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Monitoring Assessments toward the Development of Transformative Learning for Iraqi College Students

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Abstract: Transformational kind of learning has two basic types: instrumental and communicative. Instrumental learning focuses on learning through task-oriented problem solving and determination of cause and effect relationships. Communicative learning, on the other hand, involves how individuals communicate their feelings, needs, and desires. Both kinds of transformational learning have a little outlet in most English Departments in Iraqi universities, where students study for the sake of final exams rather than developing skills that will help them in their real life outside classrooms. The purpose of this article is to investigate the adaptation of such kind of learning in one of the courses taught at the Department of English at the College of Education/Ibn Rushd at the University of Baghdad and describe the assessment model adopted in that course. After an explanation and discussion of the course and the assessment pursued, a suggestive presentation and assessment were provided for one poem which is included in the course in question.

Keywords: Assessments, Development, Transformative Learning

1. Introduction

Assessment is one of the areas which needs more attention in the reality of the university education in Iraq. The main problem relies behind the fact that all instructions aims at the success in the tests and final exams without any concern of the skills that should be rooted inside students and that should be help him/her to deal with real life situations in the best way. To highlight this problem the researcher investigated the gap between classroom teaching, assessment, and students' transformation taking the Department of English at the College of Education/Ibn Rushd as a case for her study. The purpose of this study is to describe one kind of assessment adopted in one of the courses taught at the Department of English and suggesting a way of presenting a text and how to assess it.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Transformative learning

Learning should not only correlate with grades and graduation. Learning “represents the continuing synthesis of internal and external worlds by a mind and brain hungry to have, and make sense of, a variety of experiences” (Keeling, 2009, p.1). College learning in particular should give “access to knowledge about the self as well as the world” (p.1). By providing this access, it will create channels for transformation which help students find new knowledge through activating their abilities to “questioning, changing, or affirming existing perspectives, opinions, priorities, relationships, and even identity” (p.1). When colleges offer such transformative opportunities, students will feel challenged to

test and revise their worldviews. If college educators believe that learning is a tool of rewriting the person and the mind then they can achieve the upper most limit of the learning process and create a generation who can build a communicative community and who can face problems and solve them collaboratively.

Samples (1999) suggests the following aspects of transformative learning:

- 1) **The Participatory Mind:** Following a path suggested by Skolimowski (1994), we explore three models of mind that link the process of evolution as played out by universal design, the way we choose to interact with our environment through the dual dynamics of subjectivity and objectivity and finally to how we acknowledge our unity with all that exists.
- 2) **Nature, Evolution, and Learning:** We examine learning as an evolutionary component of our make-up. Seven characteristic patterns of adaptive evolutionary systems are explored in regard to learning.
- 3) **The Soul and Learning:** In this segment, we consider an evolving perspective that blends spirituality - the quest for unity - and information, knowledge, and wisdom.
- 4) **Transformation:** This section provides a synthesis of the three perspectives cited above (p.93-94).

2.1.1 The Participatory Mind

According to Skolimowski (1994), the human evolutionary mind represents a unity of three configurations of mind: Mind I, Mind II, and Mind III. Each one of them “utilizes “sensitivities” that facilitate engagement and involvement between the individual learner and the world at large” (Samples, 1999, p. 94).

Mind I embodies one’s cultural and intellectual heritage. Mind II is characterized by sensitivities in the functioning of Mind I and those built by the process of evolution. Art, music, moral judgment, poetry, and love are some of the sensitivities of Mind II. Mind III “is the symbiotic interrelatedness of Mind I and Mind II and the greater “reality” created by the union of the two” (p.94). These sensitivities are the ones that should be triggered in the process of teaching in order to motivate the minds of students to learn. Since they are varied from calculation to art and music to reality then teaching should resemble this variety to achieve a fruitful teaching.

2.1.2 Components of Transformative Learning

According to Nemeč (2012), motivation, safety, trust, experience, and dialogue are the main components of transformative learning.

2.1.2.1 Motivation

Instructors should be aware of motivation sources (Miller & Rollnick, 2002) and the psychiatric rehabilitation value of self-determination. Learners need an opportunity to express their concerns, needs, and interests. Teaching should be a response to learner needs “more than as a forced shaping of behavior through mandatory instruction” (Nemeč, 2012, p.478).

2.1.2.2 Safety

Safety is related to “the learners’ expectations of potential consequences of success, self-disclosure, questioning, and risk-taking within the classroom” (Nemec, 2012, p.479). When the instructor is critical about “right” answers students will not cooperate in the teaching/learning process (see, e.g., Velligan, Kern, & Gold, 2006). To create a safe educational environment, instructors should demonstrate understanding of the learners’ contexts and show a great concern to their needs.

2.1.2.3 Trust

Trust is a dual dimension element. Learners need to trust the instructor, and the instructor should trust his/her learner. “Critical humility” (Taylor & Jarecke, 2009, p. 287) should not be misunderstood when it comes to building trust; because it can refer to “a recognition that one has much yet to be learned and that learners have things to teach the teacher” (Nemec, 2012, p.479) or “an appreciation for and confidence in the ability of learners to learn and to teach themselves” (p.479).

2.1.2.4 Experience

Instructors need to be specific about their objectives. This specificity requires careful designing and openness for feedback and self-assessment. Such scaffolding of experiences set the stage for transformation.

2.1.2.5 Dialogue

One of the important components of transformative learning is dialogue because it focuses on examining a dilemma, paradox, conflict, or contradiction. This structured framework for exploration is useful to learners (Reushle & Mitchell, 2009). With dialogue, the instructor’s responsibility is to decide rules for a conversation depending on his/her confidence and experience as well as a careful assessment of learners’ relationships, critical thinking skills, and appreciation of diverse perspectives.

3. Methods

3.1 The Educational Setting

The College of Education is a four years college. The first stage at the English Department represents an introduction and preparation to the upcoming three years. Students have no choice in deciding their courses. The department requires four years of study with a fixed collection of courses and textbooks. It should be noted that education is free in most Iraqi universities. Students can postpone one school year. But if they want to postpone the same year twice they have to be in an emergent circumstances and have to get an approval from the college committee.

Students who enroll in the Department of English will be studying linguistics and literature courses graded in their complexity as they move from one stage to the next. The department follows the British

system; which is why all its textbooks and curriculum are British. In the first year students will study the following courses:

- Introduction to literature: in this course students will be introduced to poetry, prose, and drama.
- Phonetics and phonology: students will study O’Conner’s *Better English Pronunciation* (1967) in which they will be introduced to the sciences of phonetics and phonology and the characteristics of speech sounds and English phonemes.
- Grammar: students will study all tenses of English and their uses in depth in this course. This course will accompany students in all their four years of study with an increased amount of complexity. Quirk and Greenbaum’s *A University Grammar of English* (1973) is used in teaching this course.
- Reading comprehension: in this course, students study a number of passages, answer questions about them, and study some vocabulary and their uses.
- Conversation: a book of fictional conversations is used to teach conversation. Students have to memorize some conversations and vocabulary.
- Computers: this is a practical course in which students study parts of computers and using e-mails and Microsoft Word.
- Democracy and human rights: this is a theoretical course which introduces students to democracy and the United Nations’ acts concerning human rights.
- Educational psychology: a historical background about the development of education over different centuries.
- Arabic: a review course which offers some literary aspects of Arabic language and the biographies of a couple of poets or writers.

For this assessment profile, I’ll choose the literature course. The course is divided into three parts. The first part is dedicated for poetry, figures of speech and poetic devices. Rhyme and tone are explained along with types of poetry. Four poems are to be studied:

- The Daffodils by William Wordsworth
- To — by William Shakespeare
- The Sick Rose by William Blake
- Ozymandias by Shelley

The second part introduces prose, different kinds of prose, and the literary devices students need to recognize – such as plot, setting, characterization... etc. the last part talks about the historical evolving of drama and theatre.

Class duration is 45 minutes. Students meet twice a week for every course. As I mentioned before, the curriculum committee is central; that is why instructors has no freedom in designing courses or changing the curriculum. Every stage in the department consists of four to five classes, with approximately 50 students per class. The first stage usually has more students. Sometimes every class has 70 students. This means that every instructor has about 350 students to teach weekly. This large number creates a real problem because it makes it difficult for teachers to meet the educational needs of every single student, understand all their backgrounds, adapt group or pair work activities, or even monitor good assessments.

3.2 Enrolment

No placement test is required to be enrolled in the Department of English, but instead there are two types of interviews. If the student fails in both then he/she will be transferred into another department which is lower than the one in question.

The first interview deals with personality. Since the department is part of the College of Education, then students are supposed to have teachers' characteristics and tendency. The registration office is responsible for this interview before giving students' the initial offer and sending them to the assigned department. The director of the office will talk to students' individually to assess their self-confidence and then he/she asks students to walk and do some physical acts to check their reaction and aptitude.

The next interview will be conducted at the department by a staff member – usually the coordinator of the department. The professor will start asking the student about what he had studied at high school. Then he/she gives the student a text and asks him/her to read. The interviewer might even ask the student to write a couple of sentences to check his/her writing skills as well.

I think this placement procedures are suitable for this particular educational environment. There are many obstacles to have certain tests (as TOEFL for instance) applied as part of the placement process. The prominent obstacle is that students are not trained for this kind of tests, considering as well that those tests are mostly using American English whereas students study British English. That is to be added to the several administrative obstacles which are not suitable to be mentioned in this context.

3.3 Classroom Test

The instructor conducts two short tests for every section. This means that students will have six short tests in total to have a final score out of 40 to be added to the score of the final exam at the end of the year. I'll describe the tests used for the first part of the course, which is explaining poetry. Because of the large number of students in the class, the instructor has designed two different sets of questions. She has students sit in queues and every queue will have either A or B version of the test. The test consists of two parts. Part *I* asks for the definitions of a number of figures of speech. Students should provide some examples with their definitions as well. In Part *II*, the instructor gives students two stanzas from two different poems (they have to answer only one of them) and asks them to explain the stanza, interpret it, and then tell if it has any figures of speech and why.

Part *I* of the test is reliable because the definitions of figures of speech are fixed. If the teacher gives the same question to the students after a period of time they will give the same answers. This part is also valid since it is designed to measure the content knowledge of students.

Part *II* is valid but less reliable. It has to assess both content and language but there is a great chance of flexibility and creativity when answering it; because students can add their own points of view and feelings which are both liable to change over time. And generally, paragraph writing kind of tests are not

reliable. So, if students are offered the same question after a period of time they might answer it in a different way – which applies to the interpretation section of the question only.

The explanation of the stanza is a valid section of the question. It enables the instructor to measure students' knowledge of grammatical relations of phrases and sentences as well as grammatical categories of words and their stylistic use. The scoring of the test is somehow problematic because it is objective. The objectivity in scoring literature courses tests is a problem because most of their tests are of this kind of essay writing not like other linguistics courses where the instructor can give different valid and reliable tests.

3.4 Preparation Unit

I'll consider activities to teach Ozymandias and how to test it because it will be so long to explain activities needed for a whole test. As far as for the first part of the test, I'll have rhyme, metaphor, and simile. To teach rhyme, I'll prepare slips of papers with words that can be easily rhymed. I'll divide the class in to two teams and give each team a group of the papers. Each team has to challenge the other to give a word that rhymes with the one they choose. The activity will last for 10 minutes. Then in five minutes I'll explain how such rhyming words add music to the poem and show them that by changing the rhymed words in Ozymandias by ones that doesn't rhyme but has the same meaning. Then I'll have them write down the definition of rhyme in their note book with an example from the words they have worked on in the previous activity.

When explaining simile, I'll choose a female (suppose that her name is Rana) student and write the following sentence on the board:

Rana's face is like the moon.

Then I'll ask the students to discuss how her face and the moon is similar. When they say that her face is round like the moon and all the other features that might apply I'll relate what they say to the use and definition of simile. For sure students will remember that example in the test. Then I'll have them work in pairs to write a simile about a person they know comparing him/her to something according to certain characteristic attributed to that person.

When I describe metaphors I'll make sure that students understand the idea of "an image equals another image". I'll describe how we give the characteristics of something to something else but we still understand the real meaning because of the context. I'll give them examples like:

The students are noisy birds today.

Noisy birds, be quiet!

Then I'll state the difference between simile and metaphor linguistically and have students create similes and metaphors of the following group of words:

Man	Snake
Girl	A flower
Mother	Fruitful tree

Then, in Power Point presentation, I'll give an introduction about Ozymandias and how it is based on an Egyptian Pharaoh called Ramesses II. I'll explain how this Pharaoh was a powerful tyrant who ordered building a statue of himself and had the following words inscribed (just like they were quoted in the poem): 'My name is Ozymandias, King of Kings: Look on my works, ye Mighty, and despair!'

Students should have worked on the explanation of the poem. So, I'll have them discuss their explanation then I'll proceed to the interpretation of the poem. After that, I'll have students identify figures of speech in the poem. At the end I'll have an open discussion about the theme of human power and how the power of time overcomes it. This theme is closely related to students' lives and they can speak about their personal experiences or general experiences and events in their communities. All language skills will be developed in this class and the instructor will know how to test them easily.

In that way, it will be easy for students to answer Part *I* of the test which asks for definitions and examples of rhyme, simile, and metaphor and part *II* which asks for explaining and interpreting stanzas of the poems they have worked on before as well as specifying their figures of speech. In order to raise the validity of the second part, I will provide a rubric at the end of the test specifying what will be measured and how it will be scored.

I used cognitive and social learning strategies (to be honest, till now I couldn't find a way to use metacognitive strategies and I don't believe they will work with SL or FL students!). I used organization: when I had students grouping words, inferencing: when they used the poem to guess the meaning of words, visualization: to understand the meaning of words and phrases, elaboration: the use of new and old information, and cooperation: group and pair work.

The tests I offered to students will show me how they will recall and interpret figures of speech and if they need more explanation of them. The second part will help me assess their overall writing style and if they need some help in developing their writing skills, their analytical abilities and if they need more support in developing those skills, and their content knowledge if they were able to explain the surface meaning and the deep meaning of the stanzas.

4. Conclusion

This paper investigated the construction of the introductory literature course at the Department of English in the College of Education/Ibn Rushd at the University of Baghdad. It suggested a way of presenting a sample poem which is meant to be taught in this course and set the suitable assessments for it. The way of teaching the poem supports the goal of "teaching to plant the root of transformative learning". Unfortunately teaching runs in the path of "teaching for the sake of exams" only in almost all Iraqi educational institutes. That is why the researcher hopes that this research will benefit instructors, educators, curriculum designers, and students as well.

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Code Switching in English Instruction and Factors Affecting the Language Attitude of Indonesian EFL Learners in Using It

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Abstract: This study aimed at analyzing the factors causing teachers and students to use code switching (CS) and the factors affecting language attitude of EFL learners in using CS in instruction. The participants of this study were 8 English teachers and 312 students of 12 Junior High Schools in Malang, Indonesia. This study used a mixed method. To collect the data, questionnaire and classroom observation were applied. Post hoc item analysis was employed to meet the requirement of validity and reliability. The factors causing the use of CS in EFL instruction were (a) involvement of the learner, (b) use of learner's language, (c) situation of the classroom, (d) weariness of teacher (e) expressing of teacher's anger. All these five factors gave a significant effect to the use of CS in EFL instruction. It was statistically significance ($p < .01$). The fifth factor, the use of the learners' language had dominant influence toward the use of CS in EFL instruction.

Keywords: Code-Switching, Language Teachers, English Instruction

1. Introduction

Teachers often have difficulties in delivering English as a foreign language (EFL) in the classroom interaction. When they deliver the material to the students, the teachers are required to be able to communicate ideas and views in order to be easily understood by them. To achieve this, teachers need strategies, either related to the use or the selection of language learning strategies as well as the delivery of the material. In line with above statements, the teacher may use two or more languages in delivering learning material. If some students do not understand what the teachers explain, it is not uncommon for them to switch a language to another language that is easily understood by students.

The use of CS by teachers in English instruction is a lingual phenomenon which associates with the goal of communication. The aim of the use of CS by English teachers is to enhance their ability to communicate, in particular to communicate in classroom. The use of CS in the classroom is still needed (Cook, 2001). He asserts that teachers are allowed to use CS when they explain important concepts, students do not concentrate on the lesson, and the teachers give praise or warnings to students.

2. Related Literature

2.1 Perspectives on CS

Auer (1995) suggests that the use of foreign words in a conversation can be classified as CS. It is also

supported by Dabene and Danielle (1995) who takes that sort of CS with a unitary code switching. According to them, there are four other types of CS; CS between speech that occurs between two speech uttered by a speaker, CS between sentences, CS in a sentence, and segmental CS happened to modify a segment of speech involving either clauses or phrases, Gumperz as quoted by Wardhaugh (1998) divides CS into two types: situational and metaphorical code switching. Situational CS occurs if the changes of code accompanying either topic changes or participants. Meanwhile, metaphorical CS occurs in a situation with the addition of the meaning of certain components in a speech.

CS can also be used by English teachers in classroom activity as a strategy. As a strategy, the teacher can use CS with some purposes or specific reasons, such as providing explanation changing a formal setting into a relaxed classroom atmosphere and to create a sense of humor. In addition, the main objective is to make students better understand material being presented by teachers (Mujiono, 2013).

2.2 CS as a Communication Strategy in EFL Instruction

The use of CS by the teachers and the students can be viewed as a strategy in EFL classroom interaction. CS which is used by English teachers and the students in the classroom is a lingual phenomenon. It is emerging as the implications of being bilingual. Brice and Roseberry (2001) assert that the use of more than one languages by multilingual people led to the use of language. The use of CS can be caused by factors related to the context of the communication situation. This is in line with the theory of Fishman (1972) stating that bilingual people switch because of some interrelated factors. Associated with the use of this, Romaine (2000) describes that being bilingual and multilingual often causes the use of the selection of language. It is one from several languages or the selection of one from several variants of the language in the same language. It is therefore the use of two or more languages can motivate speakers or partners.

In English instruction, CS is still used by either teachers or students. Switching from English to Indonesian or vice-versa in EFL classroom can be used as a strategy to interact between the teacher and students. It can be seen for instance when a teacher in EFL learning activities can start with one language, then shifted to other languages, namely from English to Indonesian. Krieger (2005) reveals that the use of the first language (L1) in foreign language classroom is sometimes indispensable, especially for explanation and affirmation of linguistic and grammatical concepts. Motivation of students can be enhanced with the use of their L1. Schwarzer (2004) states that the use of L1 might function as a learning strategy to enhance communicative competence in the foreign language. The use of L1 can serve as learning strategies to develop competence in communicating with foreign languages. It is in line with Tang (2002) reporting that teachers of EFL teaching students who are not fluent in English is not possible to avoid using L1. On the other hand, he found that L1 is used by students as a communication strategy to compensate for their flaws in the use of the second language (L2).

Sert (2005) explains that CS function which is practiced by the teacher is known as topic switch, affective, and repetitive functions. Topic-switching means that teachers switch their language corresponds to the topic that is being taught. This often can be seen on grammatical learning and to divert students' attention on a new topic. CS plays a role as affective function conducted by the teacher to express the motion, and to build relationships with students. Repetitive function has a sense that

teachers use CS to clarify the meaning of a word, and emphasize the importance of foreign language content for a better understanding. Sert (2005) confirms his experiences as a student and as a teacher of English that the use of L1 can help the students learn English easily. As a strategy in EFL teaching, the teacher uses CS to deliver English material as well as a classroom management.

2.3 Translanguaging in EFL Bilingual Classroom

As stated by Baker (2006) and Garcia (2009) that translanguaging refers to the use of several languages in the classroom at different points in a lesson aimed to develop L1 and L2 in parallel. Further, Baker (2006) defines translanguaging as the use of two languages in parallel to develop language skills in both languages and contribute to a deeper comprehension of subject being learned. He argues concerning with Williams (1994) that the goal of translanguaging is to develop academic competence in both languages, it means that students should obtain the same concepts in both languages for them to learn content knowledge in L1 and L2. To support his argument, Baker (2006) highlights potential advantages of translanguaging for the learners as well as; (1) to help students to have a good and complete understanding of the material being learned, (2) to promote development of learners' skills in language, since the aim of translanguaging attempts to develop learners' academic language skills in both languages, (3) to facilitate home-school cooperation by which learners are able to produce in both languages, and (4) to support the development of second language competence. This is defined as the access of different linguistic features of autonomous language by bilinguals aimed to maximize the potential of communication.

Meanwhile, Garcia (2009) argues that translanguaging is responsible for communicative practice offering possibility of communication and education for all, but it should respond to a separate language settings, which means that it should be included in certain points of the lessons for previously planned purposes. Garcia (2009) stands for translanguaging as the order of the languages which is responsible for acquisition of bilingual children and their learning given the fact that the flexibility of the language, they can match the content and language, oracy and literacy as well. Therefore, it is used in a bilingual classroom to mediate an understanding, to jointly build meaning and interact with others.

In EFL bilingual classroom, the learners use language well or almost well which technically refers to the knowledge of two languages. Baker (2001) explains that a person who has the ability of bilingual will have two or more experiences in the world. Further, he explains that every language system is running with a different behavior. On the other hand, he explains that with two languages it will come by the wider cultural experiences and is very likely to produce a greater tolerance among the different cultures as well as diluting the racist sense will.

Related to teaching EFL in bilingual classroom, it may refer to Garcia & Wei, (2014) concerning with a model of bilingualism. They provide a comprehensive overview of various models of bilingualism. These are dependent on the needs of communities, nations and states and are often politically-driven. Garcia & Wei (2014) have presented four models of bilingualism. They are; (1) subtractive, it occurs when children learn a second language which gradually takes over from and eliminates the other, (2) additive, it is a sort of double monolingualism in which another language is added to the existing repertoire, (3) recursive (where attempts are made to revitalize a language that had previously been

surpressed), and (4) dynamic, it is involved in multiple and multimodal language practices as befits the means of communication in a world of shifting peoples and increased access to and use of technology. Further, Garcia explains that this term is compatible with what European institutions call 'plurilingualism'. To support her view, García presents social and cognitive benefits of bilingualism which can be maximized or minimized depending on socio-political contexts which influence educational policy.

Related to teaching EFL in bilingual classroom, *translanguaging* is applied to help students to try out the ideas and actions with the purpose of learning and developing their literacy practices. This is done through the use of language that is flexible to support understanding and build knowledge conceptual and linguistic knowledge.

2.4 Related Previous Study

In a Preliminary Research, Bista (2010) observing about the factors affecting 15 bilingual international students using CS. Research findings indicated that the primary factor that they used CS was the inability of those in using L2. Another factor was because (a) it eases them to talk to their own language than speak English, (b) in order to avoid confusion, (c) not familiar with words or terms in English language. Based on the findings, he confirmed that CS can be used as a strategy in learning in the classroom aimed to clarify the delivery of subject matter and transfer of knowledge to students.

As one lingual phenomenon, the use of CS is viewed as one of the teacher's efforts to ease him in delivering learning material, particularly in EFL classroom interaction. This is supported by Mujiono (2013), Bista (2010), Ahmad (2009), Metila (2009), Chen & Ting (2009), Hamzah (2008), and Kim (2006) who revealed that the use of CS can serve as a strategy for delivering learning material. Other similar researches, namely those conducted by Chung (2006), Ayeomoni (2006), and Ruan (2003) analyzed the function of CS in general study on bilingual language learning, both formal and informal situations. Meanwhile, Chidambaram (2000) focused on the type of CS used by teachers in language learning.

3. Methods

3.1 Design of the Study

This study applied a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods. Qualitative study focused on direct data interpretation. Meanwhile, quantitative research method was intended to employ a quantitative computation and inferential statistical application.

3.2 Participants

This study involved 8 English teachers and 312 Sor High School students. The English teachers were categorized into three categories, namely gender, age, and teaching experience. In terms of gender, the teacher was categorized in male and female teachers. In terms of age, the English teachers were ranged from 27 to 65 years old. They were categorized into old when they were 45 years or above, and young when they were less than 45 years. In terms of teaching experience, the English teachers were included in long and short categories. As indicated with long category when they had teaching experience of 15

years or above and short category when they had teaching experience of less than 15 years. The English teachers profile can be shown in Table 1.

Table 1. The Profile of English Teachers

No	Category	Sub-category	Number
1	Gender	Male	5
		Female	3
2	Age	Old	6
		Young	2
3	Teaching Experience	Experienced Teaching	6
		Inexperienced Teaching	2

As shown in Table 1, there were 5 male and 3 female English teachers. In terms of age, 6 English teachers were categorized as old and 2 as young. In terms of teaching experience, 6 English teachers were categorized as long and 2 as new.

The 312 students were categorized into two categories, namely in terms of gender and student's mother tongue. In terms of gender, the observed students were categorized into male and female students. In terms of students' mother tongue, they categorized into two, i.e. the students using Indonesian or local languages.

Table 2. The Profile of Students

No	Category	Sub-category	Number
1	Gender	Male	186
		Female	126
2	Mother tongue	Indonesian	97
		Local Language	215

3.3 Data Collection

The instruments of collecting the data in this study were questionnaire and classroom observation. The questionnaire was provided for students. The questionnaire for students was designed in two parts. Part 1 contained 6 items. This part dealt with the date of birth, gender, learning English experience, language being used in the classroom, at home, and out of classroom. Part 2 contained 25 items, which dealt with students' language attitudes toward the use of CS in EFL instruction. These items were designed to elicit one of the responses, namely "strongly agree", "agree", "do not agree", "do not know", and "strongly

disagree”. Each item of the instruments was developed on the basis of the problems of this study. The questionnaire employed in this study was provided for 312 students. Post hoc item analysis was employed to meet the requirements of the validity and reliability of this instrument. The statistical software of SPSS, Cronbach’s Alpha analysis was utilized for this study. It revealed that 25 items in part 2 which were designed for the students were valid and reliable.

Classroom observation was applied to obtain data of CS practice in EFL instruction. The classroom observations were implemented at eight selected classes. Eight classrooms observed for duration of approximately 45 minutes of each. The researcher observed the utterance of CS practice in EFL instruction. Classroom sessions were audio recorded to ensure valid and reliable collection of data. Audio recording transcriptions were utilized to crosscheck the collected data. To clarify the gathered data, the researcher consulted participants after English instruction or during class breaks.

3.4 Analysis

To analyze the gathered data, descriptive and inferential statistics were utilized. The data gathered through questionnaires were analyzed quantitatively with statistical software of SPSS. The a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was applied to examine whether there was any significant difference in relation to the factors affecting language attitude of EFL learners to use CS. The data gathered through classroom observation were analyzed qualitatively. Several steps were employed in this data analysis. First, the researcher examined the field notes and transcripts collected from classroom observation to identify all CS data practiced by English teachers and their students. Second, coding and labeling of each data sample were utilized according to its potential type. Third, all of codes were screened and the data labeled with similar codes were grouped together, followed by a careful examination of the relationships between and among different codes. Fourth, each type was re-examined carefully to ascertain that it accurately represented the nature of its supporting data.

4. Results

4.1 Factors Causing CS Practice in EFL Instruction

4.1.1 Involvement of Learner

The English teacher applied CS from English to Indonesian to facilitate his students to be actively involved in EFL instruction in the classroom. Examples were presented below as shown in bold and italicized forms.

(D: 001) T: Okay, notice the following text! What’s the negative form of simple past

T: *Coba kamu “Didik”* (‘you, “Didik”, please try’), *apa bentuk negatifnya* (‘what is its negative form’)? *dibaca dulu ya*, (‘read it first, do you)?

S: “She learnt English in middle school”

T: *Ya, bagaimana bentuk negatifnya* (‘yes, what is its negative form’)?

S: She did not learn English in middle school, *ini bentuk negatifnya*, (‘this is the negative form’) Sir.

T: good job.

T: *Ada yang mau coba kalimat berikutnya* ('anyone want to have a try for the next sentence)?

S: I'm Sir

T: please

The use of CS from the English to Indonesian or vice-versa due to the teacher wanted to involve one of the students to actively follow the lesson. The teacher pointed students by switching English to Indonesian as shown in excerpt (D: 001) line 2,3,5,6 and 8.

4.1.2 The Influence of the Use of Learner's Language

In Indonesian EFL teaching and learning context, English teacher was often influenced by learners' language. The examples of this factor was presented in data excerpts (D: 002) as shown in bold and italicized forms.

(D: 002) T: Please notice! How about the sentence? is it right?

S: *Kalimatnya salah* ('the sentence is wrong') Sir,

T: *Ya, bagaimana betulnya* ('yes, what is the right one')?

S: "Rena wears her pink shoes to school every day" *kesalahannya kurang* ('the mistake is the missing) "s" Sir,

T: good.

The use of CS from English to Indonesian due to the teacher was influenced by the language which was used by the student. The teacher asked the students to use English, as shown in (D: 002) line 1. The student then answered by using Indonesian, such as visible data (D: 002) row 2. The teacher then used Indonesian as shown in data line 3.

4.1.3 The Situation of the Classroom

English teacher and the students employed CS in EFL classroom to change formal atmosphere become informal or relaxed one. Examples from data excerpts (D: 003) as shown in bold and italicized forms.

D:003) T: Let us notice the following sentences! Make questions from the sentences given below. And please use the question word "what" or "who". Do you understand? *ngerti dak maksudnya* ('do you understand or not')?

S: No, Sir,

T: *Jadi gini rek* ('like this, guys'), *coba perhatikan contohnya* ('please notice the example'), "Minda is baking a cake" *menjadi* ('become') "who is baking a cake"? *faham* (do you understand')?

S: yes Sir,

T: Okay *baca dulu* ('read it first') and then *kerjakan seperti contohnya ya* ('do it as the example, do you)?

S: yes Sir

Data excerpts (D: 003) showed that English teacher wanted to change the strict formal class situation become more relaxed one. When the teacher explained a lesson such as in line 1-2, the situation looks very formal. Students look very enthusiastic to listen and pay attention to the teacher's explanation. But students still do not understand of what was delivered by teachers, such as in line 4. Then the teacher switched to Indonesian as shown in line 5, 6, and 7. By switching from English into Indonesian, the class atmosphere became relax and the students can understand teacher's direction.

4.1.4 The Weariness of the Teacher

English teacher used CS in EFL classroom to express his weariness. Switching from English to Indonesian was considered effective to attract his students to pay attention of his lesson. The examples of data excerpts were shown in bold and italicized forms.

(D: 004) T: Make a group of three *bentuk kelompok yang beranggotakan tiga* ('make a group with three members'), then read again the conversation above *baca sekali lagi percakapan di atas* ('read again the conversation above'), *kemudian identifikasi kalimat yang menunjukkan kegiatan* ('then identify the sentence that show the activity of ') simple present tense. *bisa dimengerti* ('do you understand')?

S: (*diam*) ('silent')

As data excerpts (D: 004), English teacher switched from English to Indonesia to express his weariness. The teacher felt tired in delivering English lessons in the classroom. The teachers teaching began in the morning until noon. The use of Indonesian in the speech is more dominated in his speech, such as data in lines 1-5.

4.1.5 The Expression of Teacher's Anger

English teacher tended to use CS in EFL classroom to express his anger. By expressing his anger in his L1, his expectation was that students knew that he was angry. The following data excerpts showed that CS was employed to express anger as shown in bold and italicized forms.

(D: 005) T: Okay, now let's study about describing people, Please open your book at page ninety eight

S: (noisy and talk each other)

T: hello, hello, *jangan ramai sendiri, coba apa yang saya sampaikan barusan* ('don't be noisy, what did I say just now')?

S: (silent)

T: *makanya jangan ngomong sendiri, perhatikan ya* ('so, don't talk by yourself, please do pay attention!')

S: Yes Sir,

T: Okay, I repeat once more, please open page ninety eight. Open please. Have you done it?

S: Yes Sir,

T: well, and then please choose the correct description to describe the person in the picture *dalam gambar ini* ('in this picture'), and *you boleh pilih lebih dari satu* ('you may choose more than one'), okay

S: Okay sir,

With reference to data excerpts (D: 005), it showed that CS was employed by English teacher to express his anger as shown in excerpts (D: 005) line 4 and 7. Switching from English to Indonesian was perceived to be effective way to express his anger. Emotionally, the students close to the use of their mother tongue than English.

In support of the above findings concerned with CS in English instruction, 25 valid item questionnaires were given to Indonesian EFL learners. The data obtained was then statistically analyzed by SPSS. The analysis employed the mean, SD, Min, and max scores of the items. To further investigate the students in relation to their language attitude toward the use of CS in English instruction, categorizations were conducted. They were divided into five (5) categories; the involvement of learner, the use of learner's language, the situation of the classroom, the weariness of the teacher, and the expression of teacher's anger.

4.2 Students' Language Attitude toward the Use of CS in EFL Instruction

Table 3. The Mean value, SD, Min, and Max Scores of the Students' Language Attitude.

Category	Sub Categories	\bar{X}	SD	Min	Max	N
The Factors	The involvement of learner	79.48	7.153	68	93	60
	the use of learner's language	85.66	5.807	70	93	64
	The situation of Classroom	76.94	6.775	65	95	62
	The weariness of teacher	75.65	5.766	70	95	60
	The expression of teacher's anger	76.39	6.015	67	93	66

As displayed in table 3, in terms of the involvement of learner, the mean value of students were 79.48 with 7.153 SD, 68 min and 93 max scores. In terms of the influence of learners' language, the mean value was 85.66 with 5.807 SD, 70 min and 93 max scores. In terms of the situation of classroom, the mean value was 76.94 with 6.775 SD, 65 min and 95 max scores. In terms of the teacher's weariness, the mean value was 79.90 with 5.766 SD, 70 min and 95 max scores. In terms of expression of teacher's anger, the mean value was 76.39 with 6.015 SD, 67 min and 93 max scores.

To further investigate whether there was a significant difference in each factor, ANOVA was conducted. The summary of statistical analysis was presented in Table 4.

Table 4. The summary of the ANOVA test of the factors affecting toward the students' language attitude to use of CS in EFL instruction

	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F	SIG.
Between Groups	4228.648	4	1057.162	26.480	000.
Within Groups	12256.570	307	39.924		
Total	16485.218	311			

As table 4 showed that there was a significant difference in terms of involvement of learner, the learner's language, the situation of the classroom, teacher's weariness, and the expression of teacher's anger in relation to their language attitude toward CS practice. This finding showed that the five factors had significant effect toward learners' language attitude to use CS in EFL instruction.

To know what factor affecting other factors, homogeneous subjects test was displayed below.

Table 5. Homogeneous Subjects Test

The factors	N	Subset for alpha = .05		
		1	2	3
The involvement of learner	60		79.48	
The use of learner's language	64			85.66
The situation of classroom	62	76.94	76.94	
The weariness of the teacher	60	75.65		
The expression of teacher's anger	66	76.39	76.39	
SIG.		.788	.052	1.000

Table 5 showed that the only factor in the use of learner's language affect the forth other factors. It can be concluded that the use of learners' languages was the dominant influence on learners' language attitude toward using CS in Indonesia EFL instruction.

5. Discussion

The findings showed that both English teacher and students used CS in EFL classroom interaction. It also supports Ling's study (2013). In a formal process of EFL teaching and learning, teachers often have difficulties in delivering subject matter to the students. To overcome these difficulties, the teacher tries several learning strategies. The use of CS in EFL classroom is viewed as one of their efforts to solve the

problems related to their teaching. In this case, the teacher used the language which has been previously mastered by the students. These findings also showed those teachers and students are bilinguals. In this case, they used two languages interchangeably. The alternation of language such as this is a communication strategy (Mujiono, 2013), and (Inuwa, 2014). As reported by Bista (2010) and Tabaeifar (2014), they named as strategies of interaction in the classroom.

If it is associated with the use of communicative functions, the use of CS as mentioned earlier, to switch from English to Indonesian or vice-versa shows communication competence of both teachers and students. So the choice of a language influences toward the success of communication. The psychologically, the involvement of students to communicate English can be encouraged by using student's mother tongue to bring up communication. Academically, involvement of students can help onset of effective learning and achievement of the learning outcomes. Therefore, the use of CS is inevitable at all. The results of previous studies such as the Kreiger (2005) found that the use of L1 in the foreign language classroom context is sometimes indispensable, especially for the explanation and the affirmation of the linguistic and grammatical concepts. The motivation of learners can be raised with the use of their L1 to explain part of the language that is indeed difficult to understand if it is presented in English. Language and culture differences between English grammatical aspects and the students' L1 can be offset by a systematic explanation of using a language which has been mastered by students.

From the perspective of sociolinguistics, the use of CS in EFL classroom at Senior High School is caused by various factors. The dominant factor is the use of the learners' language. From the test results of homogeneous subject with subsets for alpha .05 and value factor 85.66 as in table 5, it was indicated that factor of the use of learners' languages gave significant difference from other factors such as the involvement of learners' language, the situation of the classroom, the weariness of teacher, and the expression of teachers' anger. The English teachers and the students used CS in EFL classroom for pedagogical purpose. A result of Merrit's study (1992) found that a school teacher in Kenya using CS between the languages to attract the attention of students, conduct a clarification as well as emphasize the material being taught. Meanwhile, Canagarajah (1995) found that the English teachers in Sri Lanka employed CS for classroom management and content delivery. Referring to the results of the studies for various reasons of the use of CS by English teachers and the students, CS is still necessary for Indonesian EFL learners.

6. Conclusion

The teachers need to use two or more languages as strategies to deliver material in EFL classroom interaction. Teachers use CS from English to Indonesian or vice-versa in order to be easily understood by the learners and to make the learners understand better material being presented by teachers (Mujiono, 2013). Using CS by the teachers in EFL classroom is a lingual phenomenon that associates with the aim of communication. It is supported by Cook (2001) who reveals that the aim of using CS by the teachers is to enhance their ability to communicate particularly to communicate in classroom. In EFL classroom interaction, the use of L1 is sometimes indispensable, especially for the explanation and the affirmation of linguistic and grammatical concepts (Krieger, (2005). It might function to enhance communicative competence in the foreign language as a learning strategy (Schwarzer, 2004).

The use of several languages in the classroom at different points in the lesson is aimed to parallel develop the L1 and L2. According to Baker (2006) and Garcia (2009), it is called translanguaging. It is also the use of two languages in parallel to develop language skills in both languages and contribute to a deeper comprehension of the subject being learned. In Indonesian EFL classroom context, the learners can get the same concepts in both languages by which they are able to learn content knowledge in L1 and L2. By referring to Baker (2006) and Garcia (2009), it can be highlighted that by using translanguaging, the Indonesian learners have a good and complete understanding of the material being learned, get development of their skills in language, can produce in both languages, and can develop learners' second language competence. So, translanguaging here is an essential angle to take the complement on CS.

This study identified five (5) factors causing the use of CS by English teachers and Indonesian EFL learners in classroom interaction. They were (a) the involvement of the learner, (b) the use of learner's language, (c) the situation of the classroom, (d) the weariness of teacher (e) the expression of teacher's anger. All five of these factors gave a significant effect on the use of CS in EFL instruction. It was statistically significant ($p < .01$). The fifth of these factors, the use of the learner's language gave dominant influence on the use of CS in Indonesian EFL instruction.

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Conceptualizing School Improvements Dimension within the Context of School-Based Management

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Abstract: School Based Management has a strong emphasis on local decision making to ensure effective and continuous school improvement. There needs to be a strong focus on improved learning achievements for all students. For this to occur effectively, principals, school committees and supervisor (*pengawas*) need to continuously monitor and evaluate school performance. School Based Management is not an end in itself unless it can help foster an improved school culture, higher-quality decisions directed to improvement and above all, improvements in children's learning

This paper deals with the conceptualizing school improvements dimension within the context of School Based Management. The introductory section of the paper describes the theoretical perspectives and the occasions of the conceptual framework of School-based Management. In addition, it followed by explanation about the key-points of quality improvement in the context of school integrated development. This paper also highlights the role of the principal in successful School Based Management in greater detail. Besides, the significance of the school culture in supporting the school improvement will also be presented. Finally it briefly explains the method and approach as well as the strategy to implement the plan of school integrated development.

Keywords: School, Management, Improvement, Effective, Autonomy, Development

1. Introduction

The reform that occurred in Indonesia in 1997 has influenced the move to autonomy in a range of national fields including education. *Undang-undang* (National Law) No 22 year 1999 gives districts the authority to organize their requirements including education. Educational autonomy is not only at district level but continued further down to give autonomy to each school to administer its own educational activities (Hadi, 2001; Suwandi, 2001; Smeru, 2001; Usman, 2001).

At the school level, education autonomy is implemented through the School Based Management program (Jalal, 2004, Bandur, 2012). Schools and their communities have the authority in decision making related to educational management in their school. School Based Management aims to improve community participation and active involvement in enhancing the quality, efficiency and equal opportunity of access to education. With this participation and sense of ownership, the school, the principal and the teachers will be able to manage the school more effectively (Dimmock, 2013).

The principles of School Based Management implementation include : (a) accountability; (b) transparency; (c) collaboration; (d) bottom-up processes; (e) ownership and (f) participation as well as (g) autonomy. The ability of teachers, principals, and the community to apply School Based Management principles is the key to the success of improving the quality of children's education in their schools (Wohlstetter & Mohrman, 1993; Briggs & Wohlstetter, 2003). Finally, and most importantly, through the implementation of School Based Management principles, it is expected that many education outcomes can be significantly improved (Education Human Development Network, 2007)

2. The Concept and Practice of a School-Based Management

School Based Management (SBM) is an alternative form of managing schools where they have broader authority in making decisions within the national education policy framework (Barrera-Osorio et al., 2009; World Bank, 2007). Furthermore, the goals of School Based Management are to: (1) improve the quality of education; (2) build the capacity of principals as school leaders and managers; (3) build community participation; (4) build the spirit of achievement in students and teachers across schools; (5) enable decisions to be made at the local level based on local needs and (6) improve the partnership between the family and the school in the education of children as learning occurs at home and at school.

High community participation is a necessary characteristic in School Based Management (Afridi et. al, 2014). Those who are directly involved with students need to have wide access to information. They must have clear views on how to develop education in such a way that children will gain greatest benefit. Continuing development and improvement efforts will place the school as the leader in maintaining ongoing change. This can only be developed through effective school and community based management (Volansky & Friedman, 2003).

The decentralization of education enables the school to have the authority to organize an increased proportion of school management. Over time, increased financial resources will be available to schools. The school has the authority to make important decisions such as the management of the budget, procurement of facilities and recruiting honorary teachers. Schools are well placed to make these decisions with their local knowledge of the needs of their children (Vernez & Karam, 2012). The surrounding community will participate in setting priorities and decision making when, for example, the school building/roof is broken after a rainstorm, or if the school has a lack of teachers. The community can immediately work towards finding solutions.

3. School Improvement and School Integrated Development

School Based Management has a strong emphasis on local decision making to ensure effective and continuous school improvement (Barrera-Osorio et al., 2004). There needs to be a strong focus on improved learning achievements for all students. For this to occur effectively, principals, school committees and *pengawas* (supervisor) need to continuously monitor and evaluate school performance. School Based Management is not an end in itself unless it can help foster an improved school culture, higher-quality decisions directed to improvement and above all, improvements in children's learning.

School Based Management is a potentially valuable tool for engaging the talents and enthusiasm of far more of a school's stakeholders than traditional, top-down governance systems. Moreover it holds the promise of enabling schools to better address students' needs (Elmelegy, 2015).

In striving for school improvement, principals need to play the roles of curriculum leader, facilitator and manager of change (Briggs & Wohlstetter, 1994; Briggs & Wohlstetter 2003). They need to encourage teacher interaction and professional discussion during the regular school day. They need to ensure that teachers talk about and observe teaching practices, maintain higher standards of performance, seek out new ideas, and actively become involved in school-wide issues.

Greater levels of participation by staff and parents, as well as structures that include all stakeholders in the decision-making process, can facilitate improvements in school culture and student outcomes (Coleman, 1994; Mulford & Hogan, 1999; Fullan & Watson, 1999; Leppky, 2007; Australian Council for Educational Research, 2012), through the following strategies:

a) School Improvement through the School Development Plan

The school development plan is the tool that the school uses to focus on improving performance. It forms an integrated planning, monitoring, reporting and review process. It allows a school to develop its own educational plans and priorities. It provides a monitoring and reporting framework to allow a school to check on its progress and, more particularly, to establish whether its objectives are met.

b) School Improvement through Data Analysis

A key tool in effective school improvement is the collection and analysis of data. Data should be discussed within the context of the school and used to develop school improvement strategies. Data should be kept and disaggregated on: (a) student learning; (b) student attendance; (c) student behavior; (d) allocation of financial resources; (f) health and nutrition; (g) progress against minimum service standards; (h) parent and community involvement and (i) parent and community satisfaction with the school. As a matter of course, schools should collect and examine their performance data in all of these areas. School improvement comes from a close examination of data, discussing the key questions that arise, and implementing effective improvement strategies. For example, this chart (figure 1) shows the achievement in the "Format T" tests of students in one school in a particular year.

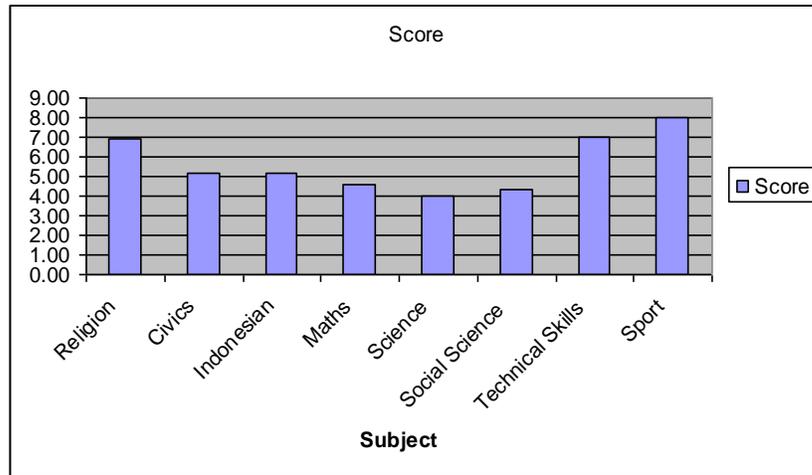


Figure 1. Achievement in the “Format T” tests of students in School X

The data by itself means little until the school examines key questions, identifies issues of concern and develops strategies to address these issues. In this case the questions might include: (1) what factors are contributing to the strong results in Technical Skills and Sport?; (2) what factors are contributing to the low achievements in Mathematics, Science and Social Science?; (3) what is the comparison between the achievements of girls and boys?; (4) what are the teacher skill levels in the subjects that are returning lower results?; (5) is there sufficient equipment available in science?; (6) what teacher professional development has occurred recently? and (7) what additional teacher support and development is needed? Depending on the school’s examination of these and other questions, the school should develop and implement a range of strategies to address concerns. These strategies could include improved professional development, teacher mentoring, additional time devoted to some subjects, and/or purchase of books or equipment. As a second example of data analysis is shown in figure 2. In the chart shows the student enrolment in one school in a particular year.

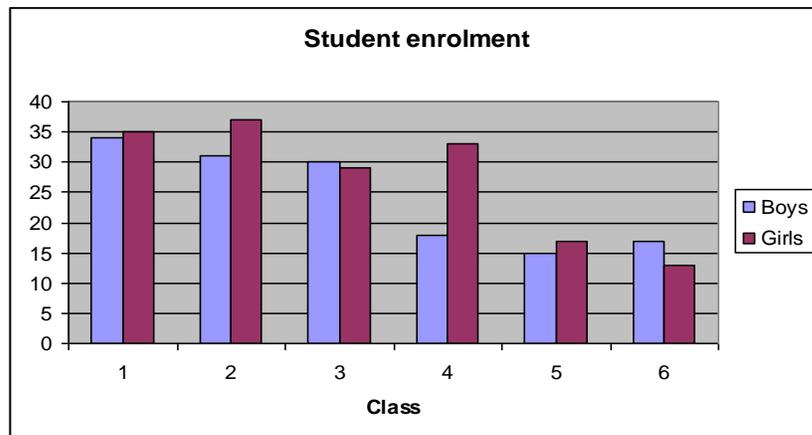


Figure 2. Student enrolments in School X

The data shows that the enrolment of girl's drops significantly from class 4 to class 5 and the enrolment of boys drops significantly from class 3 to class 4. Again, the data by itself means little until the school examines key questions, identifies issues of concern and develops strategies to address these issues. In this case the questions might include: (1) was the initial intake of students low in class one, four and five years earlier?; (2) has the decline occurred since?; (3) why might the girls enrolment drop at the end of class 3?; (4) why might the boys enrolment drop at the end of class 4?; (5) what is the quality of teaching at classes 3 and 4?; (6) is there violence causing students to leave?; (7) is anything occurring in the community to cause students to drop out?; (8) what are students doing when they drop out?

Enrolment data should also be examined over several years to follow trends as student's progress through the school. The strategies to improve enrolment and reduce drop out will depend on the answers to these and other questions. Little improvement will occur without an open and deep examination of the circumstances causing this enrolment drop and implementation of effective strategies developed by the principal, teachers and school committee.

c) School Improvement through Class Organisation

Effective use of teaching resources and classroom organisation can have a significant impact on improving student outcomes. The role of the principal is to carefully review student enrolments, distribution of students across each class level, the number and skill levels of teachers, and available classrooms. It is then important to discuss all options for class arrangements with teachers, taking into account what solution(s) will best meet the needs of students. Consider the following example enrolment pattern in a town school

Class	1	2	3	4	5	6
Numbers	49	27	14	11	12	7
Teachers	1	1	1	1	1	1

The school might decide to implement the following arrangement to better meet the needs of class 1 students.

Class	1	1	2	3	4	5/6
Numbers	25	24	27	14	11	19
Teachers	1	1	1	1	1	1

Consider the following enrolment pattern in a remote school.

Class	1	2	3	4	5	6
Numbers	10	11	10	12	8	11
Teachers	1	1	1	1	1	1

The number of students in each class is very small and it is very difficult to attract enough teachers. The school might decide to implement one of the following arrangements to better meet student needs.

Class	1/2	3/4	5/6
Numbers	21	22	19
Teachers	1	1	1

Class	1	2	3/4	5/6
Numbers	10	11	22	19
Teachers	1	1	1	1

d) Ongoing and Continuous Development

Through the implementation of School Based Management, every school acquires the ability to continuously develop and improve its long-term achievements, both academically and financially. In the academic program, School Based Management empowers the whole school community to increase its academic competency. This is done through: (a) the principal taking on a leadership role in curriculum improvement and positive student behaviour management; (b) the principal taking on a leadership role in developing teachers within the school; (c) professional development of teachers; (d) mentoring for continuous improvement in teaching and (e) teachers learning from each other in regular (weekly) meetings to discuss teaching styles, curriculum content, effective learning methods and problem solving.

Principals play a key role in setting class sizes, class arrangements, monitoring the hours of education children receive, and allocating resources which impact on the learning. This is done through consultation. Schools can seek the support of their *pengawas* (supervisor) to assist improvement. *Pengawas* observe many classrooms and schools and have a wide knowledge of good and poor practice. *Pengawas* can then share with their schools, various improvement ideas gained from their experience and from other *pengawas*, and schools.

School committees are involved in and support their schools. School committees can assist with promoting new ideas in the community. School committees have important and valuable input with decisions on school planning and resources. School development must be quality oriented and provide improved education for all.

Either of these options would free up teachers and rooms. The teachers may then be used to assist students experiencing difficulty, provide team teaching, or provide additional literacy support. However professional support and training will be required for the teacher teaching multi-grade classes for the first time. The distribution of qualified, experienced teachers across classes is also very important. This enables mentoring opportunities.

4. The Role of the Principal in Successful School Based Management

The role of the principal in successful School Based Management involves a significant shift in thinking and approach. The shift is away from principals as supervisors who see their main role as giving instructions (Trail, 2000). The shift is towards the notion of principals as educational, human and visionary leaders in addition to being efficient and effective managers of schools.

The principal must lead the school to develop its values and associated behaviour expectations for students, staff and parents. Furthermore, the principal must then be committed to upholding these values and place student achievement and well-being as the first priority in all decisions.

The principal plays a key role in leading the school community to develop vision, mission, goals and planning. The principal is a key figure in gathering the views of the community and drawing consensus views from stakeholders. These views cover all aspects of school management including teaching, student wellbeing and behaviour, finance and facilities. In addition, the principal is the key leader in improving curriculum, teaching and learning (Briggs & Wohlstetter 2003).

With the move to local school management, decision making patterns of school administration, leadership and management have changed (Bayhaqi, 2004). The table below provides an overview of the changing nature of management and the increased need for leadership. It is a useful basis for schools to discuss their own progress in the evolution of leadership and management in their workplace.

Old Pattern	School Based Management pattern
Principal as a manager	Principal as a leader (and manager)
Centralised	Decentralised
Central decision makers	Local participative decision makers
Bureaucratic approach	Professional approach
Directing	Facilitating
Being controlled and organised	Self motivation
Avoiding risks	Managing risks
Using all funds, in accordance with broad system priorities	Using funds as required and as efficiently as possible in accordance with locally determined priorities within broad system priorities
Information centred on the authorized parties	Information available for all of the community

Source: School Based Management Handbook (NTTPEP, 2007)

In School Based Management, the emphasis is on the local community and the school taking greater responsibility for teaching and educational decisions, management, budgeting and communication with

all stakeholders (Agustinus, 2008). Contextually, the School Based Management can be implemented successfully when: (1) the fundamental goal of the school is better education for students; (2) there is collaboration at the local level to improve the quality of education; (3) there is support from everyone in the school and the local community; (4) schools work towards improvement; (5) schools use a wide range of modern and innovative teaching methods; (6) schools develop all children's potential, by considering the individual learning differences of each child, and in particular, the individual learning differences between boys and girls; (7) there is support from the school social environment, including school and community resources, to achieve targets; (8) processes of planning, implementation, evaluation, and reporting of school programs and school management involve the school community; (9) informal education is implemented at home and (10) education is also implemented through art studios, apprenticeships, extra curricular activities, seminars, etc (Kelehear, 2006).

5. School Leadership, School Management and School Culture

Management is completing the organizational tasks that make the school run well. Leadership is developing a school that values and improves the learning, well-being and capacity of students, teachers and the community (Duignan & Bezzina, 2006). The role of the principal swings between management and leadership and both are necessary. Good management is important for effective school operation. Good leadership improves harmony, student results and improved teaching. It is important for principals to develop and use a wide range of different styles of leadership to suite different circumstances and needs (Leithwood, et. al, 2004). Effective management is needed to run a *good* school but it is not enough to produce a *great* school.

Principal Role	School Management	School Leadership
Areas of Importance	Necessary but not sufficient	Vital for school improvement
Organisation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School budget • School maintenance • Inventory of school material resources • Completing forms and reports • Data gathering 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consulting on and establishing the school priorities • Reviewing what the data means to develop improvement strategies • Ensuring a transparent approach to school management • Means of and purposes for student assessment
Curriculum	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Class organization • Purchase of classroom materials • School instruction hours • Extra curricular 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teaching methods • Developing classroom management policies and practices • Attendance • Improved curriculum

	activities	
Human	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher materials and equipment • Teacher accommodation • Election of school committee • Election of student leaders • Teaching loads and responsibilities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local curriculum needs • Establishing school values • Ensuring behaviours are based on school values • Developing student behaviour management policies and practices • Teacher mentoring and sharing of good methods • Teacher sharing of areas where they need help to improve • Discussion of student needs • Dealing with gender and children's rights
Culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organising school committee meetings • Completing the school development plan • Training the school committee in effective meetings • Training school committee executive in their roles 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vision and mission • Being accountable to the community • Seeking community input • Building good relationships • Mentoring the school staff and community in what constitutes sound teaching • Maintaining confidentiality

Source: School Based Management Handbook (NTTPEP, 2007)

School Based Management places increased expectations on the principal to be a leader in addition to completing necessary management roles. No longer is it sufficient for principals to neglect leadership and fill the school day with management tasks. The principal has an important role in curriculum leadership.

Curriculum leadership in schools involves: (1) implementing the national curriculum to deliver the competencies, outcomes and indicators; (2) including local culture in learning and teaching; (3) developing the teaching skills of teachers; (4) ensuring that teachers use a range of methods of teaching to meet the needs of students who learn in different ways; (5) ensuring that teachers are engaged in professional development to improve their teaching; (6) ensuring that teachers are meeting with each other to plan their teaching, share their resources and discuss improvements in teaching methods and

student assessment; (7) supporting teachers to gather and use student data to focus teaching on the individual needs of students; (8) developing improved student behaviour management; (9) monitoring student achievement data and attendance data and developing methods to address problems in these areas through consulting with parents, teachers and the community; (10) involving community members in student learning where they have particular knowledge and skills and (11) overcoming inequalities imposed by the “hidden curriculum” (eg. gender bias).

Curriculum leadership is also closely related to the school’s and school committee’s strategy of determining teaching materials for students. The content of the national curriculum will be much more relevant and meaningful if it is linked to the local culture, environment and social life.

In developing School Culture within context of School-Based Management is need to be considered that school culture is the basis for interaction between all members of the school organisation (Maslowski, 2001). This includes : (1) values (beliefs, honesty, and transparency) and (2) norms (regulations and behaviours that prevail and are agreed by all members of the organization). The school culture also requires common views on how students learn, how student behaviour is managed and how members of the school community - students, teachers, principal, parents and school committee - respect each other (Stoll, 1998).

A positive school culture arises from good relationships between the principal and teachers, teachers and teachers, teachers and students, student and students, and between all of these groups and the school community. This becomes a school characteristic that positively influences the teaching and learning process at school (Bray, 2007). The principal has a key role in developing a positive school culture. This is done through discussion with the teachers and school community, through modeling positive values and behaviour and by having individual discussions with teachers who show unacceptable behaviour.

6. School Development Planning

The primary objective of all schools is to provide an excellent education to every student. Research tells us that effective schools need a shared purpose, values that help people work together, and a clear understanding of what they are trying to achieve. Strategic planning is a process that can help schools set direction for their school and monitor achievement of the school’s goals and targets flowing from that direction. Strategic planning identifies strengths and challenges to help build strategies to ensure the provision of high quality educational programs for young people into the future. A strategic plan is the road map describing how to move towards achievement of longer term outcomes. The School Development Plan is a ‘compass’ and guide for all parties regarding the direction the school will be developed. Without a School Development Plan there is no continuity of the school’s annual activity plan from year to year (Australian Council for Educational Research, 2012). Some kabupaten make decisions on the allocation of major facilities grants to schools and other discretionary grants based upon goals in the the school development plan.

The quality of a plan is measured by its applicability in school daily management. Sometimes things might change and adjustment actions are unavoidable. A limited authority can be given to the principal, teachers and school committee to make needed adjustments. All the changes made should be reported in

school committee meetings to avoid misunderstandings and problems. Support for the School Development Plan depends upon accurate and detailed information being provided to all school members - teachers, students, school committee, parents and the community. Information can be provided through school displays, community meetings and school committee reports. The school is accountable for ensuring that its activities contribute to achieving the school vision mission and goals. The school is also made accountable by providing reports to the school committee and community (Jenni, 1991). This also includes financial reports. The role of community participation through the school committee becomes a key factor in developing the school plan, starting from the concept stage and continuing through to the final accountability stages. Under School Based Management, schools can over-see major building works in an efficient manner that enables greater value-for-money.

7. Concluding Remarks

The process of educational decentralization in Indonesia delegates some of the authority in education to regions to make decisions about budget allocation, development, school location, teacher recruitment, principal selection and appointment, teacher training, and local curriculum determination. Decentralization of schooling is a complex process, which can bring significant change to school systems, empowering schools to make policies; gain resources; spend the budget; develop teacher training; provide teacher professional development and develop curriculum. School Based Management has a strong emphasis on local decision making to ensure effective and continuous school improvement. There needs to be a strong focus on improved learning achievements for all students. For this to occur effectively, principals, school committees and pengawas need to continuously monitor and evaluate school performance. School Based Management is not an end in itself unless it can help foster an improved school culture, higher-quality decisions directed to improvement and above all, improvements in children's learning. School Based Management is a potentially valuable tool for engaging the talents and enthusiasm of far more of a school's stakeholders than traditional, top-down governance systems. Moreover it holds the promise of enabling schools to better address students' needs.

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Exploring Quantum Perspective in School Leadership: A Review of Effective Principal Leadership in the Changing Nature of School Management

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Abstract: In dynamic changing nature of school management and school environments, schools need principals who are fully engaged, creative, energetic and competent. In the school, the principal is the key leader to lead and manage school resources. An effective school leadership with multi-tasking competences always makes a difference strategy and approaching in improving the quality of their school. These multi-tasking competences could be realized through approaching the quantum leadership. This paper focuses on providing an overview on multi-tasking competence of school principals with using the quantum leadership as approach for managing the school activity. In order to lead the school in effectively ways, the quantum skill grow into critical importance competences for school leaders. The paper also provides some examples of the required key performance indicators regarding the competence of quantum leadership. Finally, this review concluded that even though approaching of quantum leadership is it not enough to produce a great school but effective management through quantum skill is needed to run a good school, particularly in the changing nature of school management

Keywords: Leadership, Quantum, Principal, Effective, Educational, School, Management

1. Introduction

At the most operational level, school principals stand at the front line, coordinating efforts towards improved teaching and learning quality in the school. They are assigned to be responsible for collaborative efforts to achieve educational goals at school level (DeVita, 2007; Mitgang, 2012; Barbour et al., 2010).

In Indonesia, school principals are senior teachers who are perceived as those who have qualifications for taking up school leadership roles (Permen Diknas, 2010). There have never been school principals who have not been teachers. Therefore, competent teachers might expect to be “fortunate” to be assigned as school principals. Unfortunately, most teachers who used to be competent as teachers become incompetent as school principals as they are not capable of undertaking managerial responsibilities. They are stuck in the incompetence issues and will stay there until retired (Choo, 2013; Hinchco, 2011). What will happen to the schools they lead? The principal is the key leader in the school with a strong educational background and professional experience. As a leader or manager in the school, the principals has responsibilities to realize the school visions, missions and goals (Wahjosumidjo, 2003; Lokman et al., 2013; Yasin & Mohd, 2013). In essence, the workdays of Indonesian school leaders’ are mainly characterized by administrative tasks, even though some of the administrative tasks cannot be

distinguished from the educational leadership or managerial tasks. Organizationally, the principal is responsible to both the government and the community through the school committee. The principal must balance this joint accountability with wisdom and care. This, it can be managed effectively when there is a strong positive relationship between the principal and the committee, wide consultation, good communication and transparent school management processes in place.

Nowadays, in the unpredictable changing nature of school management and school environments, particularly in the decentralization era in Indonesia, the principal should devote time to providing the school committee with professional development to enable it to better understand School Based Management responsibilities and processes. This will enable the school committee to better perform its role and minimize misunderstanding

Becoming school principals is a privilege as they are assigned to undertake managerial responsibilities to maximize available resources productively to achieve the targeted school goals. They need to ensure that the school systems are effective and the school resources are available and qualified towards achieving the goals. It is important for them to manage their schools effectively as they will color the future life of their students (Schaps, 2005).

2. Defining Quantum Leadership

Linguistically, the word quantum refers to “a quantity of something”. Mostly, the word quantum usually used to describe the mechanic process of physical activities. Apart from its specific application in their origin science - physics, the term “quantum theory” has been used in many contexts of various field of science, such as teaching, learning and leadership (Shelton, 1990; Dargahi, 2013).

Even quantum leadership accepts as a concept in the leadership theory, but until now there is not agreement or consensus about the concept of quantum - mechanical leadership and its definition. Zohar (1998) argues that quantum leadership is leadership informed by quantum thinking and guided by the defining principles of quantum physics/mechanics. The leader, who use quantum as approach for their leadership exercise both/and thinking, they think ahead by formulating many scenarios for what the future might hold, encourage questions and experiments, and thrive on uncertainty. Furthermore, quantum leaders have used the defining principles of spiritual intelligence to nurture a higher, quantum intelligence.

Papatya and Dulupçu (2000) state quantum leadership is a mechanical phenomenon, which is deterministic and predictable. In addition, according to Papatya and Dulupçu, in leadership process, relations and conditions can be defined objectively. In the leadership any defect is assumed to be leader’s fault/mistake.

Porter-O’Grady and Malloch (2010) found that quantum leadership is leader who operates with a “quantum” lens that views human relationships and environmental elements as interconnected and dynamically moving. Basically, the relationship between human and their environment can be described as follows: individuals are important in the world, and their collective relationships are even more important as they exist in their environments.

Warren Blank (1995) in his book *The 9 Natural Laws of Leadership*, attempted to explain the paradigm of quantum as an approach in leadership. Blank views based on the basic of the quantum physics. He summarized the characteristic of quantum leadership in four groups: (1) leadership is an interaction field between leader and followers, (2) leadership cannot be structured and estimated, (3) discontinuity of the leadership fact and (4) the impact of leadership mostly depends on interaction.

In addition, to understand quantum leadership as a leadership strategy, Fris and Lazaridou (2006) tried to systematize and summarize the characteristic of the quantum, which distinguished from the Newtonian Management. Hence, the quantum leadership often being characterized by: (1) naturalistic thinking, uncertain and unpredictable as basic assumption, (2) flexibility, to get things done there are many ways can be used, (3) distributed authority, using non-hierarchical networks approach, (4) effort to improve the integrity and cooperation among members within the organization, (5) Seeing the member of organization as co-creative partners, (6) experimental thinking, change and improvement within the organization could start anywhere and (7) fostering the meaningful relationships and individual wellness. To realize the quantum leadership in management practices, Shelton and Darling (2001) suggested that leader be going to quantum skills. These quantum skill are: (1) quantum seeing; (2) quantum thinking; (3) quantum feeling; (4) quantum knowing; (5) quantum acting; and (6) quantum trusting as well as (7) quantum being. These seven quantum skill should be mastery by leader as the responses to the changing nature of management, since the traditional management skills e.g. planning, organizing, directing, budgeting and controlling, which not inadequate anymore in facing this situation (Shelton and darling, 2001).

Furthermore, the relationship between characteristic of the quantum leadership and the quantum skills is illustrated in the figure below:

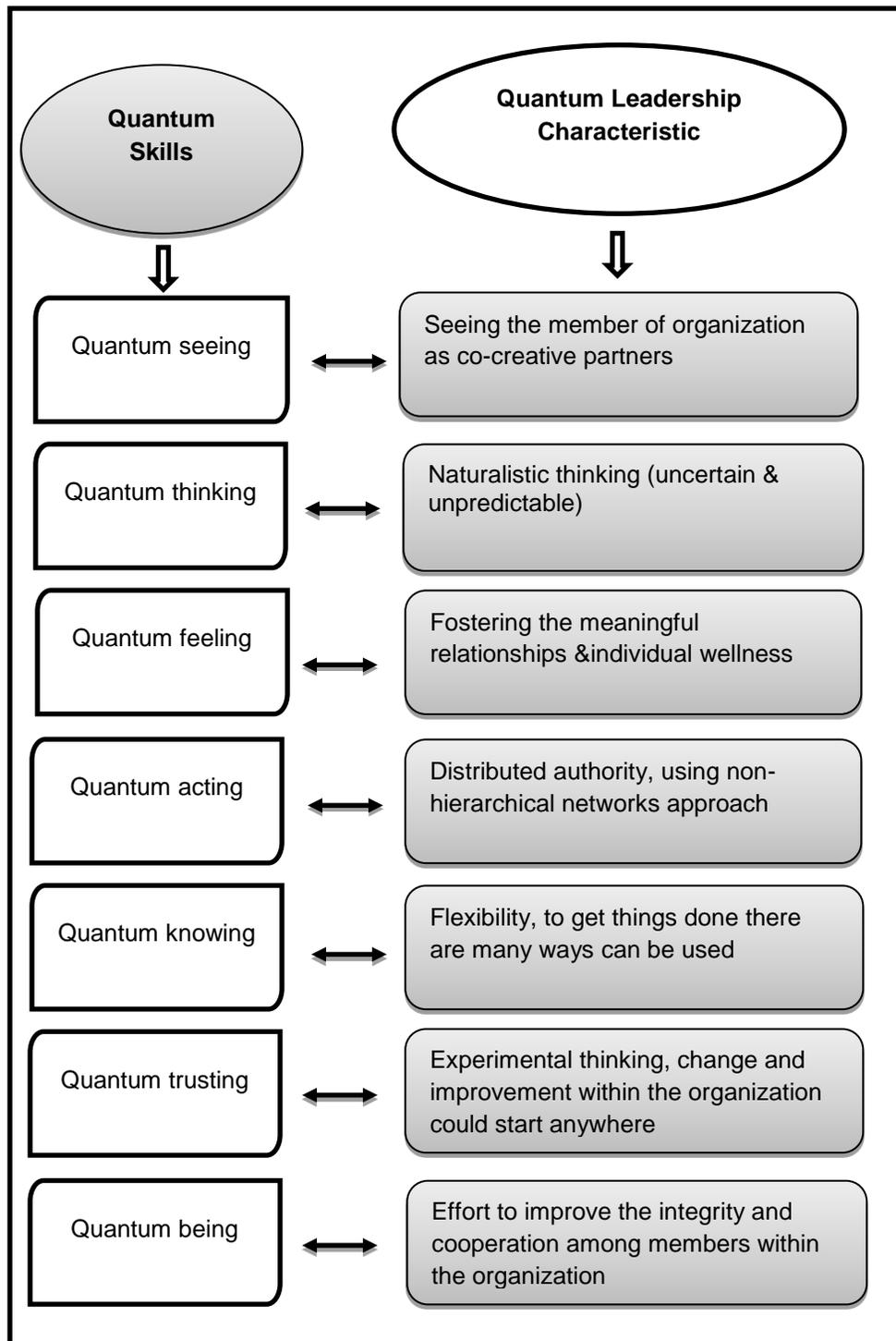


Figure 1: The relationship between characteristic of the quantum leadership and the quantum skill

3. Qualities of Educational Leaders, in the Changing Nature of School Management

With the move to local school management, decision making patterns of school administration, leadership and management have changed. An overview of the changing nature of management and the increased need for leadership is presented in the table below. Contextually, the table is a useful basis for schools to discuss their own progress in the evolution of leadership and management in their workplace.

Table 1: Changing Nature of School Management

Old Pattern	School Based Management pattern
Principal as a manager	Principal as a leader (and manager)
Centralised	Decentralised
Central decision makers	Local participative decision makers
Bureaucratic approach	Professional approach
Directing	Facilitating
Being controlled and organised	Self-motivation
Avoiding risks	Managing risks
Using all funds, in accordance with broad system priorities	Using funds as required and as efficiently as possible in accordance with locally determined priorities within broad system priorities
Information centred on the authorized parties	Information available for all of the community

Source: School Based Management Handbook (NTTPEP, 2007)

Basically, a position reflects the status of its holders. The status reflects the roles of its holders. The main roles of school principals as educational leaders are different from other leadership positions. Educational leadership of school principals refers to certain required qualities to be able to undertake the educational roles successfully (Haycock, 2007). What are the qualities of education leaders?

- Firstly, school principals need to know exactly what to be achieved (vision) and how to do that (mission).
- Secondly, school principals need to have certain competences to undertake the mission to realize the vision.

- Thirdly, school principals need to have certain character traits to demonstrate their integrity.

4. Realizing a school's Vision and Mission through Quantum Leadership

There might not be many school principals who know and understand their school vision and how to achieve that, which might also happen to other leaders. Reliable school principals try to know and understand their vision and make one in collaboration with related school stakeholders if there has not any. The vision needs to be socialized for all as the common aspiration and school principals need to ensure that there are consistent efforts to have shared commitment to realize the vision. They will not let the vision be merely as the display on their school walls.

Theoretically, although in historical process the functions of school management mostly focused on organizing school, defining vision and mission (Marsick & Watkins, 1997; Morrison, 2007; Usdan, 2000; Balyer, 2012).), but this function is a part of the important role of the school principal, on the whole in the context of understanding of school's vision and mission. However, understanding school vision and mission and having good integrity are not sufficient to be school principals. They need to meet the required competences to undertake their responsibilities successfully.

There is a shared agreement that school principals need to have the following competences (adapted from CCSSO, 2005).

1. Facilitate development, dissemination, and implementation of teaching and learning vision that are well communicated with and supported by the school community.
2. Assist, improve, and sustain conducive school environment and teaching programs that support learning process of students and professional development of teachers and staff.
3. Ensure that organizational management and operation of school resources are to create safe, healthy, efficient, and effective learning environment.
4. Collaborate with parents and community members to respond to various needs of the community, and mobilize the community resources.
5. Be the role models in demonstrating integrity.
6. Understand, respond, and influence wider political, social, economical, and cultural environments.

It is vital that principals give very high priority to their role as educational leaders. The following framework distinguishes the principal role both in school management and school leadership. The differentiate between school management and school leadership need to be understanding, since in theory and practice there is a basic philosophical difference between management and leadership. They have different purposes and they seek to obtain different outcomes, however in the context of organizational dynamic both are important and has interchangeable functions (Shelton & Darling, 2001; Dembowski, 2007).

The framework below is useful for principals to consider as a framework for their educational leadership responsibilities. All of these components are necessary for effective educational leadership.

Table 2: Principal role between School Management and School Leadership

Principal Role	School Management	School Leadership
Areas of Importance	Necessary but not sufficient	Vital for school improvement
Organization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School budget • School maintenance • Inventory of school material resources • Completing forms and reports • Data gathering 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consulting on and establishing the school priorities • Reviewing what the data means to develop improvement strategies • Ensuring a transparent approach to school management • Means of and purposes for student assessment
Curriculum	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Class organization • Purchase of classroom materials • School instruction hours • Extracurricular activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teaching methods • Developing classroom management policies and practices • Attendance • Improved curriculum • Local curriculum needs
Human	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher materials and equipment • Teacher accommodation • Election of school committee • Election of student leaders • Teaching loads and responsibilities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establishing school values • Ensuring behaviors are based on school values • Developing student behavior management policies and practices • Teacher mentoring and sharing of good methods • Teacher sharing of areas where they need help to improve • Discussion of student needs • Dealing with gender and children's rights
Culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organizing school committee meetings • Completing the school development plan • Training the school committee in 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vision and mission • Being accountable to the community • Seeking community input • Building good relationships • Mentoring the school staff and community in what constitutes sound

	effective meetings • Training school committee executive in their roles	teaching • Maintaining confidentiality
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Source: School Based Management Handbook (NTTPEP, 2007)

The question is: What is the working performance indicators of competent school principals and knowledge and skills required to be so?

5. Working Performance Indicators for Quantum Leadership Competence

What kind of knowledge and skills required to be competent school principals? A summary of literature review regarding the required knowledge and skill for the school principal in the form of Working Performance Indicators are presented below:

Quantum Leadership Competence # 1: Facilitate, develop, disseminate, and implement teaching and learning vision and mission that are well communicated to and supported by school community.

School principals need to ensure that schools have clear and agreed vision and mission that are supported by their school community. If vision and mission are not yet available, they need to take initiatives to have them developed by involving all related stakeholders (Hinchco, 2011; Robertson & Timperly, 2011). Working performance that can be identified as their competences are as follows:

- Vision and mission are developed collaboratively with related stakeholders.
- Staff, parents, and community members understand the school vision and mission.
- Related stakeholders believe that the core of the school vision is to be the guideline for everyone related to the school matters.
- Contribution from the school community members towards achieving the vision is respected.
- Related stakeholders receive updated information about the progress of achieving the school vision.
- School community is actively involved in the efforts for school improvement, e.g. school programs, plans, and activities are developed based on the school vision.
- Plan is implemented based on clear goals and strategies.
- Student assessment data is used to develop school vision and goals..
- Demographic data of students and their families is used to develop school mission and goals.
- Obstacles of achieving the vision can be dealt with.
- Provision of resources is available to implement school mission and goals.
- Available resources have been used effectively and efficiently to support achieving school vision and goals.

Vision, mission and plan have been regularly monitored, evaluated, and revised. The following are knowledge and skills, which required being competent school principals:

- Learning goals in pluralistic community.
- Strategic development and implementation techniques.
- System theory and thinking.
- Data collection, processing, and analysis techniques.
- Effective communication.
- Effective consensus and negotiation.

Quantum Leadership Competence # 2: Assist, develop, and maintain conducive school environment and teaching program for student learning and teacher and staff professional development.

School principals need to ensure the creation of conducive school environment (Barbour et al., 2010). This school environment enables everyone to be empowered and develop their best potentials. School principals need to work hard so that social issues, e.g. drugs abuse will not impact on the school environment. In this school environment, teachers and students are motivated to learn from one another, as well as support and empower one another. This provides room for learning by modeling and being accountable, and developing full potential.

A principal who is strong in social leadership will take the time to have individual discussions with each teacher. The principal will show care and respect for others and will work to heal unhappiness in peoples' feelings. The principal will recognize teachers' achievements and be sensitive to the difficulties they might be experiencing. The principal will gather and consider the thoughts and feelings of all in making decisions

The key indicators or working performance of competent school principals is outlined below:

- Everyone is treated equally despite their backgrounds.
- Professional development is focused on teaching and learning as outlined in the school vision and mission.
- School staff and students are respected and considered important.
- Learning issues are identified, clarified, and addressed.
- Diversity in developing learning experience is reviewed and considered.
- Long life learning is encouraged and modeled.
- High expectations are developed as school culture for school staff and students.
- Technology is used in teaching and learning process.
- Staff and student achievement are acknowledged and celebrated.
- Various learning opportunities are available for all students.
- Schools are managed and directed towards achieving student success.
- Curriculum, co-curriculum, and extra-curriculum programs are designed, implemented, and revised on a regular basis.

- Results of research studies, perceptions of teachers, and recommendations from educated community members are used as the references for important decision-making.
- School culture is evaluated regularly.
- Student learning outcomes are assessed by using various techniques.
- Staff and students are given opportunities to use different information resources on making successful achievement.
- Different supervision techniques are applied.
- Programs to meet the needs of students and their families are developed.

There are some essential knowledge and skills for the principal in this competence, for instance:

- Developmental psychology of students.
- Applied learning theories.
- Applied motivation theories.
- Curriculum design, evaluation, and revision.
- Effective teaching principles.
- Learning evaluation techniques.
- Diversity and what it means to education programs.
- Learning models and adult professional development.
- Change process for system, organization, and individual.
- The role of technology in supporting student learning and professional growth.
- School culture.

Quantum Leadership Competence # 3: Ensuring that organizational management and operation for school resources are used to create safe, healthy, efficient, and effective learning environment.

Schools principals need to ensure that the organizational management and operation for school resources are merely used for the sake of students. They need to ensure that school physical environment is safe and healthy for students, teachers, and staff (UNESCO, 2005). There is a great deal of working performance of this third competent of school principals:

- Knowledge about teaching and learning and student learning progress is used in school management's decision-making.
- Operational procedures are used and managed to maximize opportunities for successful learning.
- New beneficial techniques are applied.
- Operation plans and procedures to achieve school vision and mission are well developed.
- School contract agreement is managed effectively.
- School building and facilities are operated safely, efficiently, and effectively.
- Time is managed effectively to achieve school goals.
- Potential issues and opportunities are identified.
- Every issue is addressed in a timely manner.

- Human resources and other resources are managed to achieve school goals.
- Organizational system is monitored and modified regularly as need be.
- Related stakeholders are involved in school-impacted decisions.
- Responsibilities are shared to maximize accountability.
- Effective problem solving skills are applied.
- Conflict solution skills are effectively applied.
- Effective working group and consensus achievement are applied.
- Safe, clean, beautiful, and joyful school environment is maintained.
- Human resources are maintained to get them functioned towards achieving school goals.
- School documents are kept confidential.

There are at least eight knowledge and skills that are required to be competent school principals for this competence.

- Organizational development principles.
- Operation procedures at school and regional levels.
- Issues and principles on safe and healthy school environment.
- Human resources management.
- Principles of school finance management.
- Principles of school facility management.
- School operation regulation.
- Up to date technology to support management functions.

Quantum Leadership Competence # 4: Collaborate with parents and community members, respond to various needs and interests, and mobilize community resources.

School principals need to be aware that school goals cannot be achieved without involving all related stakeholders, especially parents. School management is a shared attempt to share big responsibilities to be more controlled. Therefore, school principals should not give up involving all related stakeholders to move schools forward.

Contextually, collaboration school and community require a conducive school culture. Therefore school culture is the basis for interaction between all members of the school organization. This includes; values (beliefs, honesty, and transparency) and norms (regulations and behaviours that prevail and are agreed by all members of the organization). The school culture also requires common views on how students learn, how student behaviour is managed and how members of the school community - students, teachers, principal, parents and school committee - respect each other.

A positive school culture arises from good relationships between the principal and teachers, teachers and teachers, teachers and students, student and students, and between all of these groups and the school community. This becomes a school characteristic that positively influences the teaching and learning process at school. The principal has a key role in developing a positive school culture. This is done

through discussion with the teachers and school community, through modeling positive values and behaviour and by having individual discussions with teachers who show unacceptable behavior. To be competent in collaborating with parents and community members, as well as mobilizing community resources, the principal has to meet the following working performance:

- Active involvement, participation, and communication with wider community.
- Relationship with community leaders is developed.
- Information from families and community members are used.
- Relationship with business, religion, politics, and government organizations are developed.
- Different values and opinion of individuals and groups are well responded.
- Resources of schools and community members are shared.
- Community resources are secured to help schools solve problems and achieve goals.
- Partnership with business and education institutions and community groups are developed to strengthen school programs towards achieving school goals.
- Community members are treated equally.
- Diversity is acknowledged and respected.
- Effective relationship with media is developed.
- Comprehensive community relationship programs are developed.
- Public resources are used properly and wisely.
- Community collaboration is modeled for staff.
- Proper opportunities are provided for staff to develop collaboration skills.

The required knowledge and skills to be competent school principals in this fourth competence, are listed as follows:

- Issues and trends that might impact on school community.
- Various condition and dynamics of school community.
- Community resources.
- Community relations and marketing strategy and process.
- Successful model on school partnership, family, business, community, government, and higher education.

Quantum Leadership Competence # 5: Modeling actions on integrity.

School principals will be uneasy if cannot model appropriate behaviors. They need to have behavioral qualities of being reliable, consistent, committed, responsible, and emotionally controlled. These moral characters have long-term influence. School principals who only rely on their position to influence environment will only have short-term influence. Furthermore, effective principals also enrich teacher performance (Lee et al., 1991; Lee et al., 1992; Rosenholtz, 1989; Bouchamma et al., 2014)

Some working performance indicators required to be competent school principals in modeling actions on integrity are listed below:

- Personal and professional ethical codes are modeled.
- Inspiring values, beliefs, and behaviors are demonstrated.
- Positive behaviors are modeled.
- School operations are made reliable.
- The impact of managerial practices on others is considered.
- Position is used to improve education programs and not to meet personal interests.
- Other people are treated equally.
- Rights and confidentiality of staff and students are protected.
- Diversity in school community is respected.
- Authority of others is acknowledged and respected.
- Values of school community is reviewed and considered.
- Ethical behavior and integrity are highlighted.
- Required regulation and agreement are met.
- Regulation and procedures are applied equally and wisely.

In order to be competent in modeling actions on integrity, the principal has to equip with required knowledge and skills, as follows:

- Education goals and leadership roles in modern community.
- Different frameworks and perspectives on ethics.
- Various school community values.
- Ethical profession codes.
- Education philosophy and history.

Quantum Leadership Competence # 6: Understand, respond, and influence wider political, social, economic, and cultural environments.

School principals need to be aware that school life is part of a wider life environment. Life outside schools influences efforts to manage schools effectively (Schaps, 2005). Social leadership is about developing a school where teachers and the community care about and support each other. Shelton et al., (2002) argue that positive value in the organization could be influenced by leadership strategy of the leader. A successful leaders supposed to be translate the positive organisational values into transformational strategies that facilitate them to infuse their values into the fabric of the organizational culture (Cornesky et al., 1990; Peters and Austin, 1985). Considering certain systems will help them understand the school position in the wider picture. Schools are part of social sub-system that relates to political and economical systems. The key working performance required to be competent school principals:

- Best efforts to influence school operational environment for the sake of students and their families.
- Communication among school members on trends, issues, and possible changes in school operational environment.
- Ongoing dialogue with community group representatives.

- School community is functioned properly as required by local and national government policies, regulation, and law.
- Efforts to influence public policy or provide quality education.
- Communication networks with decision-makers outside school community are developed.

For this competence, the following knowledge and skills required to understand, respond, and influence wider political, social, economic, and cultural environments in order to be competent school principals:

- Principles of education bureaucracy that outlines Indonesian school system.
- General roles of education in developing and improving democratic community.
- Regulation that relates with education and schooling.
- Political, cultural and economic systems and processes that impact on schools.
- Model and strategy of change and conflict resolution as outlined in the context of school politics, social and economics.
- Global issues and factors that impact on teaching and learning process.
- Dynamics in developing and supporting policies in democratic political system.
- The importance of diversity and equality in democratic community.

6. Concluding Remarks

Essentially, school management is completing the school organizational tasks that make the school run well. On the other side, leadership is developing a school that values and improves the learning, well-being and capacity of students, teachers and the community. By viewing educational organizations from perspective of physics quantum theory, it essential to suggest new approaches into leading and managing for effective and efficient delivery of education services, in this context using of quantum leadership approach. Considering that in the changing nature of school management, as educational organizational leaders, in term of school principal shall use the quantum thinking. Through quantum leadership, they can use the paradoxical differences to create highly innovative ideas or thinking to improve the quality of their school or organization

The role of the principal swings between management and leadership and both are necessary. Good management is important for effective school operation. Good leadership improves harmony, student results and improved teaching. It is important for principals to develop and use a wide range of different styles of leadership to suite different circumstances and needs. Effective management through quantum leadership is needed to run a good school but it is not enough to produce a great school, especially in the changing nature of school management

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A Study of Attitudes of Students towards Blended Learning, Iraqi Case

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Abstract: It has been searched for years which system or method in foreign language teaching may contribute to enhance students' language acquisition. Most of these systems or methods have based on performing with an instructor in a classroom. Even though many disciplines have been acted just in classroom for ages, new methods have emerged that consolidate traditional methods by means of the evolvement in technologic areas. One of these models is "blended learning", also known as "hybrid learning", which is the combination of face to face learning and online learning in a formal program. The purpose of this study is to find out the attitudes of students that use blended learning in private secondary schools. The researcher composed a survey questionnaire and the results were analyzed based on quantitative method.

Keywords: Attitudes of Students, Blended Learning, Hybrid Learning, Face to Face Learning, Online Learning

"Education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the world."

-Nelson Mandela

1. Introduction

Human beings have gradually evolved the methods in education system according as the requirements of the present time. The rapid changes in technology have divulged the deficiencies in traditional education system; therefore, this has manipulated the educators to discover new ways to meet new necessities that have emerged in education, or not to fall beyond technologic innovations. Mostly developed countries have made quite effort to adapt their systems to the evolutions in technology and implement contemporary techniques to fulfill the needs of different types of learners. Regarding the current methods used in education offered by technology, "blended learning" is one of the remarkable modus in language teaching.

Elliot Masie claims that "people are not single-method learners!" and "we are, as a species, blended learners" (Carman, 2005, p.1). Since lack of various learning/teaching systems in past, learners likely used to tend to feel less motivated or supported in a class atmosphere or just single-type learning modus might not be sufficient to activate the students necessarily to practice what they learnt in the classroom. Due to the improvement of the learning technology year by year, instructors have embarked on new systems/methods to diversify the learning/teaching methods.

1.1 What is Blended Learning

Blended learning generally alludes to “a combination of online and face-to-face teaching” (Sharp, Benfield, Roberts, & Francis 2006 cited in Mason & Rennie, 2007, p.8). It was described as “one of the top trends to emerge in the knowledge delivery industry” by the American Society for training and Development (Graham, 2006, p.1). There are different types of definitions about “blended learning”; however, the most common three definitions were remarked by Graham, Allen, and Ure (2003). These are:

- a) “combining instructional modalities (or delivery media)”
- b) “combining instructional methods”
- c) “combining online and face-to-face instruction” (Graham, 2006, p.4)

Graham (2006) advocates the first two definitions are very broad because of the fact that they do not include virtually all learning systems and also they do not reflect the essence of blended learning properly. The last definition seems more proper since it mirrors the periods of the development of blended learning systems.

Distributed learning mostly indicates the divergence of time and space between the instructor and the learner (Mason & Rennie, 2006). When analyzing the historical development of blended learning in Graham’s study (2006), it can be apparently seen that face-to-face learning and distributed learning were entirely separate from each other since they had different means and the needs of different learners in past. Whereas face to face learning based on person-to-person interaction, distributed learning asserted “self-paced learning and learning-materials interactions” (p.5).

Whilst it was impossible to have “synchronous or high fidelity “ communication in the distributed learning because of the limitations in digital learning technologies, the rapid innovations in technology in the last half century enable the face-to-face learning elements converge distributed learning elements (Graham, 2006, p.5). It is possible to state that the level of integration of these typical learning methods will increase in future with the advancement of learning technologies.

Kim (2007) describes blended learning as “a combination of two or more of all possible learning types” and he proceeds in his study with the following:

At least one of the learning types must be a physical class-based type (regardless of whether there is a course-schedule; or whether it is formal; or whether there is face-to-face interaction outside the physical classroom), and at least one other learning type must be e-learning type (regardless of whether there is a class schedule or a course-schedule; or whether it is formal; or whether there is face-to-face interaction outside the physical classroom). This is to make sure blended learning remains a combination of some form of traditional learning and some form of eLearning (p.4).

In blended learning system, there should be classroom learning and computer-mediated learning synchronously and this type of learning includes a variety of learning kits. It is possible to state that

blended learning system integrates the high facilities of traditional learning method and the positive contributes of computer-mediated learning method.

1.2 Why Blended Learning

Reed and Singh (2001) explain blended learning as ‘linking traditional classroom training to eLearning activities’, and indicate ‘Dimensions of the Blended’ in their study. They assert that the term ‘blended’ has embodied different learning strategy aspects and blended learning may join more than one ‘dimensions’ such as ‘blended offline and online learning, blended self-paced and live, collaborative learning, blended structured and unstructured learning’ etc. Furthermore, they claim that there are more advantages of blended learning than single-type learning can supply. Some of the significant ones (p.2):

- a) ‘Improved Learning Effectiveness’: Some studies at the University of Tennessee and Stanford prove that blended learning method enhances learning outcomes because it offers the learner a better combination of the learner’s learning style and the selected learning program.
- b) ‘Extending the Reach’: While traditional learning system (face-to-face) put some constraints for the learners to reach the knowledge because of the fixed time and location, computer-based classroom enables the access to reach the knowledge for the ones who could not participate the classroom physically at a fixed time.
- c) ‘Optimizing Development Cost and Time’: Convergence of various delivery modes may enhance the learning program development and be more effective in terms of cost and time.

Different types of learners may find opportunity to attain the material in different modes with a blended delivery system and also blended learning acts as an alteration from passive to active learning (Hancock & Wong, 2012, cited in Kaur, 2013). One of the most crucial role of the instructors shall be the diversification in his/her teaching methods and avoid the students from the monotony of single-type system. Therefore, the significance of blending the different delivery modes emerges at this point.

1. 3 Purpose of the Study

In this study, K12 learners were evaluated and it was chosen a private school that apply blended learning as demo this year. In this school, students and teachers can communicate with each other in forum page. Students can find more classroom activities, ask about homework, report on projects, and take part in English discussions. Teachers to students or students to students can message within their Online Practice class. Thus, they can find opportunities to use their language skills. Their achievements are graded automatically in the online system and the instructors check their students’ progress regularly.

This study sought to find out the answers for the followings:

1. The level of students’ satisfaction with blended learning;
2. To evaluate the sufficiency of technological equipment.

2. Methodology

2.1 Design of the Study

The researcher developed a number of survey questionnaire based on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from ‘Strongly Agree-5 to Strongly Disagree-1’. The items on the questionnaire were based on the attitudes of the students towards blended learning (from specific to general), and the sufficiency of technological equipment that they have at their home.

2.2 Participants

The questionnaire was distributed to 75 students from a private secondary school randomly and 71 of the participants completed the questionnaire.

2.3 Findings and Results

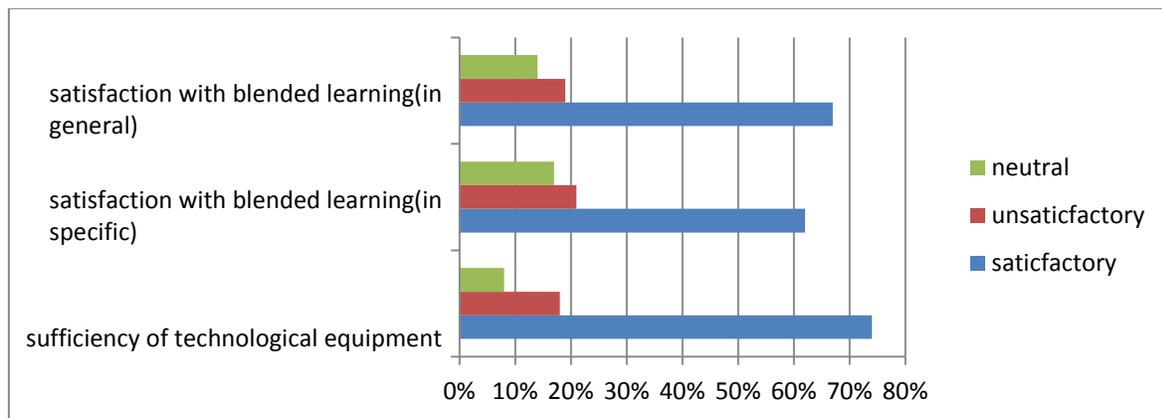


Figure 1: Percentage of the students' satisfaction with blended learning system

While % 74 of the participants indicated that they have no Internet access problem for the online courses, % 18 has revealed they have problem with Internet access, and % 8 has no idea. % 80 of them has sufficient equipment such as laptop, desktop, speaker, headphone, etc.; however, % 8 stated they have no necessary equipment, and % 12 rated neutral for this item. For online sessions, students should not have any drawbacks that hinder to access learning material; otherwise blended learning system may not perform effectively.

% 63 participants have the idea that they improved four skills (Reading, Writing, Listening, and Speaking) in English after blended system, but % 23 has neutral; % 14 is in negative side.

% 64 students claim their access and usage of information has increased due to the blended learning while % 9 is neutral and % 27 is in negative side. The numbers of students who have negative response for this item are considerable to analyze the underlying causes.

While approximately % 60 explained that they have more opportunities to reflect on what they've learned in blended courses, understand course requirements better in an blended course, and their understanding of classroom course material has increased, almost % 19 of them are hesitant, and nearly % 21 indicated negative idea. The numbers of the students who believe that they have no benefit from blended system in terms of practice what they have learnt, and comprehending the course material effectively are not inconsiderable to recheck the system's weaknesses.

Almost % 67 respondents are generally satisfied with blended learning, and they indicated they are more motivated to succeed whereas %14 is negative, and % 19 is undecided. The resulting data shows that the majority of the learners are positive to blended learning in terms of motivation and general satisfactory.

The last but not least point is the majority of the participants (%73) who are not satisfied with blended learning system consist of the students who have technological deficiencies required for this type of learning. It is possibly to indicate that if they are provided with the technological equipment necessarily, the level of satisfaction may increase.

3. Discussion and Conclusion

Satisfaction of the students in course design with blended learning may be a key factor to operate the system effectively. Therefore, the learners should accept and internalize the method that they practice. If they feel that they are supported and encouraged with a suitable course design to stimulate them to continue learning process, the majority of the learners' motivation may increase to attain the learning outcomes and they may make more efforts to get a degree. It is probably to state that the proceeding of learning process is mostly based on the learners' demand; hence, in order to provide the necessities of all learner types, the designed course with blended system should be planned in detail and checked regularly to fix the possible problems on time that may be drawbacks to perform the system efficiently. Instructors to learners/learners to instructors' inefficient interaction, instructors' poor guidance, or technological deficiencies should not be the obstacles to operate the system accurately. Referred to the students' satisfaction percentage, blended learning modus gives the learners opportunities to practice the course material in more flexible and relaxed atmosphere out of the formal class.

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Discourses of the “1965’s Bloody Coup” in Indonesian Education Historiography

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Abstract: This article examined the discourse about the 1965’s bloody coup. The study was motivated by the controversy that has long been grown in Indonesian society about who is the mastermind of the incident. The problem studied is what kind of discourse about the 1965’s bloody coup taught to high school students? The method used was discourse analysis to the content of high school history textbook from Indonesia New Order era (1966-1998) to Reformation era (1998-now). The results show that in the New Order era, history textbooks produced a discourse that Indonesia Communist Party was the antagonistic mastermind of the 1965’s bloody coup. On the other hand, the Army and Major General Soeharto were the protagonistic heroes. In Reformation era, history textbooks produced a discourse that there were many interpretations toward the mastermind of the bloody coup. But the discourse was strongly protested by interest groups outside of the school.

Keywords: Education Historiography, Textbook, Indonesia, History, Army, New Order, Communist Party

1. Introduction

One of the current events in Indonesia that suck a lot of public attention was Symposium of the tragedy of 1965. The symposium is organized by the government on April 18 to 19, 2016. The *Jakarta Post* (April 19, 2016) reported:

Survivors of the 1965 tragedy have called for reconciliation through the revelation of the truth behind the mass killing of members and sympathizers of the Indonesian Communist Party (PKI) and their families. It is believed that at least half a million people were killed...

Haryono, spokesman of Lembaga Perjuangan Rehabilitasi Korban Orde Baru, an NGO working for the rehabilitation of New Order regime victims, said many people had become victims of the 1965 killings, thus, it was important for the government to extend an apology.

The symposium had caused controversy. Some mass organizations do not agree with the measures of the government and sounding their opinions in various ways. One of the opponents is an organization calling itself as the Front Pancasila. Chairman of the Front Pancasila, Shidki Wahab, said that the symposium was to assess the tendency to revive communism and legitimize PKI as victims of human rights violations. Spokesman Front Pancasila, Alfian Tanjung, asked the government to stop or not to hold the symposium. At the end of press conference, Front Pancasila burned the flag of the Communist Party of Indonesia (*VOA Indonesia*, April 18, 2016).

A few days earlier, another opposition group broke up a meeting of victims of the 1965 tragedy. The meeting was conducted to prepare for the symposium. Islamic Defenders Front (*Front Pembela*

Islam/FPI), Pancasila Youth (*Pemuda Pancasila*) and the Police on Thursday, 14 April 2016 dissolved the preparatory meeting which was held in Bogor (*Merdeka.com* Thursday, April 14, 2016, 22:47). As a result, the victims of the 1965 tragedy that all of them have aged were forced to stay in the office of the Jakarta Legal Aid office.

Demonstrations also occurred after the 1965's Symposium Tragedy ends. The various community organizations in East Java rallied in front of the Grahadi State House, Surabaya, Thursday, April 28, 2016. They urged the government to not apologize to the victims of the 1965 tragedy. In addition, they also denied the resurrection of the ideology of communism in Indonesia (*Tempo* Thursday, April 28, 2016). The symposium and the rejection show that there are quite sharp disagreements about the tragedy of 1965 in contemporary Indonesian people. The question that arises is why the controversy happened? If we look closely, the controversy is mainly related to who was behind the tragedy of 1965. On the one hand, the victims think that they never made a mistake as alleged. On the other hand, the opponents of the symposium believed that the Indonesian Communist Party (PKI) was the mastermind behind the 1965's bloody coup.

Historically, the 1965's tragedy was a bloody coup movement that occurred on 30 September 1965, midnight or early hours of October 1. The coup could be quickly broken. At 19:15 Special Forces troops under the command of Sarwo Edhi Wibowo had managed to recapture the Radio of Republic of Indonesian (RRI) building and Center of Telecommunication building which formerly controlled by the perpetrators of the coup. On October 3, the bodies of Army leaders, the victims coup movement, can be found in the area of Lubang Buaya, south of the main base of Halim Perdana Kusuma airport.

The bloody coup of September 30 Movement became an unspeakable tragedy when Major General Soeharto, Commander of Army Strategic Reserve Command stated that PKI was the mastermind of the September 30th Movement. The accusation was followed by a ban on the PKI and its mass organizations, as well as a military operation to swept of its members and sympathizers. Military operations in order to purge members and sympathizers of the PKI was then known as the tragedy of 1965 and claimed many victims. Since January 1966, under the command of Major General Soeharto, the army carried out arrests and massacres against people accused of being members of the Communist Party. Outside number of people who were killed, many people were imprisoned without trial. To back up military operation, the Army used civil spy and mass organizations outside the PKI, such as Muhammadiyah youth, Marhaen youth, and Nahdlatul Ulama's militant youth wing that is called as *Barisan Ansor Serbaguna Nahdlatul Ulama* (Banser). They were used to get involved in sweeping out of PKI operations. The military operations were subsided in early 1967 when Major General Soeharto would be sworn in as president. According to the government version of the death toll is 80,000 people. However, according to the research of the National Commission on Human Rights, the death toll reached 500,000 up to 1.5 million people. The number was doubled when added to their family. During the New Order government (1966 - 1998), a family which it's member was classified as member and sympathizer of the PKI obtains discriminatory treatment, whether social, economic or political. New Order did not allow them to become civil servants, soldiers and police, and the various positions that

relate to governance. Even in some cases, children of PKI's member and sympathizer are also not allowed to attend school.

Allegations made by General Soeharto that the PKI was the mastermind of the bloody coup of 30 September 1965 is doubtful. Foreign historians, especially North American historians, found that the bloody coup was caused by internal competition and conflicts among the Army leaders. On the other hand, the Indonesian historians who doing research on the arrest and imprisonment victims found out that they know nothing about the bloody coup. They also never thought of treason, so it balked once accused was involved in the bloody coup of 30 September 1965. Revealing the truth and reconciliation processes undertaken by the government is a very important step in solving the human right problem in the past. Another problem that also interesting is how the bloody coup of 30 September 1965 taught to high school students. From this viewpoint, teaching the bloody coup of 30 September 1965 should on the same line with the reconciliation processes. In order to understand the teaching of a bloody coup, this study will focus on the discourse that was produced and distributed by school textbooks. The main question of this study is what kind of discourses of the bloody coup narrated that were produced on the high school history textbooks? Did the teaching of history reveal various versions of studies by historians? To answer that question, this study will examine the narratives of the bloody coup of 30 September 1965 contained in history textbooks from the New Order era until the Reformation and its influence on the views of the students.

2. Methodology

Politically, periodization of Indonesian history since the independence proclamation on 17 August 1945 is split into three periods, called the Soekarno era (1945-1965), the New Order or Soeharto era (1966-1998), and the Reformation era (1998 – now). This study examines six history textbooks. Three books were widely used in the New Order era and three books used in the Reformation era. Three books from the New Order period are (1) Notosusanto and Basri (1981/1992) *The National History of Indonesia for High School*; (2) Badrika (1997) *The National and World History for High School*; and (3) Waridah, Sukardi and Sunarto (2000) *The National and World History for High School*. Notosusanto and Basri book was first published in 1981 and reprinted in 1992. It was used as an obligatory textbook by Department of Education. The book was used by other writers as a primary source in writing history textbooks in the later period. On the other hand, Badrika (1997) is chosen because it was seen by history teachers as a good history textbook. Waridah, Sukardi, and Sunarto (2000) textbook is chosen because it was published at the end of the New Order era and still used during the transition period at the beginning of the Reformation era.

For the Reformation era, books that selected are (1) Angkasa et al., (2007) *History for High School*; (2) Tarunasena, (2009). *History for High School*; and (3) Sardiman and Lestariningsih (2014) *History of Indonesia*. Each of the three represented a national curriculum that applies in Indonesia during the Reformation era, the curriculum of 2004, 2006 and 2013. The last two books are obligatory school textbooks because Department of Education since implementing a curriculum of 2006 uses national

selection board, called *Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan* (Board of National Education Standard), to choose school textbooks that are most qualified and appropriate for Indonesian education.

It is a fact that much of our knowledge is typically constructed and reproduced by discourse (Van Dijk, 2004). History as an event had already gone and none can describe as complete as the historical event. From this point of view, history narration couldn't be treated as a reflection of the objective reality of the past event, but rather as a discourse produced by historians in accordance with their ideals (Poespoprodjo, 1987) and academic rules. More Purwanto (in Purwanto and Adam, 2005) stated that the reconstruction of history is a subjective product of a process of intellectual understanding that represented in symbols of language or narrative and changeable from time to time, from one place to another, or from one person to another.

From the view of history as a discourse, history textbook is one of the most prominent subjects that represent the existence of the discourses, especially discourses that are produced by interest group outside of the school. Borrowing view of Apple (1993), the lessons of history could be seen as a vast engine of democracy: opening horizons, ensuring mobility, and so on. But for others, the lessons of history is strikingly different. It is seen as a form of social control, or, perhaps, as the embodiment of cultural dangers, and threaten the moral universe of the students who attend them ”.

To understand the discourse production and distribution, this research is directed to examine history textbooks using discourse analysis approach formulated by van Dijk (Rosidi, 2007). In the view of van Dijk, discourse lies in the structure, because "if we want to provide a structural description of discourse, we might start by considering it as a sequence of sentences, that is, as sentences that follow each other in a specific order" (van Dijk, 1997, p. 5). Broadly speaking, discourse analysis is done through three levels of the structure, called macro structure, superstructure, and microstructure. Macro-structure refers to the overall meaning of a text. It is used to account for the various notions of global meaning, such as topic, theme, or gist (van Dijk, 1980). From this standpoint, the history textbooks to be analyzed through the use of chapter headings, sub-chapters, and a summary.

The next stage of analysis is directed to the superstructure. The superstructure is the schematic form that organizes the global meaning of a text (Dijk, 1980) which form parts of the macro structure, such as setting, arguments, and the narrative framework. Which part comes first, and which partly come later, will be regulated for the sake of discourse maker. In this study superstructure analysis is done by examining the organization of the story of the 1965's tragedy that is used by the author of history textbooks.

The third phase is the microstructure, which analyzes the discourse contained in the smallest part of a text such as words, sentences, propositions, clause, paraphrasing, and images (Eriyanto, 2005). In order to do the discourse analysis, words, sentences, propositions, clause, paraphrasing, and images contained in history textbooks are seen as a manifestation of free choice or subjective expression of its author. Through the analysis of the microstructure, we will be able to obtain information on the assumptions,

ideologies, and messages that are produced and delivered by the author of history textbooks (Crawford, 2001).

3. Findings

Textbooks issued by the government, Notosusanto and Basri (1981) opens the narration of 1965's tragedy through explaining the increase of aggressiveness of the Communist Party of Indonesia (PKI), both in national politics and in social life. It was said that "The chief calling all elements of "progressive-revolutionary force that axes to Nasakom (Nationalist, Religion, and Communist)" to raise the revolutionary offensive to the peak" (Notosusanto and Basri, 1981, p. 214). Through public meetings, press and radio campaign as well as campaign posters and propaganda boards, figures were at odds with the PKI, condemned and attacked by describing them as "village devils, town devil, capitalist-bureaucratic, counter-revolution, and Necolim (Neo-Colonialism and Neo-Imperialism) agent" who should be killed and exterminated.

In addition to describing the aggressiveness of PKI at the national political arena, Notosusanto and Basri (1981) also narrate the chaos that PKI did in public life. It's told that in many areas, members of the PKI launched one-sided actions. Their cadres incited peasant workers in order to seize land that was not their right with the land reform motto. The actions were followed by physical measures against those they consider as opponents, such as security officers, clerics in schools, and others. The victims had already fallen among the conflicting parties. The whole community anxiously asked when it would explode tension reached its climax.

The history textbook also explains the political crisis as a result of President Soekarno ill. According to a report of the medical team who were imported from China, the president was likely would die or at least paralyzed. Based on developments of the situation, Aidit (Chairman of PKI) decided to change the tactics from parliamentary democracy way to violence. The main target of violence was the Army's top leaders. Notosusanto dan Basri (1981) stated that several months before the bloody coup, the Special Bureau of PKI had launched a smear campaign that leaders of the Army formed a "Council of Generals" which would do a coup against President Sukarno. In a defamation campaign was also spoken that members of the "Council of Generals" was the American and British agent which at the time was stigmatized as "Necolim" (neo-colonialist / neo-imperialist).

The narration of the bloody coup culminated in the killing of the Army top leaders. It is said that in the early morning of 1 October 1965 the 30 September Movement/PKI began its action. The movement was led by Lieutenant Colonel Untung Sutopo, Commander of Cakrabirawa Battalion, the President's personal guards. The Army top leaders who became victims were:

1. Lieutenant General Achmad Yani (Minister /Army Commander).
2. Major General R. Suprpto (Second Deputy of Army Commander).
3. Major General Tirtodarmo Mas Haryono (Deputy III of Army Commander).
4. Major General Suwondo Parman (First Assistant of Army Commander).

5. Brigadier General Donald Izacus Panjaitan (Assistant IV of Army Commander).
6. Brigadier General Soetoyo Siswomihardjo (Inspector / Judge Advocate).
7. First Lieutenant Pierre Andreas Tendean (Adjutant of General Nasution) (Notosusanto and Basri, 1981, p. 217).

Description of the bloody coup of 1965 closed with a narration about the work of the Army under the command of Major General Soeharto to resolve the situation. The same pattern of narrative found in history textbooks for the 1984 curriculum. The difference found that Badrika (1997) made a further trace to the causes of the 1965 bloody coup. The textbook explains that since the DN Aidit was elected as Chairman of PKI in 1951, he quickly built back the strength of PKI and succeed in the 1955 general elections. In the election, PKI could be one of the four major parties in Indonesia.

In addition to searching the cause of the bloody coup, Badrika (1997) used a different perspective when explaining PKI maneuvers at the national political stage. The history textbook explained that the PKI sought to gain power through the parliament, especially in the Soekarno's guided democracy era. However, they also prepared to carry out violence way in an effort to achieve the party's goal, i.e. ruling the Republic of Indonesia state. PKI formed a special agency to secretly charge of preparing cadres in various political organizations, including the cadres in the Armed Forces: army, maritime, air force and police. PKI also tried to influence the President Soekarno to remove and eliminate political opponents. It is shown on the dissolution of the Masjumi Party (*Majelis Syura Muslimin Indonesia*, Consultative Council of Indonesian Muslims) and PSI (*Partai Sosialis Indonesia*/ Socialist Party of Indonesia) by the President, even last Murba Party (an Indonesian political party which embraces Trotskyism). In addition, PKI managed to break PNI (*Partai Nasional Indonesia*/ Indonesian National Party) into two. The efforts were taken by PKI to smuggle Ir. Surachman, a PKI leader, into the body PNI (Badrika, 1997).

Badrika also tried to differentiate from the narration of Notosusanto and Basri (1992) through bringing the PKI figure named Kamaruzaman (alias Syam). It is explained that when news about the declining of president's health spread out, DN Aidit took a decision to start a movement. The movement plan was submitted to Kamaruzaman which was appointed as the chairman of the Special Bureau of the PKI and then approved by DN Aidit. Special Bureau contacted its cadres who were members of the Armed Forces such as Brigadier General Suparjo (Army), Lieutenant Colonel Untung (Cakrabirawa), Colonel Sunardi from the Navy, Marshal Omar Dani from the Air Force, and Police Colonel Anwar (Badrika, 1997).

In describing the attempt to break 30 September Movement/ PKI, Badrika also take a different angle. It is narrated on the textbooks that the crackdown on the movement was started in the late afternoon. At 19:15 Special Forces troops under the command of Sarwo Edhi Wibowo had managed to recapture the RRI building and Center of telecommunication building that previously controlled the rebels. After RRI and Center of telecommunication controlled back, Major General Soeharto, as Army top leader made an announcement to people that on October 1, 1965, the coup had occurred and kidnapping several army

leaders. The coup was conducted by a group of contra-revolution called himself as the 30 September Movement. The coup was insurmountable. The people were encouraged to remain calm and vigilant.

Unlike the two previous books, Waridah, Sukardi and Sunarto (2000) more focused on the extermination of 30 September movement/ PKI with providing raw information. For example, the textbook informs that on Friday, October 1, 1965, respectively four news broadcasted as follows:

- a. 07.00 RRI (Radio of the Republic of Indonesia) broadcasted a news that on Thursday, September 30, 1965, in the capital of Indonesia, Jakarta had been a military movement, an army group, called the 30 September Movement. The movement was led by Lieutenant Colonel Untung Sutopo, Cakrabirawa Battalion Commander, the President's private guard. Six generals had been arrested, essential communication tools, as well as other vital objects, had been acquired by the movement. The motion addressed to the generals named Council of Generals. Commander of the 30 September Movement/PKI explained that the Indonesian Revolution Council would be set up at the national level, County Revolutionary Council, District Revolutionary Council, and village-level of Revolutionary Council.
- b. 13.00 RRI proclaimed the Decree No. 1 on the Formation of the Indonesian Revolution Council. The broadcast announced the composition of the September 30th Movement, as follows:
Commander: Brigadier General Supardjo
Deputy Commander: Lt. Col. Heru, Navy Colonel Sunardi, and Police Colonel Anwar
- c. At 19:00 RRI broadcasted a speech Commander of the Army Strategic Reserves Command (Kostrad) Major General Soeharto. He announced that the September 30th Movement was a contra-revolutionary movement that had kidnapped several high-ranking leaders of the army and had taken over state power (coup) ...
- d. On the day of October 2, 1965, RRI broadcasted announcements whose contents President as Highest Military Commander/Leader of the Indonesian Revolution Bung Karno in a fit and healthy condition, and still holds the leadership of the country and the revolution (Waridah et al., 2000, p. 55).

The big change on the narration of the 1965 tragedy occurred in 2004 curriculum, known in Indonesia as the Competency-Based Curriculum. Angkasa et al., (2007) opens narration of the bloody coup by stating that at the end of September 1965, Indonesia experienced a dark era. One political party, the PKI had been alleged a rebellion, kidnapping, and murder of the Army top leaders. The event had caused a lot of analysis and debate about the architects and other actors. In the next sentences, history textbook describes the various views about mastermind of the bloody coup of 1965. According to Asvi Warman Adam, the 30 September movement done by political conspiracies of domestic and abroad factions. Foreign interest was US interest in resisting communist forces while the domestic interest was an internal conflict of the army who want to get rid PKI from Sukarno's government. On the other hand, Sir Andrew Gillchrist, the British Ambassador of Indonesia provided analysis that 30 September movement was made to impose the communist party (PKI) through a coup against Soekarno. It would be held on October 5, 1965, and carried out by the army and the US Central Intelligence Agency (CIA). The secret plan was found out by Colonel Untung. With the approval of Aidit and Syam Kamaruzzaman, he moved ahead. However, this plan failed and became a fatal error and PKI was blamed. Different narration made

by Benedict Anderson and Ruth McVey. They found that 30 September movement was a crawling coup designed by Soeharto faction against Ahmad Yani faction in the race for the executive position to overthrow Sukarno and destroy the power of communism in Indonesia. On the other hand, state official narration stated that the 30 September 1965 movement was PKI rebellion. Then all the strength of PKI to be suppressed (Angkasa et al., 2007).

In the history textbooks of Tarunasena (2009) which was used for the 2006 Curriculum, the pattern of narration about the bloody coup of 1965 back to the New Order era. Tarunasena textbook (2009) explores the deep background of the coup by explaining maneuver of PKI members in various regions. It is explained that the PKI provoked lower classes of people such as peasants to perform a various one-sided action that causes death and material loss. It's recorded that since 1961 many of individuals and state lands were snatched by farm workers led by cadres of the PKI, such as BTI (*Barisan Tani Indonesia/Indonesian Farmer Front*), People Youth and Gerwani (*Gerakan Wanita/Women Movement*). One sided actions happened in many places, such as (a) Jengkol Incident at 15 November 1961; (b) Indramayu Incident at 18 October 1964; (c) Boyolali Incident at November 1964; (d) Kanigoro Incident at 13 January 1965; and (e) Bandar Betsy Incident at 14 May 1965. Tarunasena (2009) textbook also discusses the incursions made by PKI to the socio-political organization, such as to the Indonesian professional teachers Association (PGRI). It is said that in June 1961 PKI destroyed PGRI to be two, PGRI vaksentral which was loyal to Pancasila and PGRI nonvaksentral which was pro-PKI (p. 69).

The narration of the bloody coup seems to have become a "common knowledge" so that there is no significantly differ from the discourse that was produced and distributed in the New Order era. The similarity between textbooks for curriculum 2006 and those from in the New Order era is also found on the narration of the extermination operation against 30 September movement which was begun conducted on 1 October 1965. Tarunasena (2009) just add information that the military operation against members and sympathizers of PKI or the 30 September Movement /PKI remnant were held by Army and groups of people who still loyal to Pancasila and the Constitution of 1945. Gradually PKI actors were caught, such as Colonel Latif, Lieutenant Colonel Untung Sutopo, Dr. Subandrio, Nyono, Omar Dhani, Kamaruzaman, Sudisman, Oetomo Ramelan, Kol. Sahirman, Mayor Mulyono, and General Supardjo. The extermination operation continues from Jakarta, West Java, Central Java and East Java, then to Bali and beyond.

History textbook for the Curriculum 2013 used patterns as written by Angkasa et al., (2007) which was produced for Curriculum 2004. Sardiman and Lestariningsih (2014, p. 16-17) explains that there were at least six theories about 30 September 1965 bloody coup:

1. 30 September Movement was an internal competition and conflict in Army. The statement was stated by Ben Anderson, W.F.Wertheim, and Coen Hotsapel. From this viewpoint, 30 September movement was just an incident that arises due to internal problems of Army themselves. The statement based on information that comes from Lieutenant Colonel Untung, leader of the 30 September Movement, He said that many Army leaders luxuriated in live and enriching themselves so that defames to Army

institution. Such opinion was in fact contrary to the reality. General Nasution for example. He was Commander of the Army and his life was a simple.

2. Mastermind the 30 September Movement was the United States Intelligence Agency (CIA). This theory comes from the historical writings of Peter Dale Scott and Geoffrey Robinson. According to this theory, the US was very worried about Indonesia fell to the Communists. PKI at the time was indeed the strongest in ensuring influence to Indonesia. The CIA then worked together with a group of Indonesian Army to provoke PKI to conduct a coup movement. After that, PKI was destroyed. The final goal of this scenario was that the CIA overthrow of Sukarno.
3. The 30 September Movement was a fusion of the interests of the UK and the US. According to this theory, the 30 September Movement was the meeting point between the desire of the British who wanted to Soekarno confrontational attitude towards Malaysia could be ended through the overthrow of Sukarno. On the other hand, the US desired to be freed Indonesia from communism. At that time, Sukarno was being an intensively provocation to attack Malaysia which was saying as British puppet state. The theory is designed by Greg Poulgrain.
4. Soekarno was the mastermind behind the 30 September Movement. The theory is stated by Anthony Dake and John Hughes based on the assumption that the Soekarno intended to eliminate the opposition forces that against him, especially the most senior Army officers. Because PKI close to Soekarno, this party was dragged on the Soekarno's scenario. The foundation of the theory came from the testimony of Shri Biju Patnaik, an Indian pilot who became a friend of many Indonesian officials since the revolution. He said that on 30 September 1965 midnight Soekarno asked him to leave Jakarta before dawn. According to Patnaik, Sukarno said, "After that, I'll close the airport". Here Soekarno seemed to know that there would be "a major event" in the next day. But this theory was weakened by the action Sukarno later who refused to support the 30 September movement. Even on October 6, 1965, in Dwikora Cabinet meeting in Bogor, he condemned the movement.
5. No single actor and a great scenario in the 30 September Movement (chaos theory). John D. Legge stated that there was no single mastermind and no great scenario in the G-30. This incident was only the result of the fusion between, as it was called by Sukarno: "elements of Nekolim (Western countries), as well as PKI leaders who were misguided, and elements of the military institution who were not on the track". Everything broke out improvisationally in the field.
6. PKI is the mastermind of the 30 September Movement. According to this theory, PKI leaders were responsible for the bloody coup through manipulating elements of the army. The theory based on series of events and actions that had been launched by PKI from 1959 to 1965. Another fact showed that after the 30 September movement, some violence resistances carried out by a group of people which was calling themselves as the Central Committee. The violence resistances occurred in South Blitar, Grobogan, and Klaten. The theory is developed by Nugroho Notosusanto and Ismail Saleh. It was the most common theory about the coup on 30 September 1965 in Indonesia, especially in the New Order period.

Although using narrative patterns of Angkasa et al. (2007), Sardiman and Lestariningsih (2014) did not completely abandon the narrative patterns of the New Order era, especially on the explanation of the bloody coup processes and its extermination operation. On the national stage, the textbook explains that

the President Soekarno tried to be a mediation force between two major political groups competing: Amy and PKI.

Sardiman and Lestariningsih (2014) also discusses the one-sided action undertaken by PKI with members of mass supportive organizations. The textbook explains that the one-sided actions were forcefully expropriation attempts to the lands which were belong to established social classes in the village. They reject the old profit-sharing system. PKI used the term "Seven Village Devils" to refer social classes considered as enemies, called evil landlords, usurers, debt bondage persons, bad agrarian brokers, capitalistic village bureaucrat, bad village officials and village bandits. Even the textbook also explains the one-sided actions that occurred in many places, such as Mantingan incident. In the moment, PKI forcibly took Pondok Modern Gontor's 160 hectares waqf land. The action caused the anger of Islamists. Moreover, four months before BTI (*Barisan Tani Indonesia/ Indonesian Farmer Front*) had disrupted mental participants of Indonesian Islamic Student Training and they entering a mosque without removing their muddy footwear.

4. Discussion

Textbooks used in the New Order era produced a very powerful discourse that the mastermind of the 1965 coup was the Communist Party of Indonesia (PKI). The discourse could clearly be seen at words that used in the title chosen by the author of the textbook. Notosusanto and Basri (1981/1992) as the official textbook used the title of sub-chapter "The betrayal of 30 September movement/PKI", Badrika (1997) chosen the title "The betrayal of the 30 September Movement/PKI (G 30 S/PKI) and its extermination". Parallel to that, Waridah et al., (2000), entitled "The Crushing of 30 September Movement/PKI".

Discourse production that positioning the PKI as an antagonist actor in the story of 1965's bloody coup was strengthened by narration about its attitude shown before 1965. The cunning and bad attitude of PKI is clearly narrated on the textbooks. Notosusanto and Basri (1981) stated that the PKI had to try to achieve their political goals through (1) Interior: PKI tried hard to divide or infiltrate into political parties, mass organizations and other institutions deemed opponent. In the field of education, PKI sought to include Marxism as one of the compulsory subjects. In the field of the military, PKI was trying to indoctrinate its leader with communism and build cells in the body of military; (2) Overseas: tried to deflect Indonesian foreign policy from independent and active foreign policy to became communist bloc. The textbook tried to convince students as the audience that the PKI is not suitable for Indonesia because the internationalist and anti-religious character of communism (Notosusanto & Basri, 1981). Even Badrika (1997) stated that the PKI made Pancasila as only an empty slogan. On the other hand, PKI was also described as the party that had a bad faith, because, at the beginning of 1964, it was found a document about the battle plan of PKI. On the document is written that PKI also had a plan to seize power. PKI tried to seize the state power and furthermore replaced Pancasila with Marxism-Leninism (Notosusanto & Basri, 1981).

Negation is also done by history textbooks against President Soekarno. It was said that the President protected the PKI (Notosusanto & Basri, 1981) and under the influence of the PKI (Badrika, 1997). Consequently, other political parties and Armed Forces could not prosecute the crimes of PKI openly. Through the protection of President Sukarno, PKI, and its mass organizations could safely intimidate and terror against other political parties and figures that considered opponents by saying anyone who opposed Nasakom as anti-PKI, "contra-revolution" and anti-Bung Karno (Notosusanto and Basri, 1981).

In a binary opposition, history textbooks in the Indonesia New Order era made National Army as the protagonist actor. The textbooks portray the military as "the only socio-political force that was organized, who was capable of obstructing the PKI in its efforts to tear down Pancasila" (Notosusanto and Basri, 1981, p. 203). Through the statement, the textbook put the military as the only organized force that guard Pancasila and able to be a tough opponent for PKI. TNI (*Tentara Nasional Indonesia/ The Indonesian Armed Forces*) is also described as a target of the PKI maneuvers. Narrated on the textbook that in many places often occurred that PKI attacked TNI and police officers, as happened in Bandar Betsy (East Sumatra), Boyolali (Central of Java) and Jengkol (East Java). It turned out that the TNI and the police did not back down even though it has fallen victims from among its members such as Auxiliary Lieutenant Sudjono (Notosusanto & Basri, 1981). In fact, before the bloody coup of 1965 occurred, TNI was vilified by PKI. It was rumored that the Army establishing Council Generals which would carry out a coup against President Soekarno and they also said that members of the Council Generals were the agent of Nekolim (USA/UK) (Badrika, 1997).

In addition, to making the military as the protagonist figure, the textbooks of history also create a figure of the Army as a savior hero of the country. The hero name is Major General Soeharto, Commander of *Kostrad (Komando Strategis Angkatan Darat/Army Strategic Reserve Command)*. It was said that after receiving reports about the kidnapping of highest leaders of the Army, he immediately took steps to restore government authority in the capital. Because of the Army leadership became victims of the bloody coup, Major General Soeharto decided to hold the Army leadership temporarily. In order to make the takeover of command is seen as feasible and appropriate, the textbook of history informed that "The move was also in line with the procedural rules, that if the Army commander is absent, then that should represent it is the most senior commander i.e. commander of Kostrad" (Notosusanto & Basri, 1981, p. 218).

The greatness of Major General Soeharto was described as a figure who capable of overcoming the bloody coup trial quickly and without causing many casualties. Textbooks of history in the New Order era narrated that in a short time the betrayal of 30 September movement/PKI was successfully broken, thanks to the loyalty of the people and the Armed Forces who loyal to Pancasila. In the New Order era, Soeharto's success in crushing the rebellion of 30 September movement/ PKI was celebrated annually on October 1 as the Victory Day of Pancasila.

The discourses which were produced through the textbooks of history to negate PKI and President Soekarno as an antagonist figures and the Army as the protagonist figure are not an exclusive claim. The production process of discourse is closely related to the decision the Army Seminar held in Bandung in

1972. The Seminar recommended compiling the history of the military role in Indonesian history, particularly the Army, using various media, such as museums, biography, and film. In 1984, with government sponsorship, Arifin C. Noer managed to make a film docudrama entitled Treachery of 30 September Movement. The film tells the bloody coup of 1965 version of the Army, so the discourse of production was equal to textbooks of history. In the New Order era, the film was screened on national television every 1st of October. Roosa (2006) responded to the massive production of anti-PKI discourse in the New Order era by stating that “under Soeharto anti-communism became the state religion, complete with sacred sites, rituals, and dates. Soeharto's officers turned the site of the murder of the seven army officers in Jakarta on October 1, 1965, Lubang Buaya (Crocodile Hole), into hallowed ground” (p. 7-8).

The production and distribution of discourse that puts communism as a latent threat to Indonesia, both in the classroom and outside of school, will lead the students as the audiences to absorb the discourse as the final truth. In a survey conducted by Tempo magazine in the year of 2000 to 1,110 students found that 97% of respondents that current students had seen the film the Betrayal of 30 September Movement/PKI by Arifin C. Noer. In fact, nearly 40% of respondents Tempo watched more than three times (Rofalina, 2015). Through consuming the medias, ideas and beliefs of students will be affected by the anti-communist discourse produced by New Order. Moreover, until the mid-1990s this official version had been the only account that Indonesians were allowed to mention (Heryanto, 2006). From this viewpoint, it is not surprising that students who were educated in the New Order era or has a close relationship with the Army, shown an anti-communism attitude, as they had shown on the rejection of the symposium of the 1965 tragedy that just took place.

Although the New Order regime had collapsed in 1998, changes in the discourse about the 1965 bloody coup on the history textbooks can not happen soon. It shows that the power of the New Order is still quite strong in the early days of the Reformation. The new textbook of history for the 2004 curriculum change the discourse essentially. At least two aspects of the change that happened. The first is the mention of the bloody coup of 1965 is no longer the G30S / PKI, but only G 30 S. The change shows that PKI is no longer seen as the mastermind behind the bloody coup of 1965. Second, the textbook featuring many interpretations of the bloody coup of 1965, so that students are no longer only obtain a single perspective.

The change in the discourse about the bloody coup of 1965 made controversy spread out. Although from academic and educative viewpoint there is no crucial problem, the change turned out to be very sensitive in terms of politics. Interest groups who believe in the history of the New Order version asked the government that textbooks of history for secondary and high schools that no longer mention PKI as the mastermind behind the bloody coup of 1965 was withdrawn from circulation. Utami (2014) noted that in 2005 some Islamic figures such as Yusuf Hasyim, Taufiq Ismail, and Fadli Zon came to the House of Representative and questioned why in the 2004 curriculum there was no narration about the PKI rebellion in 1965. In the meeting between the Parliament and the Minister of Education, a number of members of X Commission questioned the 1965 bloody coup on textbooks of history which was without mentioning the involvement of the PKI (<http://news.detik.com/> dated June 27, 2005). The controversy

culminated in the withdrawal and ban of history textbooks for 2004 secondary and high school curriculum. The withdrawal and prohibition legally contained in the Letter of Attorney General Decision No. Kep-019 / A / JA / 03/2007 dated March 5, 2007. As a consequence of the decision, the subjects of history backed to the 1994 curriculum.

Trauma to the controversy caused by the removal of the word PKI behind the September 30th Movement, the textbooks of history for the 2006 curriculum mention back that PKI was the mastermind of the bloody coup of 1965. The interesting phenomenon occurred in curriculum implementation 2013. In sub-section title, the textbook of history uses patterns of the New Order, which is "30 September Movement (G30S / PKI)". However, in the explanation, the textbook uses the narrative patterns of the 2004 curriculum.

Prominent discourse produced by the textbooks of history for the 2013 curriculum is that the President tried to be a mediating force between the two major groups of political rivalry which was irreconcilable at that time: the Army and PKI (Sardiman & Lestariningsih, 2014). Narrative produced on history textbooks for the curriculum in 2013 is a counter discourse that produced by the New Order which positioning President Soekarno as the protector of PKI.

5. Conclusion

The political changes from the New Order to Reformation brought profound influence on the production and distribution of discourse about the bloody coup of 1965. In the New Order period, the discourse which was produced and distributed through the textbooks of history was the Army version. It was understandable because the core strength of the New Order was the Army and President Soeharto himself was an Army general. Discourse on the bloody tragedy in 1965 which produced by New Order is that the PKI was the mastermind of the September 30th Movement and President Soekarno protected the PKI. Discourse can be understood from the perspective of power. The bloody tragedy was a political ladder for Soeharto to move from the commander of Kostrad to the President of the Republic of Indonesia. In other words, the bloody tragedy was used as a legitimacy tool for General Soeharto when he became president. So that the Army and General Soeharto were seen as heroes, and in a binary opposition, PKI and Sukarno positioned as the bad guys. Villainization of PKI reinforced by the production of discourse that put it as a latent danger for Indonesia.

When the New Order collapsed in 1998, various discourses of the 1965 tragedy come to the fore and are largely different from the version of the Army. In order to accommodate the growing aspirations in society, the education department launched a new curriculum in 2004 and formalized in 2006. The textbook of history also shown the changes of discourse. The historical narrative is positioned as interpretations of historians. It is different from New Order period who puts historical narrative as the final truth. However, the interest groups supporting the New Order was still too strong, so the narrative patterns of the 2004 curriculum wither before it develops.

The unique solution pursued by history textbooks for the curriculum of 2013. Although the title is still positioning PKI as the mastermind behind the bloody coup of 1965, but the narration of history textbook describes various versions developed among historians. From this standpoint, the textbook of history producing discourse that the PKI was not the mastermind of the bloody coup of 1965. Until this paper was written, there is no opposition to the narrative model used by the textbooks of the history for curriculum 2013, so it can be summed up that the model is acceptable.

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Making the Student Learning Experience Fun, Memorable and Effective: A Case of Entrepreneurship Students

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Abstract: The goal of every passionate educator is to ensure that his or her students adopt a deep learning approach to the material being taught so that they can apply these concepts in their lives beyond the classroom. This is particularly true for entrepreneurship students who are expected to establish their own businesses after graduating from university. In order to achieve this very important objective, it is vital that the educator does everything in his or her power to ensure that the students' learning experiences are made as enjoyable and as memorable as possible. This paper presents the achievement of this objective amongst a group of entrepreneurship students in Nigeria through the introduction of a team learning competition concept in an Organizational Behaviour course over two years. Students were required to form same-gender groups of five and establish companies. Each group was then required to make thirty-minute oral presentations explaining their company's organizational culture and the strategies adopted to ensure that the culture permeated every aspect of the business. The team with the best presentation was awarded a monetary prize at the end of the semester. Observations of the students' behaviours before, during and after the presentations revealed that the students' engagement in the course was exponentially enhanced as evidenced by their unbridled enthusiasm and creative approaches to the presentations. It is recommended that entrepreneurship and business educators adopt a similar approach so as to elevate the students' learning experiences, and make the university career a fun, memorable and effective one as opposed to the current tortuous grind that it is now, particularly from a Nigerian context.

Keywords: Team learning, Competition, Entrepreneurship Education, Learning Experience, Deep Learning

1. Introduction

For me, being an educator is much more than a job, it is a calling. I am deeply passionate about making my students better, and I firmly believe that a pivotal component of being an educator is to develop students' creativity and critical thinking abilities by making the learning experience an enjoyable and memorable one. The reality is that the default teaching method in most Nigerian universities is far from enjoyable and memorable; it is merely a grind which students suffer through on their way to earning a degree. The usual style is as follows: the lecturer gives the students notes that include textbook definitions of key concepts and textbook applications of these concepts. Students take down these notes, and ensure that they memorize the content. Tests and examinations are then given to ascertain how well the students have memorized the notes, and the students who are best able to regurgitate the content of the notes do well. I experienced this style of teaching as an undergraduate student in a Nigerian

university, and discussions with my colleagues and some of my students revealed that they also experienced this uninspiring style of learning.

When I became an entrepreneurship educator, I knew I had to change this default teaching style and adopt a new style of teaching that would make learning fun and exciting. To achieve this objective, I adopted a team learning concept set in a competition format for students enrolled in an Organizational Behaviour course. Firstly, I instigated a battle of the sexes by pitting the male students against the female students based on the notion that “whatever a man can do, a woman can do it better”. Secondly, students were required to form same-gender groups of five, and form companies. These companies would make oral presentations during the course of the semester explaining their organizational culture and the steps they had taken to ensure that this culture was embodied in every aspect of their business operations. The company with the best presentation would win a monetary prize at the end of the semester. I applied this concept for two sets of students over two years, and the results were spectacular. I was very impressed at how putting these students in a competitive team format seemed to unlock their creativity and enthusiasm towards the course, with each team coming up with ingenious presentations in a bid to outdo one another. Additionally, the battle of the sexes format proved quite enjoyable to the students with the males trying their best to prove that they were just as good as their female counterparts, and vice versa. This paper presents a comprehensive description of this format and specific examples of how students’ creativity and critical thinking abilities were unleashed. It is hoped that this paper will inspire other passionate educators to adopt a similar method of teaching so as to enhance student engagement in their courses and make the learning experience one to remember.

The rest of the paper proceeds as follows: First a literature review is presented discussing the various ways in which entrepreneurship and business educators have sought to enhance students’ learning experiences. Second, a comprehensive description of the team learning competition concept I adopted is provided, along with specific examples of students’ responses to this method, and then the paper ends with a conclusion.

2. Literature Review

The ultimate objective for making entrepreneurship students’ learning experiences fun, memorable and effective is to ensure that they are able to understand the key concepts of entrepreneurship and business that are contained in the curriculum, and that they are able to translate this understanding into practical applications in the real world. In other words, it is essential that these students adopt a deep learning approach to their entrepreneurship education. This section of the paper presents various suggestions made by scholars from the management sciences (accounting, business, economics, entrepreneurship, marketing and management) on how to achieve this ultimate objective.

Boyce et al., (2001) posited that educators must play the role of *facilitator* wherein students are allowed to drive the learning process. The educator makes clear to the students the general objectives and learning outcomes of the course, and assists them as they pursue various avenues to achieve the stated outcomes. Sayles (2006) agreed that educators must adopt strategies that make students drive the learning process, thus becoming active learners; learning thus becomes a discovery process for the students. An example of such a strategy is getting the students to keep *learning journals* which have been empirically proven to enable students to engage in deeper approaches to learning.

Turner (2011) utilized a combination of course delivery and assessment interventions to successfully promote deep learning amongst 81 third-year accounting students in a New Zealand University. The first intervention involved the educator acting as a facilitator to encourage the students to drive the learning process, and reach important conclusions about the real world implications of accounting concepts learnt in class. Interviews of these students and a content analysis of their learning journals revealed the effectiveness of the interventions in fostering deep learning. The second intervention involved group work, and the third intervention was an assessment intervention which is discussed in the next section.

The use of *group work* as a means of fostering deep learning was a second, and arguably the most popular, teaching strategy identified in the review of deep learning scholarship (Boyce et al., 2001; Kates, 2002; Hall et al., 2004; Yong & Lew, 2005; Sayles, 2006; Borredon et al., 2011; Turner, 2011; Schonell & Hanson, 2013). Kates (2002) sought to assess the impact of student marketing teams on improving deep learning amongst these students. She adopted a qualitative approach by interviewing six students that were members of different marketing teams; students were each interviewed for one hour. The interviews revealed that there are two obstacles that might limit the ability of students to engage in deep learning whilst in a group: 1) there was a struggle for control amongst members of the group, with some members dominating discussions and determining the direction the group should follow. This led other group members to feel uninvolved, and this feeling discouraged them from really seeking to understand the concepts in the course; 2) there was a free-rider problem whereby some group members contributed little value to the group, content with allowing others to do the bulk of the work. The hardworking members of the group found it difficult to confront this free-riders about their attitude. The free riders did not engage in deep learning, whilst the other group members felt taken advantage of. Kates (2002) recommended that educators can mitigate these problems of group work by educating the students about how to resolve conflicts in group situations at the very start of the course session. Additionally, educators can use humorous “ice-breaking” and “bonding” sessions at the start of the semester so that feelings of rapport can be developed among group members which will help facilitate a more harmonious working relationship which in turn will lead to students adopting a deep approach to learning. Yong and Lew (2005) also advocated the use of group activities to facilitate deep learning amongst marketing students; specifically, regarding Malaysian students.

Hall et al., (2004) validated the efficacy of group work in fostering deep learning amongst accounting students in a longitudinal study of 292 first-year accounting students in an Australian university. The students’ approaches to learning were measured using Biggs (1987) Study Process Questionnaire (SPQ) before the start of the course. During the semester, a predominantly group approach was adopted by the authors in delivering the course content, and at the end of the semester, the SPQ was again used to measure the students’ approaches to learning. A comparison of the pre-test and post-test scores revealed that there was a small but significant increase in deep learning amongst the students, and a small but significant decrease in surface learning.

Borredon et al., (2011) presented a case study of a French Business School where group work was utilized to engender deep learning amongst the students. Every student was required to joining a “learning team” made up of twelve students upon enrollment, and this team worked together until they graduated. Each team was facilitated and managed by a lecturer called the “learning manager”. Similar to Sayles’ (2006) New Zealand study, students in the learning team were required to record their

experiences of working together in learning journals. The learning manager encouraged the learning team to engage in constructive debates and discussion about their management paradigms, skills and decision-making processes. A content analysis of some of these learning journals, as well as interviews with some learning team members led the authors to conclude that the use of learning teams provided the students the opportunity to truly engage with the course material and to connect them with their day-to-day experiences; in other words, learning teams fosters deep learning amongst management students.

Dupernex et al., (2013) sought to ascertain the efficacy of a group-based case study workshop approach on fostering deep learning amongst UK first-year entrepreneurship students as compared to a traditional lecture approach. A revised version of the SPQ (Biggs et al., 2001) was used to determine the learning approaches of two groups of these students before the start of the intervention. Afterwards the experimental group went through a semester whereby the case study workshop approach was implemented, whilst the second group were taught using a lecture approach. At the end of the semester, the SPQ was used to measure their approaches to learning. A comparison of pre-intervention and post-intervention deep learning scores showed that those students in the group case study workshop had increased their deep learning scores significantly more than those students who received the traditional lecture.

Schonell and Hanson (2013) advocated the use of “*break-out*” rooms and a large white board as a means of maximizing the impact of group-work amongst management students in order to engender deep learning. Break-out rooms are simply large classrooms that allow students to form into groups and still maintain a “good social distance” (Schonell & Hanson, 2013, p.2). Four groups were formed and assigned a management strategy case study to understand and resolve. Some interesting findings were identified at the end of the program: 1) The group that used the white board performed the best in resolving the case study. Although it is a simple tool, it allowed them to actively put down different ideas and to discuss these ideas. 2) The space of the room matters: when groups have enough space, it enables them to feel free to animatedly discuss issues amongst themselves without fear of disrupting the work of other groups. These discussions encourage the students to develop deeper understanding of the concepts and how they can be applied to resolve real-world problems.

A third course delivery strategy identified in this review to foster deep learning is the **Case Challenge** strategy (Jayashree & Mitra, 2012). This strategy pits two groups of students in a head-to-head competition to resolve a case. Jayashree and Mitra (2012) utilized this method amongst management students at the Dubai campus of an Australian university. Structured interviews of the students revealed that the Case Challenge strategy encouraged them to increase their level of preparation and understanding of the key concepts needed to resolve the case due to the competitive nature of the Case Challenge.

The use of *in-class simulations* was a fourth deep-learning promoting teaching strategy identified in this review (Phillips & Graeff, 2014). Phillips and Graeff (2014) revealed that years of teaching experience had shown that students tended to find their first accounting class difficult to understand due to the new accounting terms and language they had to learn. To address this difficulty and foster deep learning of these concepts amongst these first-year students, the authors utilized an in-class simulation exercise whereby the students were involved in buying and selling of different merchandise and recording these transactions using the concepts learnt in class. By utilizing these abstract concepts in real-world

transactions, it enabled the students to understand and experience the practical benefits of these concepts which thus helped build their confidence, improve their attitude towards accounting, and enabled them to adopt a deeper approach to learning accounting principles.

Of particular importance to this paper is the fact that group work (Boyce et al., 2001; Kates, 2002; Hall et al., 2004; Yong & Lew, 2005; Sayles, 2006; Borredon et al., 2011; Turner, 2011; Schonell & Hanson, 2013) and the adoption of a competition format (Jayashree & Mitra, 2012) have been found to be effective in enhancing students' deep approach to learning.

3. Team Learning Competition Concept

3.1 Description and Application of Concept

The concept was introduced in an Organizational Behaviour course offered by the Department of Entrepreneurship and Business Studies at the Federal University of Technology Minna, Nigeria. The first three weeks of the semester were spent teaching the students about the key concepts of organizational behaviour, with special emphasis laid on the importance of identifying and developing an organizational culture built on universal principles such as trustworthiness, integrity, justice and transparency. Students were also taught the importance of ensuring that the organizational culture was diffused into every aspect of the business process.

Students were then asked to form same-gender groups of five in order to settle the notion once and for all on whether what men could do, women could do better. This was done in a humorous manner and drew a lot of friendly banter between the male and female students with each category vowing to show that they could do the best. Each group was required to form a company, with each group member taking a key position within the company: CEO, Vice president marketing, Vice president Operations, Vice president human resource management and Vice president Customer relations. Each group was required to agree upon an organization culture they wished to foster within the company, and come up with a coherent strategy with which the culture would be developed and successfully diffused within all aspects of the company. Each group were then required to make half-hour oral presentations of this strategy, with all five members participating in the presentations.

To add an element of realism to the assignment, each group was also required to register their company with a faux "Corporate Affairs Commission" (CAC), which real companies have to do in Nigeria. They paid a token registration fee, and submitted the required documents listing the key officials of the company with passport photographs to boot, and received a receipt from the "CAC". The total amount of fees received served as the winning price for the company with the best presentation at the end of the semester. In order to fairly determine the order of presentations, all company names were put in a pot, and drawn randomly. To address the issue of free-riders that is often associated with group assessments, each member of the group was assessed on his or her individual portion of the presentation, although there was a portion of the total grade allocated to synergy within the group in their presentation. At the end of each group's presentation, their overall score as a group was announced to the class and this enabled the groups to know which company was leading the competition at any given time, and the amount of work necessary to challenge or topple the current leaders in the competition. During the last

class of the semester, the winning group was presented with the monetary prize to much fanfare and applause.

3.2 Assessing the Impact of Concept on Student Engagement

An important question to ask is whether or not the team learning competition concept achieved its desired objective of increasing student engagement in the course and making the learning experience a fun and memorable one. Critical observations of the students' behaviours before, during and after the presentations provided credible evidence that the answer to the question was a resounding YES. The subsequent paragraphs provides specific instances of some of these observations.

Before the presentations started, several groups came to consult with me brimming with enthusiasm and creative and ingenuous ideas regarding their planned presentations. One group wondered if they could utilize audio and visual aids during their presentation, while another group wanted to play a short video to enhance their presentation. Yet another group wondered if they could all wear the same outfit in order to symbolize an essential component of their organizational culture which was unity. Another group wanted to find out if they could all present at once, rather than one by one, so as to highlight how collaborative they could be as a company. The ideas came in droves, some good and some not as good, but the creative juices were definitely flowing amongst these students, and it was a wonderful experience for me as an educator to witness such enthusiasm.

During the presentations, a lot of these groups were able to execute their ideas wonderfully well, with each group doing its best to outdo the previous one in style and clarity of presentation as well as in the use of audio and visual aids to enhance their presentations. In the first year, a men's team won the competition by a narrow margin against a female team. During the second year of implementing this method, one group actually hired the CEO of the winning company from the year before as a consultant. They signed a contract wherein he was entitled to 60% of the winnings if his consultation led them to victory. They brought the contract to my office for me to serve as a witness, and they went on to deliver an excellent presentation. One might wonder, did the consultation pay off and lead them to victory? They came real close, and actually finished second overall, missing out on first place by one point; this time a women's team won, much to the delight of the female students as their seniors had told them about the victory of the men a year before, and had urged them to gain revenge for all womenfolk. The CEO consultant actually visited me in the office at the end of the semester to reminisce with me on his previous plans on what to do with his share of the winnings as he had been supremely confident that his clients would win.

After the presentations, several students visited me to ask if I would adopt a similar format in other courses I would be taking with them as they progressed through their academic career at the department. Some of these students wanted to improve upon their performances in these other courses, and asked for suggestions on what to do in order to make a better showing next time around. Some others actually suggested that rather than only one team taking the entire prize money, perhaps there should be a first, second and third team, with first taking 50% of the prize money, second taking 30% and third taking 20%. They argued that this would further motivate them to perform better as there were three opportunities to win something. I actually agree with their suggestion, and I look forward to implementing this strategy in future courses. The CEO consultant described in the preceding paragraph

actually went a step further. He had gained so much confidence due to his group's winning presentation and the recognition of his fellow students of his presentation skills, that he went out into the real world and pitched a company his idea for a video-game competition amongst students, asking the company to sponsor the competition as a marketing strategy. To his surprise, the company were so impressed by his pitch that they agreed to his proposal, and he actually successfully implemented the competition.

What can clearly be observed from the students behaviours described in the preceding paragraphs was that the team learning competition concept truly enhanced their enthusiasm and triggered their creativity for the course. It made the learning experience fun, memorable and one to look forward to, as evidenced by the fact that the first set of students had shared their experience with the second set of students urging them to do them proud.

4. Conclusion

The goal of education is to make students identify potential they never knew they possessed and to equip them with the tools necessary to fulfil this potential. The job of an educator is thus a sacred one, and it is the noble task of every educator to do everything in his or her power to enable students to become better in every way possible. To achieve this objective, it is imperative that the educator make the students' learning experiences fun, memorable and effective. This was my objective in introducing and implementing a team learning competition concept in an Organizational Behaviour course offered at the Department of Entrepreneurship and Business Studies located at the Federal University of Technology Minna. Two years of implementing this concept revealed that it successfully engaged the students in the course as evidenced by their unbridled enthusiasm and succession of creative and ingenuous presentation styles. Even after the conclusion of the course, the learning experience remained etched positively in their minds, and actually had real-world consequences in their lives as described in the body of this paper. I call on my fellow educators to adopt a similar strategy in their courses so as to enhance the student learning experience and make the university journey an enjoyable, memorable and life-changing one instead of the current torturous grind that it currently is, especially in the Nigerian context.

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Gould and Brown (1991) explained that Darwin used the metaphor of the tree of life "to express the other form of interconnectedness—genealogical rather than ecological" (p. 14).