenomena and mastery of the types, shapes and characteristics of poetic texts. Thus, in general poets write poems that are beautiful, good, and their contents are stable because they understand the nature of poetry, understand the characteristics of poetry, types and forms of poetry. However, there are also poets who when producing poetry do not depart from an understanding of the elements of poetry, but are based on the poet's intuition of the phenomena witnessed or experienced which are expressed into beautiful expressions.

The creative process undertaken by poets in writing poetry is (1) absorbing information; (2) cultivate and pursue; (3) get or produce creative ideas; (4) reflecting creative ideas into work; (5) elaborating. In the initial stage, the poet absorbs information obtained both from natural (external) phenomena and based on the thoughts and feelings within the poet (inside). From the results of absorbing this information, then a poet conducts a settlement (incubation) with a

point of view from his own opinion and from the viewer's view. This process depends on the sharpness of the poet in reflecting information into poetic form. When writing poetry, the poet uses his own knowledge of poetic texts and poetic ideas or ideas as works of art. The final stage of the creative process of producing poetry is the editing process which is highly determined by the poet's knowledge of the building elements of a poem and the poet's experience in producing poetry as a creative work. From the editing stage produced a quality poem as the end result of a poet's creative process.

The process of pondering or settling a poet in creating poetry is determined by intellectual ability, insight, and literary experience. In settling phenomena or thoughts and feelings associated with instincts and the sharpness of feelings of a poet in processing and pondering problems. Therefore, at this stage there are poets who in a short time can produce poetry from the creative process but there are also poets who need a longer period of time.

At the editing stage of poetry as an initial creative product, a poet uses his knowledge of the use of poetry-building elements. Knowledge of these elements can beautify poetry so that the application of diction which has a beautiful rhyme in a poem or even produce an atmosphere of creative poetry. The editing process also depends very much on the experience of the poet in producing poetry. From the experiences experienced by the poet in displaying the creative work, a beautiful poem will be produced that is also pleasant to read or presented to the public.

Based on the exposure of the poet's experience in writing poetry it can be illustrated that the creative process undertaken is: (1) capturing information, both external phenomena (outside) or thoughts and feelings of self (inside); (2) processing information to settle and incubate; (3) produce poetry texts with stimulus from poetic ideas and poetic knowledge; (4) editing based on reflection on the fulfillment of poetry-building elements so that they can be understood and enjoyed by readers. The intended creative process can be described as the following picture.

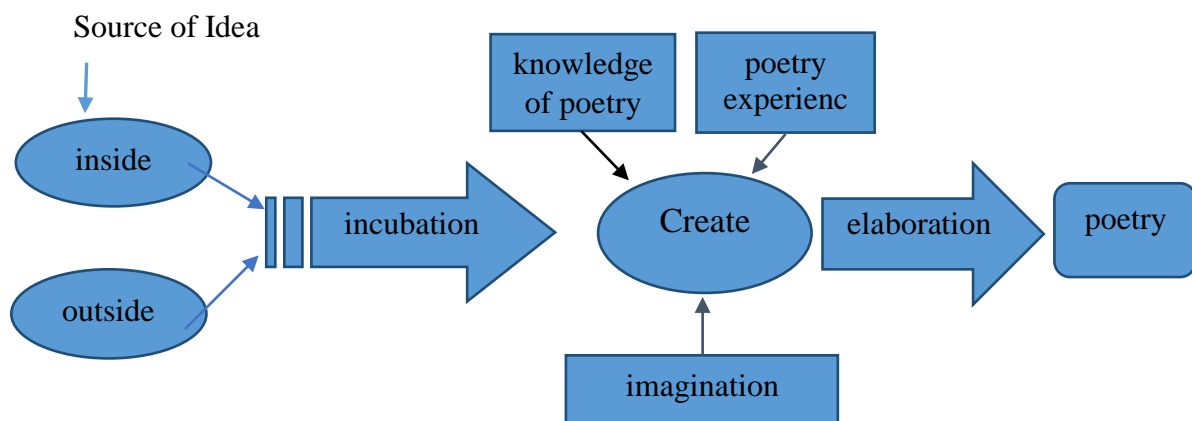


Figure 1. Creative Process of Creating Poetry

Discussion

Based on the exposure of the creative process carried out by a poet associated with basic competencies in the curriculum, teaching materials can be made that combine the two. Poetry text teaching materials whose competency development starts from knowledge to skills with its output is poetry text by students combined with creative processes. Therefore, in developing poetry text teaching materials for high school students it is necessary to consider the creative process carried out by poets. In general, poetry text teaching materials are developed based on the understanding of poetics on basic competencies that must be mastered.

The basic competencies set out in the curriculum are: (3.16) identifying the atmosphere, themes, and meanings of some poems contained in anthology poetry books or collections of published poems that are played or read; (4.16) demonstrating (reciting or musicalizing) a poem from the poetry anthology or collection of poetry by paying attention to vocals, expressions, and intonations; (3.17) analyze the building elements in poetry; and (4.17) Writing poetry by paying attention to the building elements. These basic competencies are combined with the creative process carried out by the poet into teaching material. The merger can be made in the concept map as follows.

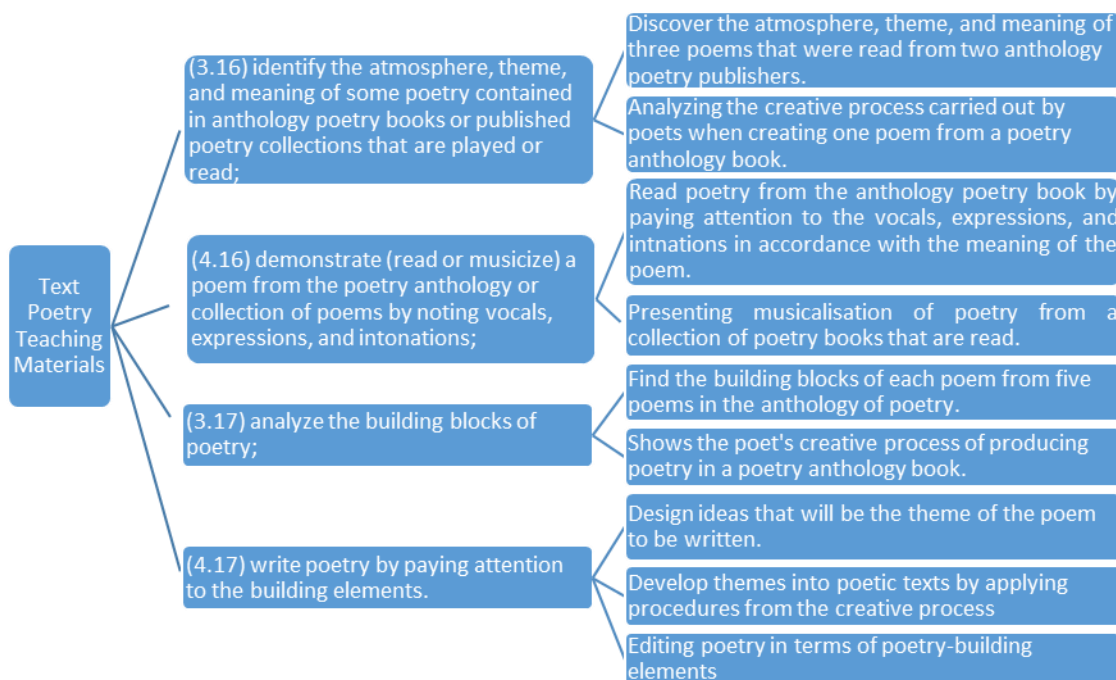


Figure 2. The Main maps of Text Poetry Teaching Materials for High School

Poetry text teaching materials for high schools as described in the concept map above are then validated by language learning experts and practitioners or Indonesian language teachers in high schools. Validation is based on a review of content compatibility with curriculum, presentation, language, and graphics. Of the four components of the validation obtained scores from the validators. Based

on the results of their validation it is known that the average score of the validation results reached 96.75 out of a total score of 100. This means that the teaching material developed included in the category is very feasible to be used in learning for high school students.

From the test results of poetry text teaching materials developed based on the creative process carried out by the poet, it is known that from the results of the trial using the pre-test and post-test design, the t-value obtained is greater than the value of the table. This means that the difference in average scores achieved by students after following the learning of poetry texts through teaching materials developed based on the creative process is declared to be trustworthy.

Poetry text teaching materials for high school students that are still limited can be enriched by the efforts of teachers in developing teaching materials based on the creative process carried out by poets in producing poetry works. Teaching materials developed must be in accordance with the conditions of the development of civilization, so students can easily understand the teaching material presented in learning. Based on the experience of poets in the creative process, it turns out knowledge of poetry and literary experience has a role in producing creative works (Kusmana et.al. 2019; poetic knowledge in poets can be used for the process of settling phenomena or experiences experienced. Meanwhile, knowledge of the building blocks of a poem become material for the poet to reflect on or make improvements at the stage of revision of the work of poetry.

The creative process of each poet is different, but in general it can be illustrated that the creative process is almost the same, namely getting ideas from phenomena or experiences, then experiencing the incubation process, then when producing works with stimuli from the imagination process, and the final part is revising by means of reread, change diction to have rhymes, change the order of lines, and see the full meaning so that creative work is obtained.

The development of poetry text teaching materials based on the creative process is an alternative provision of teaching materials that are suited to the needs of students and teachers. Learning with material based on poetry texts has outcomes so that students produce poetry texts as creative works. Poetry produced by students is more varied than learning with teaching materials contained in textbooks. Teaching material developed along with the creative process carried out by poets in producing poetry. Learning oriented towards student work products needs to be done based on the experience of the process of producing the creative work so that the stages of producing a product are in line with that carried out by professionals. However, the basic competencies that must be achieved as stated in the curriculum remain the main material as the minimum competencies students must have.

The development of teaching materials needs to be judged by their quality based on the assessment of the content or presentation, language, and graphics used in the teaching materials. From the four components, the teaching materials undergo an adjustment process with a basic framework as fulfilled in the development of textbooks. Development of teaching materials is basically the task of a professional teacher, but not all teachers have these competencies, therefore the results of research on the development of teaching materials become an

alternative for teachers in choosing teaching materials varying in implementing learning.

Product-oriented learning as a pedagogical concept of genre can increase student enthusiasm. By using stage (1) build context; (2) introduction of creative work models; (3) scaffolding to produce models; and (4) producing creative work independently. Stages of learning like this are in accordance with the application of teaching materials developed based on the poet's creative process in producing poetry. Therefore the same response also occurs during the learning trials using teaching materials that are developed based on the creative process, the responses of students are very enthusiastic and the resulting work products are more varied. Poetry text teaching materials that are added to the creative process in producing works are in line with similar learning from teaching materials developed based on the poet's experience in producing poetry texts (Kusmana, Jaja, and Mutiarasari: 2019). The students have different responses to learning that uses teaching materials taken from textbooks, students are encouraged to be more creative in producing poetry texts that they make.

Conclusion

Based on the explanation and discussion of the results of this research and development it can be concluded that the creative process carried out by the poet (1) absorbs information from the senses, experiences, the results of thoughts about something that has the potential to become poetry texts; (2) processing information until it undergoes an incubation process; (3) Contemplating to create creative work; (4) Doing elaboration and reflection on the creative work that is produced; (5) elaborating or testing a work of poetry. The creative process is generally carried out by poets in producing quality poetry text works.

Teaching material that is developed based on the creative process carried out by the poet gets validation as a teaching material that has eligibility, both in terms of content, presentation, language, and graphics. Based on the validation conducted by education experts and practitioners or experienced Indonesian language teachers, it is known that the teaching material developed has more varied contents and can motivate students to produce quality literary works. From the presentation component of teaching materials get an assessment that the presentation of teaching materials is more varied and can arouse students' literary competence, both verbally and in writing. The language used in teaching materials gets an assessment that is very in accordance with the abilities and catching abilities of high school students so that the teaching material is easily understood by students. Likewise, the graphic component gets a good rating, by presenting photos or pictures of poets, there are even examples of poetry readings that can be downloaded by students through their own devices so that they can be opened when they come home from school.

The application of poetry text teaching material developed from the poet's creative process to high school students obtained effective results. The application of teaching materials in classroom learning experiments is better than learning in control classes that use teaching materials available in textbooks. The outputs of the experimental class poetry text learning are more varied and in the form of

poems written by students who have literary quality and value when compared to poetry produced by students from the control class. Students' responses to learning by the teacher using poetry text teaching materials that are developed based on the creative process are very positive and can even motivate students to continue to develop their creativity.

References

- Anindita, Kun. (2017). Diction in poetry anthology Surat Kopi by Joko Pinurbo as a poetry writing teaching material. *International Journal of Active Learning (IJAL)*, 2(1).
- Damono, S.D. (2012). *Sihir Rendra: Permainan makna*. Jakarta: PustakaFirdaus.
- Daryanto & Dwicahyono. (2014). *Pengembangan perangkat pembelajaran (Silabus, RPP, PHB, Bahan Ajar)*. Yogyakarta: Gava Media.
- Dewi, W. (2009). *Belajar menuang ide dalam puisi, cerita, drama*. Klaten: PT: Intan Pariwara.
- Du, T.C. (2014). Towards a vocabulary for visual analysis: Using picture books to develop visual literacy with pre-service teachers. *Mousaion*, 32(2).
- Giovanna, B. (2007). Mapping gendred identity across language and cultures in Grace Nicols' Writing. Gale Educational Databased. *Culture and Literature*.
- Hamdani. (2011). *Strategi belajar mengajar*. Bandung: CV. Pustakasetia.
- Hartati, T. (2017) Conferencing approach in promoting writing ability: A classroom action research study on language creative writing in Indonesian language. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 7(2), 294-301.
- Hidayati, L. (2012). *Menumbuhkan karakter positif dengan menulis puisi*. Yogyakarta: Fire Publisher.
- Hidayati, N., & Zulaeha, I. (2018) The effectiveness of poetry reading learning using dralatader model on extrovert and introvert senior high school student. *Seloka: Jurnal Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra Indonesia*, 7(1).
- Iskandarwasid & Sukandar, D. (2012) *Strategi belajar pembelajaran bahasa*. Bandung: PT Remaja Rosda Karya.
- Jabrohim, dkk. (2009). *Cara menulis kreatif*. Yogyakarta: Pustaka Pelajar.
- Johnson, H. (2006). Supporting creative and reflective processes. *International Journal of Human-Computer Studies*, 64(10).
- Komaidi, D. (2011). *Panduan lengkap menulis kreatif dan praktek*. Yogyakarta: Sabda Media.
- Kusmana, S. (2016). Orientasi mata pelajaran bahasa Indonesia dalam kurikulum 2013. Prosiding Seminar Nasional. 17 September 2016. Yogyakarta: Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra Indonesia FKIP Universitas Ahmad Dahlan.
- Kusmana, S., Jaja W., Mutiarasari. (2019). The development of poetry text materials based on poet's experience. *Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research*, 297. <https://doi.org/10.2991/icille-18.2019.80>
- Laksana, A.S. (2013). *Creative writing: Tip dan strategi menulis cerpen dan novel*. Jakarta: Gagas Media.

- Lee, K. H. (2005). The relationship between creative thinking ability and creative personality of preschoolers. *10 International Educational Journal*, 6(2), 194-199.
- Lestari, I. (2013). *Pengembangan bahan ajar kompetensi (sesuaidengankurikulum KTSP)*. Padang: AkademiaPermata.
- Majid, A. (2012). *Perencanaan pembelajaran mengembangkan standar kompetensi guru*. Bandung: Rosdakarya.
- Mulyasa. (2006). *Menjadi guru profesional menciptakan pembelajaran kreatif dan menyenangkan*. Bandung: Remaja Rosada karya Offset.
- Murray, J., & Goldbart, J. (2009). Cognitive and language acquisition in typical and aided language learning: A Review of Recent Evidence from an Aided Communication Perspective. *Child Language Teaching and Therapy*, 25(1).
- Nag, S., Snowling, M. J., & Mirković, J. (2018). The role of language production mechanisms in children's sentence repetition: Evidence from an inflectionally rich language. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 39(2), 303-325
- Noor, A.Z. (2011). *Puisidan bulu kuduk: Perihal apresiasi dan proses kreatif*. Bandung: PenerbitanNuansa.
- Nurudin. (2012). *Dasar-dasar penulisan*. Malang: UMM Press.
- Prastowo, A. (2013). *Panduan kreatif membuat bahan ajar inovatif*. Yogyakarta: Diva Press.
- Priyatni. (2015). *Desain pembelajaran Bahasa Indonesia dalam kurikulum 2013*. Jakarta: Bumi Aksara.
- Ruhimat, T. (2011). *Kurikulum dan pembelajaran*. Jakarta: PT Raja Grafindo Persada.
- Sasaki, H., Iwasaki, S., & Takeya, M. (2006). Implementation of a framework for development of teaching material using distributed sharing virtual space. *Systems and Computers in Japan*, 37(14), 97- 106.
- Sayuti, S. A. (2010). *Berkenalan dengan puisi*. Yogyakarta: Gramedia
- Setiawan, W., & Yuliyanto, A. (2017). Wajah “Ryonen” dalam puisi “Biara” karya A. Muttaqin. *Jurnal Pena Indonesia*, 3(1).
- Setyosari, P. (2013). *Metode penelitian pendidikan dan pengembangan*. Jakarta: Kencana Prenada Media Group.
- Shabani, K., Khatib, M., Ebadi, S. (2010) Vygotsky's zone of proximal development: Instructional implications and teachers' profesional development. *English Language Teaching*, 3(4).
- Siswanto, W. (2008). *Pengantar teori sastra*. Jakarta: PT. Grasindo.
- Sugiarto, E. (2013). *Cara mudah menulis pantun, puisi, cerpen*. Yogyakarta: Khitah Publishing.
- Sugiyono. (2013). *Metode penelitian pendidikan*. Bandung: Alfabeta.
- Sukino. (2010). *Menulis itu mudah*. Yogyakarta: Pustaka Populer LKIS.
- Sukmadinata. (2010). *Metode penelitian pendidikan*. Bandung: Remaja Rosda karya dan Program Pascasarjana UPI
- Suryadi, dkk. (1986). *Mengapa dan bagaimana saya mengarang*. Jakarta. PT. Gunung Agung.
- Taisin, N. J. (2014). Genre puisi lisan tradisional Kadazandusun (Sudawil): Bahasa perlanan dalam Sudawil percintaan dan kasih sayang dari dimensi

- alam dan budaya. ICLALIS 2013. *Procedia: Sosial and Behavioral Science* 134(2014), 291 – 297.
- Tomlinson, B. (2012). Material development for language learning and teaching. *Language Teaching*, 45(2), 143-179.
- Turkmen, H. (2015). *Creative thinking skills analyzes of vocational high school student. Journal of Educational and Instructional Studies in The World*, 5(10), 74-84.
- Waluyo, H. J. (2003). *Apresiasi puisi*. Jakarta: Gramedia Pustaka Utama.
- Warsidi, E. (2009). *Pengetahuan tentang puisi*. Bandung: PT. Sarana Ilmu Pustaka.
- Yee, M .H., Yunos, J. M., Othman, W., Hassan, R., Tee, T. K., & Mohamad, M.M. (2015). Disparity of learning styles and higher orger thinking skills among technical students. *Procedia, Social Behavioral Sciences*, 204(2015) 143-152.

Author Guidelines

The editors of *International Journal of Indonesian Education and Teaching (IJJET)* welcome authors to submit articles written in **English** in accordance with the following guidelines -- points 1-10:

1. Articles have not been published or accepted for publication, or are being considered for publication elsewhere.
2. In addition to the manuscript, a written statement should be attached which clarifies the originality and free of plagiarism.
3. Types of articles suitable for publication include research reports and conceptual ideas.
4. Each article should be between 2,500 and 4,500 words long and in form of essay written in English which includes:
 - a. Title (15-20 words) in bold type, upper case, and in 12- point size of Times New Roman font,
 - b. Author's name (without academic degree) with an e-mail address and institution's name.
 - c. Abstract in English (150-200 words) which includes research problems, methods, and results.
 - d. Keywords in English (3 - 5 words).
 - e. Introduction (without subsection) which includes the background and objectives. The introduction section ends with an emphasis on items to be discussed.
 - f. Theory (literature reviews/theoretical construct) of the research.
 - g. Method
 - h. Results (with sections)
 - i. Discussion (with sections) which includes data analysis, verification of hypothesis, findings, and the interpretation.
 - j. Conclusion (without sections) which includes the concluding remarks, research implications, and suggestions.
 - k. Reference list should appear at the end of the article and includes only literatures actually cited in the manuscripts. Reference list should contain at least 60% new primary literatures and at most 40% new secondary literatures. References are ordered alphabetically and chronologically. When writing a reference list, please use the APA style (the sixth edition).
5. Conceptual Idea
 - a. Introduction
 - b. Theory
 - c. Theory Application
 - d. Conclusion
 - e. Reference
6. Every section heading is in bold type and in upper case for the first letter, for example, Introduction, and every subheading is in bold type, in italics and in upper case for the first letter of each content word and in lower case for the first letter of each function word, except for the first letter of the function word which begins a subheading, for example, Data Analysis and Engaging Activities and Tasks.
7. Another suitable type of article is a book review. Please note the following requirements for submitting book reviews:
 - a. Books being reviewed should be newly published.
 - b. Book reviews should be between 2 – 4 pages in length.
 - c. A copy or scan of the book cover should be attached.
8. The editors appreciate if authors excerpt information from subsequent published articles in IJJET.
9. Articles should be uploaded onto IJJET website in soft-files using Microsoft Word application, double-spaced on A4-sized paper, using 12 size Times New Roman font. Each article, written in English, should be between 2,500 and 4,500 words long.
10. Authors will be sent notifications of the receipt of manuscripts and editorial decisions (whether the articles are accepted or not) by e-mail.

Article submissions and publications in IJJET are free of charge -- without any article submission charges or article processing charges.



Sanata Dharma University



9 772548 842008