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INDONESIAN EFL TEACHER PROFESSIONALISM: A CASE STUDY IN
SALATIGA MUNICIPALITY

Grace Ika Yuwono

A thesis submitted to the University of Sydney in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Faculty of Education and Social Work
The University of Sydney
August 2008
DECLARATION

This is to certify that:

I. this thesis comprises only my original work towards the Doctor of Philosophy Degree in education

II. due acknowledgment has been made in the text to all other material used

III. the thesis does not exceed the word length for this degree

IV. no part of this work has been used for the award of another degree

V. this thesis meets the University of Sydney's Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) requirements for the conduct of research.

Signature:

Name: Grace Ika Yuwono

Date: August 31, 2008
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ABSTRACT

Indonesian EFL teacher professionalism: A case study in Salatiga Municipality

Grace Ika Yuwono

This thesis examines the notions of professionalism of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teacher in one case in one Indonesian town of Salatiga (Salatiga Municipality) from the perspectives of local educational actors, mainly English teachers and school principals. Perspectives from other stakeholders, such as personnel from the Indonesian Teachers' Association and The Local Education Office, particularly in relation to their support in enhancing EFL teacher professionalism, are also discussed in this thesis. The thesis also investigates how Indonesian EFL teachers construct and perceive the notions of ‘teaching profession’ and ‘professionalism’ in relation to the recent mandated change in teacher professionalism, competence, and certification – a change which was stipulated in Indonesian National Law number 14 and was released in December 2005. In addition, the thesis elaborates issues surrounding professional development programs for EFL teachers, which are usually conducted or organised by one local university in the Municipality and The Local Education Office.

To understand how EFL teachers and other related stakeholders in Salatiga construct and define professionalism, what support is available for those teachers in attempting to be ‘professional’, the nature of professional learning available for EFL teachers, and the extent to which Law 14/2005 is understood and implemented, a case study approach was used. The methods of data collection employed include in-depth
interviews and document analysis. The fieldwork of this study was undertaken in Salatiga in early 2007, in which the researcher visited seventeen schools and interviewed forty-six English teachers, seventeen principals, six university staff members, a representative from the Teachers’ Association, and a key figure from the Local Education Office. Literature in teaching profession and teacher professionalism, as well as literature reviewing the conditions of education and the teaching force in Indonesia, frame the current study.

The findings suggest that Indonesian EFL teacher professionalism in today’s education cannot be separated from the nation’s fragile education system and teaching force; dimensions of teacher professionalism as proposed by professionalism scholars are often missing or lacking for Indonesian teachers. It was found that educational actors at the grassroots level often became victims of frequent policy changes and reforms in education. Those changes influence how teachers perceive their professionalism. To address the issues of enhancing teacher professionalism in Salatiga Municipality, it is suggested in the thesis that educational stakeholders in the region should have a shared meaning of professionalism and should collaborate and trust each other.
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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

1.1. Overview of the study

This study investigates the nature of Indonesian teachers’ professionalism. In particular, it also examines how Indonesian English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers construct and perceive the notions of ‘teaching profession’ and ‘professionalism’ in relation to the recent mandated change in teacher professionalism, competence and certification – a change which was stipulated in Indonesian National Law number 14 and which was released in December 2005. Although the general literature on teacher professionalism serves as the main literature framework for this study, it is argued throughout that Indonesian teachers’ professionalism is unique, is often different from what is defined and constructed by the common (Western) literature, and is shaped by the history of the nation’s education system.

Like many other countries, Indonesia has experienced educational reforms and changes over the past few decades. A thorough study of the national education system before and after Independence in 1945 shows progress and decline of education as well as a history of changes (e.g. Purwadi & Muljoatmodjo, 2000; Tilaar, 1995; World Bank, 1998; World Bank, 2004). Curriculum decentralisation in 1994 (e.g. Bjork, 2003), school-based management reform following the release of Decentralisation Laws at the
beginning of the year 2000 (e.g. Kristiansen & Pratikno, 2006), and education standardisation through national examination (e.g. Nuridin, 2006) are examples of the changes that have been taking place. Law Number 14/2005 is simply another mandated reform introduced in the country. Although the Law arose to serve as a legal and formal protection for the teaching profession and was initially advised by the Indonesian Teachers’ Association (e.g. Pengurus Besar PGRI, 2006), it is nonetheless controversial and is still unclear in its implementation (e.g. Kompas, 2006a). This and other issues surrounding Law 14/2005 will be discussed in Chapter 3.

Reports and studies have shown that imposed educational changes in Indonesia directly and indirectly influence the teaching force and teacher professionalism as it is the teachers who implement the policy at the grassroots level (e.g. Bjork, 2003; Budiwalujo, 2006; Hadiyanto & Subijanto, 2003; Hanafie, 2007). Bjork’s (2003) ethnographic fieldwork in six junior high schools in East Java, for example, has led him to conclude that in responding to mandated curriculum decentralisation reform, Indonesian teachers did not show their enthusiasm for a variety of reasons. One of the reasons is the perceived culture of public-serving teachers who, for many decades, have been used to serving and being loyal to the government, and not to education itself. The emphasis so far has been on teachers as government employees rather than as professional educators. In addition, public-serving teachers have been accustomed to receiving and following orders from the centre rather than actively participating in professional learning or being creative and innovative (Bjork, 2003). Bjork’s study is one example of how imposed educational changes affect Indonesian teachers and their professionalism.
The phenomenon of a state-mandated education reform is actually not uncommon and has been discussed elsewhere. On the one hand the state devolves some responsibilities to schools, yet on the other hand it acts as an evaluative state that specifies teachers' competences and standards in a top-down manner (e.g. Whitty, 2000). Given the relatively poor conditions of Indonesian schooling and teachers – namely a 'largely underqualified teaching force' (King, 1998) with 'poorly trained teachers' (Behrman, Deolalikar & Soon, 2002), a 'dearth of teaching-support resources' and 'teachers' long working hours and low pay' (Nilan, 2003) – educational reforms and changes, including the new Law concerning teacher professionalism, will undoubtedly affect teachers' lives and work in particular, and schooling in general.

This study aims to explore how English teachers in Indonesia define, perceive and construct their professionalism, as well as how other stakeholders (i.e. English teachers, principals, the teachers' network, the Teachers' Association, university staff members and the District Education Office) support, influence and promote the professional practice of those teachers. The intention of this thesis is thus to examine how those closely and directly related to day-to-day work of classroom practice (but who are usually being marginalised in the policy decision-making processes) respond to the broader policy context and mandated changes and reforms that are happening in the country nowadays. The study provides and explains different concepts, phenomena and explorations of the nature of teacher professionalism that are 'uniquely and specifically Indonesian', even though it mainly draws its theoretical framework and orientation from 'Western' literature on professionalism (e.g. Day, 1999; Goodson, 2003; Hargreaves & Goodson, 1996; Hargreaves, 2000; Hoyle & John, 1995; Sachs, 2000).
The study includes the broad and more global changes and educational issues that have been reforming, reshaping and restructuring education systems across the world. As the core aims of education are students' growth and development in order for them to function and take part in a broader society in a meaningful way, changes in society will inevitably lead to changes in schooling and education systems. As a matter of fact, those changes have placed new demands and expectation on schools (Day, 2000) and have affected teachers' work (e.g. Barcia & Hargreaves, 2000) in Indonesia and elsewhere in the world. The nature of the professionalism of Indonesian EFL teachers today is therefore captured from three levels, namely the global level, national level and local level.

1.2. The aims of the study

Earlier research by this author (e.g. Yuwono, 2005) included fieldwork on principals' and English teachers' perceptions of school-based management reform, which was conducted in 2005 in Salatiga, Indonesia. One of the findings suggests that English teachers are aware of the importance of developing as professionals and to cope and/or comply with the recent changes and reforms in education system, curriculum and English Language Teaching (ELT) practices. Such changes impacting on EFL teachers are often said to be associated with global education reforms – for example, education decentralisation and reforms in quality issues that have led to changes in performance standardisation (e.g. Connell, 1998) – and are usually mandated by policy makers at the national level. However, the realities of teachers' day-to-day lives at the local/school
level often provide a different picture: teachers are forced to work in isolation and with inadequate support from those policymakers – a condition that leads to teachers' scepticism, confusion, ignorance, reluctance, unwillingness, or even resistance instead of growing as professionals (Yuwono, 2005).

Focusing on the issues surrounding teacher professionalism in Indonesia, particularly during a period immediately after the release and implementation of the new Law on teacher certification, this research project has a number of aims:

- By investigating the responses of different types of English teachers (e.g. full-time, part-time, casual) with different years of service (e.g. novice, experienced) and different types of academic qualifications (e.g. suitably qualified or underqualified) from different types of schools (e.g. public, private, Islamic), the study aims to explore various forms of teacher professionalism that exist or have been in existence in Indonesia.

- With regard to stakeholders' contributions to planning and programming professional development activities in their schools or areas, the study also intends to examine the roles of other stakeholders other than those of teachers (i.e. principals, teachers' network, teachers' association, universities, and the District Education Office) in supporting, promoting and influencing teachers' professional learning and practices.

- By focusing on teachers' and principals' responses in relation to the new Law on teacher certification, the study will then explore how policy implementation officers at the grassroots level perceive the mandated changes in relation to their professionalism and how they position themselves as 'professional Indonesian
teachers' in a broader policy context, as well as their strategies and future plans to comply with the Law.

1.3. The rationale for the study

The study is both significant and relevant for Indonesia's education system given that the discourse of teacher professionalism had been discussed and debated for years by politicians, policymakers, teachers, the teachers' union and professional organisations, and other related stakeholders (e.g. Pengurus Besar PGRI, 2006). In his study, for example, Alwasilah (2000) argues that the teaching profession has not yet been properly recognised in Indonesia and its quality is under scrutiny because many teachers are still underqualified. It has also been reported elsewhere that there are approximately 2.7 million teachers in the country but only around 900,000 teachers are considered qualified to teach and have their bachelor's degrees or diplomas of education. This means that the majority of teachers in Indonesia (around 1.8 million) either hold one-year diploma degrees, two-year diploma degrees, senior secondary school certificates, or even junior secondary certificates (e.g. Kompas, 2006a; Kompas, 2006b; Naja, 2006; Praseyo, 2006; Suara Merdeka, 2006). In other words, there are a lot number of teachers in the country who are still underqualified and are most likely not competent enough to teach.

Teacher professionalism was finally acknowledged in official law and legalised in 2005. The Law introduced the so-called certification requirement for teachers to be considered 'professional' and later to be awarded significant increase of salary and incentives once their professionalism is recognised. A brief history of the Law and its
content will be discussed in more details in Chapter 3 of this thesis. Despite the substance of the Law, which is considered to have shown the government's commitment and political will to improve the quality and status of Indonesian teachers (e.g. Naja, 2006), implementation of the policy still needs to be further addressed and explored – hence the relevance and significance of this research project. This study examines how Indonesian teachers define and construct the notion of their professionalism at the present time, particularly with regard to Law Number 14/2005.

In addition, the study is significant because it enables education practitioners to see if there is any discrepancy between the concepts of professionalism as stipulated and mandated by the authorities and that which is perceived by teachers and principals through their daily work in schools. Through critical examination of policy documents and teachers and principals' responses during the study, it is hoped that inconsistencies between policy enactment and policy implementation can be scrutinised more thoroughly and then reported and recommended both to education policymakers and policy implementers. Moreover, the study will hopefully enrich and add to the already-existing literature of contemporary education and schooling in Indonesia, particularly that which is related to teacher professionalism.

At a broader level, the study is crucial because it will contribute to literature about common directions, trends and reforms in education and show how – despite the commonalities – educational changes result in different implications for different countries, regions, schools, and education practitioners.
1.4. Research questions

The research questions of the current study are:

1. How are teaching profession and teacher professionalism defined, constructed and perceived by Indonesian EFL teachers and other related education stakeholders in one case in the Indonesian town of Salatiga?

2. What support is available and perceived important for enhancing Indonesian EFL teacher professionalism?

3. To what extent are professional development activities, which are planned and programmed by various educational stakeholders, perceived crucial in bringing changes on Indonesian EFL teacher learning and professional practices?

4. To what extent does Law 14/2005 impact Indonesian EFL teacher professionalism?
   a. How do Indonesian EFL teachers, principals, and other related stakeholders perceive the imposed changes?
   b. What are the responses, support, professional behaviours and strategies of teachers and principals in particular in coping with the changes?
   c. Are there any different perceptions, beliefs, behaviours, and strategies among different teachers and principals from different types of schools?
1.5. Definitions of terms

Definitions of important terms are necessary in the study in order to clarify the research aims, rationale and questions. Definitions of teacher professionalism are a starting point in the study even though, as admitted by a researcher of teacher professionalism, it is a problematic task because teacher professionalism is a socially constructed term that is constantly being defined and redefined through educational theory, practice and policy (Hilferty, 2004). The concepts, definitions, and nature of teacher professionalism will be explored in a more in-depth and critical analysis in Chapter 2, the literature review chapter.

Borrowing definitions from scholars in teacher professionalism, the term can be explained as follows: professionalism is ‘something which defines and articulates the quality and character of people’s actions within that group’ (Hargreaves & Goodson, 1996, p. 4), it is concerned with the complex definition and character of teaching profession and practice (Goodson, 2003), and it aims at improving the quality and standards of practice by being and acting professional (Hargreaves, 2000). The term professionalism can also be understood of consisting elements such as teacher learning, participation, collaboration, cooperation and activism (Sachs, 2003). The definitions of professionalism as proposed by those scholars will serve as a basis in the study.

Professional development programs in this study refer to any learning activities for English teachers to develop, refresh or upgrade their skills, knowledge, teaching techniques and expertise. These include programs such as training, workshops, seminars and conferences, as well as formal learning at universities or teacher training colleges. In
addition, the term teacher learning is used in cases where there is new pedagogical knowledge that teachers need to learn (e.g. OECD, 1998). Learning opportunity for English teachers is defined here as access to favourable learning conditions, whether access to learning in general or access to any activity that is likely to lead to an increase in English language knowledge or skill (Crabbe, 2003).

Other terms that need defining are more technical and local in nature, e.g. types of schooling and teachers. Types of schooling included in the study are Sekolah Negeri (government or public school), Sekolah Swasta (private school), Sekolah Alternatif (community-run school), and Madrasah (Islamic school). Private schools are run by either religious (usually Catholic, Protestant and Islamic) or secular organisations and despite bearing the name ‘private’, such schools are not necessarily resource-rich and privileged. Sekolah Alternatif is a community-run school which was founded with the aim to provide quality education for the poor. This type of schooling is still rare in the country and the one examined in this study is perhaps the pioneer of such a system.

Madrasah schools operate under the Ministry of Religious Affairs (MORA) instead of the Ministry of Education (MOE). In addition, another type of school visited during the fieldwork that does not fall into any of those categories is the Sekolah Asrama (boarding school). This particular Sekolah Asrama is a newly-founded school in Salatiga and is affiliated with an Islamic organisation. It is attended by boys only - the majority of whom are orphans from troubled areas in Indonesia. Such a school is run like a Pesantren (see Chapter 3). However, beside religious studies the school also offers life skill courses for its students. Chapter 3 will examine the types of schools in Indonesia in detail.
Besides different types of schooling, Indonesia's education system also has different types of teachers. *Guru negeri* (public school teachers) are civil servants who are paid by the regional governments and who mostly work at public schools. However, some of them are assigned to teach at private schools if those schools are short of teaching staff. *Guru swasta* (permanent private school teachers) work for private schools and their qualifications sometimes vary according to the quality of the schools. Another type of teacher are *guru tidak tetap* (part-time teachers) who are paid by the hour and can either work for public schools or private schools. Part-time teachers who are working at public schools are those usually expecting to be civil servants some day and are known as *guru wiyata bakti*. *Guru wiyata bakti* is also commonly referred to as *guru honorer*. *Guru Madrasah* are teachers working at Islamic schools; they are not necessarily civil servants. Their salaries come from the MORA from the central government instead of from the district government. Unlike education, religious affairs are not decentralised; hence, matters related to religion and MORA personnel and officials, including *Madrasah* schools and teachers, are handled by the central government.

The final type of teacher is called *guru bantu*. *Guru bantu* are those teachers who register themselves at the District Education Office and have to undergo written tests designed, conducted, and organized by the Office. Once they pass the tests, their names will be on the District Education Office's list and they can be called to 'assist' a certain school once there is a post for them (*bantu* literally means to assist). However, this will not yet guarantee their employment as it depends on demands from schools (either public or private). *Guru bantu* are paid by the local government through the District Education Office but their incentives are usually very low.
Another term that needs explanation is the English teachers’ association in Salatiga. It is an association recommended for all English teachers in the Municipality, is financed by the local government, and is facilitated and coordinated by the District Education Office. The association is called MGMP or Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran. In their research project, Saito, Imansyah, Kuboki and Hendayana (2007) define it as ‘Subject-wise teachers’ Self-learning Association’. This study uses the terms MGMP and English teachers’ self-learning association interchangeably. It also uses the terms English teachers’ network and English teacher’s association. This is because most teachers in the research project view MGMP as their only formal opportunity to build networking with other English teachers in town and to gather information about the latest development in English language teaching curriculum and practice in the country. Other important terms in this thesis are listed below:

- **Ujian Nasional** (the national examination) – *Ujian Nasional* is the standardised evaluation and assessment for secondary-level students as stipulated in chapter 66 to chapter 72 of the Government Regulation Number 19/2005 (Tim Redaksi Fokusmedia, 2005).

- **Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi** or **KBK** (competency-based curriculum) – KBK was the curriculum in use when this study was conducted. It has now been replaced by a new curriculum, the so-called Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan or KTSP (the school level-based curriculum). Like KBK, the new curriculum also focuses on learners’ competence and learning output. KTSP, however, is believed to grant more freedom and autonomy to schools, teachers, and other local stakeholders to design the syllabus based on the needs and unique characteristics of their local areas (see
Mulyasa, 2006 for detail). Despite the impacts that KTSP would bring on teacher professionalism, this thesis only focuses on KBK as it was the curriculum used during the data collection process and the only curriculum referred to by participants of the study. KBK provides a model of communicative competence as proposed by scholars like Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell (1995) and the central goal of this model is for learners to achieve the desired competence when using a target language, namely the discourse competence. In order to reach the discourse competence, language learners should be equipped with other supporting competencies such as linguistic competence, actional competence, socio-cultural competence, and strategic competence. Under this curriculum, the concepts of learning are explained in terms of four domains, namely learning to know, learning to do, learning to live together, and learning to be. The assessment system involves three factors, i.e. cognitive, affective and psychomotor] (Departemen Pendidikan Nasional, 2003).

- **Dinas Pendidikan** (District Education Office) – *Dinas Pendidikan* is a district office whose main responsibility is to assist the head of the local government with matters related to primary, secondary, vocational, non-formal and informal education (Bagian Hukum Setda Kota Salatiga, 2004).

- **Persatuan Guru Republik Indonesia or PGRI** (Teachers' Association of the Republic of Indonesia) – PGRI is the teachers' trade union which was established in 1945 and whose members were mainly public school teachers (Pengurus Besar PGRI, 2006).

- **Round Table Discussion** – Round Table Discussion is a professional development activity for all English teachers in Salatiga; it is organised by the English Department
of Satya Wacana Christian University, the biggest university in the District, as part of their community service program and is free of charge.

- Education stakeholders – Education stakeholders are persons or groups with a common interest in a particular action in education and its consequences, and who are affected by it (McGinn & Welsh, 1998).

- Certification – Certification is a process of giving certificates to teachers after they participate in the certification program; the certificate as a result of the program becomes a piece of evidence to acknowledge Indonesian teacher professionalism. Once a teacher obtains the certificate, he/she will receive special incentives (Law 14/2005).

- Teacher rank – Depending on his/her academic qualification, teacher rank is a rank that a teacher is awarded when he/she enters the teaching profession in the first place. For example, someone with a one-year diploma is first rewarded with a ‘2A’ rank once he/she becomes a full-time teacher, whereas someone with a two-year diploma earns a ‘2B’ rank. It usually takes 3 to 4 years for a teacher to climb from one rank to a higher rank.

1.6. Context and scope of the study

The context of the study includes the different school systems that are recognised in Indonesia, namely public school, private school, alternative school and Islamic school. In addition, the study was carried out in the town of Salatiga (Salatiga Municipality). In this study, the different school system contexts, although recognised nationally, are
considered local contexts where teachers and principals actually work. As well the study includes the broader context of the education system, namely the Municipal’s Education Office. As revealed in the interview data later, The District Education Office is characterised by bureaucracy and politics, whose people are elected because they are thought to be close to the head of the district, and whose role is merely as a policy mediator between the provincial or central government and the district government. This issue will be discussed in Chapter 6.

The study also looks at the English Teachers’ Association which operates at the district level, a professional organisation that represents teachers, and a university that regularly conducts professional development programs for English teachers in Salatiga. According to interviews with teachers and principals, the teachers’ association or network is facilitated by the District Education Office and is expected to be a learning community for English teachers in the region to grow as professionals. This will be further addressed in the findings chapter, Chapter 6.

The scope of the study is delineated by the total number of seventeen schools in the Salatiga Municipality in Central Java (excluding vocational schools). Although only a small municipality, Salatiga has all the different school types recognised in Indonesia. Therefore, the decision to choose Salatiga as the research site was justified.

Due to diverse conditions and realities of schooling among regions and districts, it should be noted that it is never the aim of this thesis to make generalisation for all schools and English teachers across the country. Located in Central Java, the town of Salatiga has an area of 56,781 square kilometres and an official population of 176,795 people in 2006. It is a relatively small town if compared to, for example, Jakarta, which
has an area of 661,520 square kilometres and a population of more than 8 million people. Although the Municipality is perhaps not considered as the most urban and developed area with the greatest access to resources in education and the highest level of instruction (see a study by Agung & Schwartz, 2007), Salatiga is definitely not a rural or underprivileged area with limited access to information and technology (e.g. Dou & Manullang, 2004). Agung and Schwartz’s study, which involved four cities in two developed regions in the country, describes the notion of ‘developed region’ in terms of the area’s close, convenient and quick access to educational resources and high level of teaching and learning instructions (Agung & Schwartz, 2007). The Salatiga Municipality perhaps has not yet fallen into the category of ‘developed’. Nevertheless, the Municipality has relatively easy access to educational resources as it is strategically located near the province’s capital city and other important cities in the Central Java region. In addition, all types of schooling system, ranging from primary level to higher education, are available in the Municipality. At the same time, as revealed later in the data, common educational problems such as inequality of educational service, access and provision still exist in the Municipality. Therefore, Salatiga makes a good case of the current study on English teacher professionalism even though generalisation is not the aim of this study. The types of schools visited during the fieldwork in early 2007 were as follows:

- six public schools (Sekolah Negeri)
- six private schools run under religious organisations (Sekolah Swasta)
- one secular private school (Sekolah Swasta)
- two Islamic schools (Madrasah)
• one community-run school (*Sekolah Alternatif*)
• one boarding school affiliated with an Islamic organisation (*Sekolah Asrama*).

The justification of the sampling will be further discussed in the methodology chapter, Chapter 4. Since the study focuses on English teachers, the Indonesian primary school system is not included in the sample as English is not a compulsory subject for primary education. In addition, vocational schools were not included either; because the English curriculum for vocational education is different from that of the general education.

The context and scope of this study, indeed, only focused on the district actors. Data obtained were all from those located in the Salatiga Municipality. However, the national context of education will inevitably be discussed, particularly when it comes to analysing policy documents. The interplay between local and broader contexts of education system will be further critically examined in the analysis chapter, Chapter 6.

1.7. Thesis overview

This chapter has provided an overview of the thesis, including the aims of the study, rationale for the study, research questions, definition of important terms, and context of the study.

Chapter 2 will serve as critical review of literature related to the meaning of teacher professionalism. The literature is mostly 'Western' and it will look first at a broader concept of 'profession' from a sociological perspective. Chapter 2 will also explore teacher professionalism and education policy making and will present examples
and studies from across the world. This chapter provides a general framework of teacher professionalism.

It is necessary to explain and explore what has made today's Indonesian teaching force and the nature of their professionalism. While Chapter 2 looks at the professionalism notions mostly theorised by Western scholars, chapter three will examine more closely Indonesian education, schooling and the teaching force. This inevitably brings in the historical aspect of education in Indonesia. Therefore, Chapter 3 presents the chronology of the country's education system, starting from the time prior to the Dutch colonial period to the present Indonesia and the conditions for teachers over that time, in order to establish the context for the research.

The research design and methodology of the study are outlined in Chapter 4. This chapter includes discussions of qualitative research design and why such design was chosen to conduct the study. The detailed discussions about the schools visited and people interviewed will be also presented in Chapter 4, as well as considerations of ethical issues.

Chapter 5 will detail how the data were analysed and the computer software used to assist the analysis. The data management, coding and analysis are discussed and presented in Chapter 5. Analysis of related documents will also be included in this chapter. The penultimate chapter, Chapter 6, includes important findings of the study and further interpretation and discussion, as well as data presentation. This chapter will present answers to research questions from Chapter 1 and will be discussed in relation to the theoretical framework set up in Chapters 2 and 3. In the final chapter, Chapter 7, the main conclusions of the study are drawn. Recommendations for policy-makers, teachers,
principals or other educational stakeholders are explored in this chapter. Chapter 7 will also present the limitations of this study, as well as providing suggestions for future research possibilities.

1.8. Summary

This chapter has described the outline and structure of the research project: the backgrounds of the study, why such a study is important and the main research questions. It has also briefly argued that teacher professionalism in Indonesia is quite unique and particular and, although the general phenomena can be described by referring to Western literature discussed in Chapter 2, it has particularities that can only be explained within the context of Indonesian education system. This issue will be further elaborated in Chapter 3.

Thus, after setting up the outline of the research project in this chapter, the next chapter will closely examine the theoretical framework of the study.
CHAPTER 2

Literature Review: Professionalism and related concepts

2.1. Introduction

This literature review discusses theories, studies and findings about teacher professionalism and professional development programs and learning opportunities for teachers (e.g. Day, 1999; Hargreaves, 1996; Hoyle & John, 1995; Goodson, 1996; Sachs, 2000). Notions explored by professional development scholars in this review will be useful for setting the theoretical framework for this research project. However, it is equally important to examine the concept of ‘profession’ from a broader point of view first – that is, from the sociological perspective. Such a perspective is useful in defining what ‘profession’ is in general terms prior to discussing, for instance, why or whether or not teaching classifies as a ‘profession’. After that, discussions on the matters of professionalisation, deprofessionalisation and reprofessionalisation will follow.

The next section focuses on concepts of teacher professionalism and how it is realised in practice. Various findings and studies from researchers and scholars of professionalism are also included in the section. Discussions of professional development programs as one important impacting factor on teacher professional learning and growth are explored in the subsequent section, followed by examinations of professional
development programs and strategies for English teachers. A brief summary of what this chapter aims to achieve ends Chapter 2.

2.2. Profession: a brief sociological perspective

It is still suitable here to briefly review the meaning of ‘profession’ as a broader sociological concept, as it is at the core of the notion of professionalism. Profession, as defined by some sociologists, is a form of work organisation which possesses the following elements: (1) a central regulatory body to ensure the standard of performance of the members of the professional organisations, (2) code of conduct, (3) careful management of knowledge in relation to expertise, and (4) controls of numbers, selection, and training of new entrants to the profession (Marshall, 1998).

Other sociologists define profession in a more straightforward way, stating that a profession is an occupation that is based on theoretical and practical knowledge and training in a particular field such as medicine, law or science. A profession is also characterised by autonomy and independence and it is believed that the combination of specialised knowledge and a central regulatory body produces a higher social status, income, wealth, power and prestige than other occupations (Johnson, 2000). Hoyle and John (1995) refer the term profession to: ‘...any occupation or to relatively distinctive occupations, which, despite problems in achieving total consensus, have distinguishing characteristics on which there is a high degree of consensus, including knowledge base, autonomy and responsibility’ (Hoyle & John, 1995, p. 16).
In questioning what makes an occupation a profession, McCullogh, Helsby and Knight (2000) invite scholars in the area of professionalism to critically examine the so-called trait theory. Such a theory maintains that professions have a set of characteristics or traits (see previous paragraph) that discriminate them from other occupations.

McCullogh et al. (2000) object to the trait approach. According to their view, the trait approach should not be applied to identify what occupation qualifies as a profession because such an approach lacks consensus on which traits are the most important. Moreover, the approach lacks clarity on how many traits are needed before an occupation can be regarded as a profession or a semi-profession. In addition, the trait theory approach is not considered to be historically valid because it fails to recognise that what is considered as a profession in a particular place and a particular time is probably not the case elsewhere and at other points in time. In other words, profession is socially constructed and dynamic, and thus the trait approach is not suitable to identify what can be classified as 'profession' (McCullogh et al., 2000). This trait approach, in short, has been widely discredited (Robson, 2006).

Indeed, defining the concept of profession is not an easy task. Freidson (1994) has also admitted that the debate surrounding how professions should be defined, which occupations should be called professions, and by what institutional criteria, has been going on for decades. Rather than describing a profession as having specific traits or characteristics, Freidson refers profession to a folk concept, believing that one cannot possibly determine 'profession' in an absolute sense (Freidson, 1994).

Profession in this case depends on 'how people in a society determine who is professional and who is not, how they make or accomplish professions by their activities,
and what the consequences are for the way in which they see themselves and perform their work' (Freidson, 1994, p. 20). Freidson (1994) goes on to argue that profession as a folk concept is bound up with a particular period of history and with a limited number of nations in that period of history. In other words, what are considered professions are actually occupations that have achieved the so-called professional status and privileges in specific society at a specific historical time (Hilferty, 2004). Therefore, one can assume that labelling one occupation as a profession is culturally specific.

Elsewhere Hoyle and John (1995) explain the notion of profession by placing an emphasis on power and political strategies – or what is referred to as an ‘ideological approach of profession’. Such power and strategies are used by organised occupations or organisations in order to maintain or increase their status. Thus employers and employees might have different understandings of the concept of ‘profession’ because they have a different purpose or intention when it comes to power and status.

With regard to the teaching profession, for instance, Sachs (2001) has argued that whether or not a teacher is a professional depends on whose viewpoint is examined or whose interest is served. For example, governments and politicians might not see teaching as a profession because they want to have opportunities to exercise or maintain their control over education. Yet teachers themselves and/or other related educational institutions might want teaching to be recognised as a profession because they are a distinct group in every society with a particular role to carry out (Sachs, 2001).

While sociologists might have different definitions of what a profession is and what occupations can be classified as professions or semi-professions, or whether or not teaching is a profession, it is not the aim of the thesis to explore those areas of debate
further. Instead, the study will focus on professionalism in relation to teaching regardless of some claims that teaching is not a real profession if compared to high-status professions such as doctors or lawyers. Therefore, the next section of this chapter will explore teaching profession drawn from theories, findings and studies undertaken by scholars of teacher professionalism.

2.3. The teaching profession

As briefly mentioned earlier, for some scholars the debate remains open about whether or not teaching should be treated as a profession (e.g. Bolam & McMahon, 2004; Darling-Hammond, 1994; Hargreaves & Goodson, 1996; Sachs, 2001; Whitty, 2000). It is not uncommon either for some to consider teaching as a quasi- or semi-profession (Hoyle & John, 1995) where teachers’ autonomy is regulated rather than licensed (e.g. Whitty, 2000). Additionally, teachers might not qualify as a pure profession because teaching does not fulfil all the characteristics included in the traditional ‘trait theory’ as developed by sociologists (e.g. there might not be controls of numbers, selection, and training of new entrants to the teaching profession or a set of rigorous code of conduct might not be available). Yet, if one follows Freidson’s folk concept of profession, teaching does achieve professional status and privileges in a specific society at a specific time; hence, it is a profession.

The issues surrounding teachers as professionals (or teaching as a profession) might originate from Hoyle and John’s (1995) three central and agreed criteria of what it means to be a professional: knowledge, autonomy, and responsibility. Professionals are
likely to face complex and unpredictable situations – to resolve such situations, professionals will need a specialised body of knowledge, as well as autonomy to make judgment without any interference from bureaucracies and, being given the autonomy, they have to act with responsibility. However, when applied to the teaching profession, some scholars might challenge Hoyle and John’s notions of professionalism. For example, Furlong, Barton, Miles, Whitting and Whitty (2000) have noticed that Hoyle and John’s conceptions of professional knowledge and autonomy are perhaps not suitable for a teaching profession. This is because teachers’ professional knowledge does not merely rely on scientific principles which have been tested by scientific method, in spite of the fact that teachers, too, are likely to face complex and unpredictable situations in their day-to-day work (Furlong et al., 2000).

Although it is not the aim of this thesis to further contribute to the debate about whether or not teaching is a profession, it is sufficient to say that most teachers want teaching to be recognised as a profession because teachers: (1) attend particular training which provides them with knowledge on subjects, pedagogy and students, (2) exercise some kind of autonomy on their work, which suggests professionalism (Day, 1999), and (3) see such a recognition as an attempt to improve their status; power, pay and conditions (Hoyle & John, 1995). Or, as Hilferty (2004) suggests, to possess the three dimensions of knowledge, autonomy and responsibility has encapsulated what it means to be professional for teachers and it is pointless to attempt to establish whether or not teachers are professionals in an absolute sense. Crump (1999) posits that teachers may not be true professionals by the strictest criteria and are perhaps best described as semi-professionals. Nevertheless, teaching is still an occupation that has ‘professional control
over privileged knowledge' (p. 104). But perhaps it is McCulloch et al. (2000) whose summary statements create the best meanings of teaching as a profession:

We may examine the politics of professionalism, notice the cross-currents of myths and appreciate the different arguments about whether teaching is a profession or not and still miss an important point. If, by and large, teachers do not feel fulfilled in their work, trusted and valued; if they do not feel professional, then can teaching really be seen as a profession? (p. 118)

The next section of this chapter looks at the changes that have been happening to today's schooling — changes in education that affect teachers as professionals and their professionalism, and changes that raise further question on whether they result in teachers being professionalised, deprofessionalised, or reprofessionalised.

2.4. Today's teachers: professionalised, deprofessionalised or reprofessionalised?

The last two decades have been a challenging period for societies around the world. Social, political, cultural, economic, demographic, information and communication technology changes have transformed the structures of today's society (e.g. Blackmore, 1999; Esteve, 2000). As the core aims of education are students' growth and development in order for them to function and take part in a broader society, changes in society will inevitably lead to changes in schooling and education systems (e.g. Connell, 1998). These changes, as a result, have placed new demands and expectation on schools (Day, 2000), and automatically on teachers. Policy-makers have translated these changes into regulations and procedures in the name of quality education even though it also means that teachers will experience a significant extension of their teaching role (Ballet, Kelchtermans & Loughran, 2006).
In their study in the work and lives of teachers, Day, Stobart, Sammons, and Kington (2006) have specifically identified five common factors of today’s educational reforms and changes that have impacted on the lives of teachers and their professionalism. First, they have observed that changes are commonly proposed because governments believe that by changing the conditions of student learning they can accelerate improvements, raise achievement standards and increase economic competitiveness. Second, educational changes take place because they are usually expected to address governments’ concerns of fragmentation between personal and social values in the society. Third, teachers’ existing practices are challenged as a result of the changes. Fourth, educational changes usually result in increased workload for teachers. Fifth, changes – unfortunately – often neglect teachers’ work, lives and identities even though those three aspects play a central role in increasing teachers’ motivation, efficacy, commitment, job satisfaction and effectiveness (Day et al., 2006).

In another study, Hargreaves (2000) is convinced that in this postmodern age driven by developments in economics and communications, there are pressures and demands for students to learn new skills to cope with the rapid changes in societies (e.g. effective use of new information technologies). Consequently, such changes also put pressures on teachers to possess more skills, improve their expertise and produce new styles in their teaching (Hargreaves, 2000). Teachers’ knowledge, the significance of autonomy for effective professional practice and the values and attitudes attached in the notion of professional responsibilities have therefore changed in nature as a result of the fast changes in society, technology, and educational governance (Hilferty, 2004).
Elsewhere, Boote (2006) is also convinced that for the past 20 years there has been increasing interests about teacher professionalism, professional autonomy, reflective practice, empowerment, communities of learners and teacher research. Such interests assume twofold implications for teachers. On the one hand, teachers are in ‘the best position’ (p. 462) to act as a mediator between the students’ learning needs and external expectations, leaving them to be autonomous and free to make decisions for the sake of their students. On the other hand, teachers have also seen the implementation of standardised curriculum and instruction, high stakes testing, inspection and accreditation, more external control of teacher preparation program, and other policies that try to control teachers from a distance (Boote, 2006). These, consequently, limit and deny teachers’ autonomy and control.

Studies and literature about the effects of educational changes on teachers have been abundant. Fullan (2001) provides examples of how teachers all around the world (e.g. England, North America, Australia, New Zealand) feel that their profession and autonomy are being harassed as a result of rigorous inspection and accountability mechanisms. In fact, Fullan is further convinced that contemporary teachers are being devalued by the community and the public, and their working conditions and experiences are worsened because of the high expectations which are put on teachers’ shoulders:

The range of educational goals and expectations for schools and the transfer of family and societal problems to the schools, coupled with the imposition of multiple, disconnected reform initiatives, present intolerable conditions for sustained educational development and satisfying work experiences (Fullan, 2001, p. 115).

Many other researchers are convinced that teacher activities are becoming more complex nowadays (e.g. Esteve, 2000) since teachers are now being given more difficult and diverse responsibilities (Helsby, 1999). Others have noticed that reforms and changes
have actually caused deterioration of teachers’ working conditions (Day, Elliot & Kington, 2005; Fullan, 2001) instead of improving the conditions because teachers now become subject to greater managerial control by school leaders, institutions, and even by the government (Helsby, 1999).

Elsewhere Ballet et al. (2006) have observed that the expansion of the teacher role today, unfortunately, often distracts teachers from their core activity of teaching. Here, according to Bascia and Hargreaves (2000), lies the paradox of educational change – on the one hand teachers are continually expected to work better and harder while on the other, their work has become more restricted, more regulated and less supported. Such a paradox will result in a predictable pattern of response: teachers being reluctant instead of enthusiastic to implement the change (e.g. Fullan, 2001; Hargreaves & Evans, 1997).

Bascia and Hargreaves (2000) further address the issues of educational changes and reforms in relation to the realities of teachers’ lives and work – one crucial factor that reformers and policymakers hardly take into account. They sum up the reasons why reforms, despite their promises for the betterment of education, so often do not work. Firstly, most reform efforts fail to acknowledge and/or understand ‘the depth, range, and complexity’ (p. 4) of teacher’s work or what they do. Reformers often consider teaching job as one-dimensional, seeing teachers only as technicians whose job is to merely implement detailed and prescribed procedures mandated through policy. Secondly, changes in educational policy usually require changes in teachers’ behaviours and beliefs yet they fail to recognise that what must be altered is actually ‘an interconnected, highly complex, and profoundly political system which shapes and constrains the work of teaching and effort to transform it’ (p. 4), and not the teachers.
What has been discussed above may be evidence that teachers nowadays are being deprofessionalised. This has led to questions whether teaching profession is presently being ‘proletarianised’ (e.g. Ozga, 1995; Seddon, 1999). With regard to this issue, Goodson (2003) has seen ‘considerable antipathy to teacher professionalisation’ (p. 126) in today’s education, occurring within, for example, cost-cutting central government or strengthened education bureaucracies. Teacher professionalism, as Goodson (2003) further believes, is being steered by more and more government directives through, for instance, standardised assessment, rigorous accountability mechanisms and centrally-prescribed curriculum.

Hoyle and John (1995) explain the notion of deprofessionalisation as a condition in which the teacher professionalisation process ceases due to some kind of pressures (e.g. greater demand for accountability) from outside agents (e.g. the central government). In other words, deprofessionalisation works in opposition to professionalisation because the workers’ (in this case teachers’) remuneration, status and power or autonomy are diminished due to the interference of other group of workers such as managers, employers or state elites (Ginsburg, 1996). Deprofessionalisation, according to Ballet et al. (2006), goes hand in hand with intensification of teachers’ work. In such a case, teachers’ jobs are seen as separate tasks and assignments and the skills perceived important are merely those related to technical skills. Ballet et al. (2006) go on to argue that such an intensification impacts not only what is done but also how and why it is done (Ballet et al., 2006).

Elsewhere Smith (1999) views deprofessionalisation as a condition where teachers are increasingly being represented as skilled artisans who are completing tasks
with aims, contents and means which are largely determined by other parties. Indeed, many education scholars believe that teachers' professional expertise and autonomy are increasingly being slotted into the centralist agendas (e.g. Bottery & Wright, 2000) and teachers' professional responsibilities are being continually reconceptualised due to accountability regimes (Sachs, 2003).

Hargreaves (2000) uses the term 'assaults on professionalism' (p.168) to describe conditions similar to deprofessionalisation. Such assaults are caused by the tendency of many governments to embrace market principles, which consequently leads to schools being rationalised, made more economically efficient, and turned into competitors against each other. In the name of efficiency, for example, schools often have to restrict their budget used for improving teachers' working conditions and their professional development opportunities. Another cause of assaults on professionalism as described by Hargreaves is how many governments around the world choose to respond the disputes and uncertainties brought by postmodern age by setting up centralised curricula and standardised testing regime, for instance. These strategies obviously deny teachers' autonomy and result in teachers being deprofessionalised (Hargreaves, 2000).

Other scholars of teacher professionalism have observed a phenomenon other than deprofessionalisation. Following Hargreaves and Goodson (1996) in their earlier study, McCullogh et al. (2000), for example, provide an alternative view of teacher professionalisation as opposed to deprofessionalisation. Although confirming that the nature of professions in general is changing, they argue that rather being in the state of deprofessionalisation, today's teachers are actually being reprofessionalised. This is because in some respects, teaching is becoming more professional.
now be required, a more extensive knowledge-base has to be mastered, a wider range of pedagogical skills must be displayed, and more complex decisions have to be made. In other words, teachers are becoming reprofessionalised because the increasing complexity of their work demands more sophisticated judgment and collective forms of decision-making (Hargreaves & Goodson, 1996) – teacher professionalism needs to keep with the needs and changes of education in the present time (Whitty, 2000). It is about time the teaching profession left the so-called ‘pre-professional age’ (Hargreaves, 2000, p. 153), which is an era where teaching is seen as technically simple and easy and thus teachers do not see the necessities to improve themselves or learn more. Furthermore, Hargreaves (2000) believes that today’s teachers are ‘on the edge of an age of postmodern professionalism’ (p. 175), an age where teachers have to deal with more uncertain, complex and diverse conditions.

In line with the concept of reprofessionalisation, Fullan (2001) states the needs for a revolution in the teaching profession itself – that the contemporary teaching profession must undergo revolutionary changes because for one reason, teachers are now working more with people beyond their own schools. With regard to this matter, Hargreaves (2000) believes that teachers now have to relate differently to communities beyond their schools and learn how to work differently with parents and other related stakeholders outside their schools’ walls. Consequently teachers need to acquire new skills, relationships and orientations, which will ultimately result in the fundamental changing of their professionalism. The teaching profession, Fullan (2001) has observed, needs significant reforms in all aspects – in terms of recruitment, selection, status and reward, initial teacher education, induction into the profession, continuous professional
development, standards and incentives, and changes in the day-to-day working conditions.

Based on the abundant literature of today’s teacher professionalism, the issues concerning teacher professionalisation, deprofessionalisation, or reprofessionalisation are perhaps inevitable due to the rapid changes in the society. As discussed earlier in this chapter, Hargreaves (2000) is convinced that today’s teachers are on the edge of a postmodern professionalism age:

...where teachers deal with a diverse and complex clientele, in conditions of increasing moral uncertainty, where many methods of approach are possible, and where more and more social groups have an influence and a say (p. 175).

Therefore, whether this postmodern period will witness positive partnerships between schools and other institutions beyond the school that can protect or enhance teacher professionalism, or whether it will see teachers being deprofessionalised due to more pressures and work intensification, is still to be decided. However, Hargreaves argues that such a decision:

...should be shaped by the active intervention of all educators and others in a social movement for educational change which really understands and advances the principle that, if we want better classroom learning for students, we have to create superb professional learning and working conditions for those who teach them (Hargreaves, 2000, p. 175).

Notwithstanding the conditions of teachers being professionalised, deprofessionalised, or reprofessionalised, a more important issue is perhaps the fact that there is still a scope for teacher negotiation in choosing to respond and depict themselves publicly. Teachers, for example, could choose to use the conditions they are facing as a result of deprofessionalisation as opportunities to learn new skills and to work with other stakeholders beyond their school communities. McCullogh et al. (2000) believe that such choice by teachers could actually result in challenge and become prospect of change in
teacher professionalism. In other words, deprofessionalisation should not be perceived as a threat by teachers; it should be instead perceived as a challenging opportunity to grow as professionals.

Although faced with inevitable and rapid changes that will definitely reshape and redefine their contemporary work and lives, teachers still have opportunities to use those changes to maintain or even increase their professionalism, which may eventually bring better standards of student learning and performance. The section following will further examine the concepts and practice of teacher professionalism.

2.5. Examining teacher professionalism

The discussions and debates about the meaning of the teaching profession and teacher professionalism have been regularly circulated among professionalism scholars (e.g. Day, 1999; Hargreaves & Goodson, 1996; Hargreaves, 2000; Sachs, 2003) and have been the subject of many studies over the last centuries (e.g. Day, 1999; Day, 2007; Hargreaves & Goodson, 1996), as will be examined in this section. Literature referring to the conception of teacher professionalism is usually concerned with the quality of what teachers do, as well as the conduct, demeanour and standards that guide them (Hargreaves, 2000).

The concepts of teacher professionalism are closely linked to autonomy, professional judgment, engagement with matters of curriculum and assessment, collaboration with others, power sharing with other stakeholders, and continuous learning (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1998). For example, in their research project on teachers’
perception of their professionalism in Pakistan, Rizvi and Elliot (2005) conceptualised
teacher professionalism in terms of four dimensions, namely: teacher efficacy (i.e. teachers are likely to implement new strategies in classrooms if they are confident in their abilities); teacher practice (i.e. the actual teacher practice in schools); teacher collaboration (i.e. the ways teachers collaborate with one another professionally); and teacher leadership (i.e. how teachers undertake initiatives to encourage more effective teaching and learning). The first dimension of Rizvi and Elliot’s professionalism is elaborated in terms of teachers’ capacity to achieve success in dealing with student learning problems and getting good results. As the data of the current study revealed, this dimension of professionalism is also perceived by Indonesian EFL teachers, particularly in linking their professionalism to the results that the students get in the standardised national examination. Teacher practice, the second dimension, concerns teachers’ responsibilities and commitments, as well as teachers’ application of their professional knowledge to facilitate student learning. Collaboration as the third dimension focuses on teachers having professional discussions and coordination with other teachers to plan effective lessons, while teacher leadership as the fourth dimension of Rizvi and Elliot’s professionalism sees the importance of teachers undertaking school and classroom leadership to enhance their professionalism. As will be further discussed in Chapter 6 of this thesis, the data of the current study suggest that Indonesian EFL teachers in the Salatiga Municipality defined their professionalism in terms of the first, second, and third dimension of professionalism as proposed by Rizvi and Elliot (2005).

Parallel with changes and reforms in education, the meaning of teacher professionalism itself has changed over time (Hilferty, 2004) and different scholars
propose different understandings and concepts of the term. Hargreaves (2000), for instance, sees teacher professionalism as being socially constructed and subject to geographical and cultural differences in interpretation and suggests that some aspects of professionalism have connotations of status and financial rewards. Eraut (1994) considers professionalism as an ideology consisting of three central features — a specialist knowledge-base, autonomy and service — while Sachs (2000b) views teacher professionalism as a political project. It is considered ‘political’ since the notion of teacher professionalism ‘brings together alliances and networks of various educational interest groups for collective action to improve all aspects of the education enterprise at the macro level and student learning outcomes and teachers’ status in the eyes of the community at the micro level’ (Sachs, 2000b, p. 77).

Elsewhere, a study by Nixon, Martin, McKeown and Ranson (1997) has outlined changing purposes of professionalism during the second half of the 20th century. They view the so-called traditional model of professionalism as being oriented towards public service and linked to autonomy and self-regulation, in which traditionalist professionals see themselves as experts and civic leaders and as having authority over knowledge. The new professionalism, they point out, has a purpose to renew professional commitment and professional learning (Nixon et al., 1997).

A development of professionalism and its changing nature has been identified by Hargreaves (2000). He presents teacher professionalism in four historical phases: (1) the ‘pre-professional age’ which is marked by demanding managerial tasks but simple pedagogy; (2) the ‘professional autonomy age’ which is characterised by teacher individualism and professional expertise; (3) the ‘collegial professional age’ which shows
the roles of teachers being extended beyond individual teachers and classrooms; and (4) the 'post-professional age' which is marked by teachers' struggle over increased prescription of curriculum and external surveillance system.

In an earlier study, Hargreaves and Goodson (1996) presented six types of professionalism (also in Goodson, 2003). Their types of professionalism include:

- **classical professionalism**

  'Classical professionalism' is a form of professionalism which is narrow and limited and which has three distinct characteristics: where individuals (1) have a specialised knowledge or shared technical culture, (2) have a strong service ethic to meeting clients' needs, and (3) have collegial (or self-regulated) control instead of being externally controlled by bureaucrats (Hargreaves & Goodson, 1996; Day, 1999; Goodson, 2003).

- **flexible professionalism**

  'Flexible professionalism' puts emphasis on developing senses of shared professional community and cultures of collaboration locally (e.g. within particular schools or subject areas) and goes towards forming the so-called local professional communities (Hargreaves & Goodson, 1996).

- **practical professionalism**

  'Practical professionalism' is the attempt to accord dignity and status to the practical knowledge that teachers have of their work; it considers experience/practical knowledge as the key and central factor of teacher's expertise (Hargreaves & Goodson, 1996) and as a source of valid theory (Goodson, 2003).
• **extended professionalism**

'Extended professionalism' attempts to mediate between a teacher's experience and theory, as teachers are believed to obtain their skills both from their experiences and theory combined (Hargreaves & Goodson, 1996).

• **complex professionalism**

'Complex professionalism' is based on the argument that one should judge a particular profession by its task's complexity. The teaching profession is, according to advocates of this type of professionalism, 'characterized by high degrees of complexity' (Hargreaves & Goodson, 1996, p. 17). The increase in work complexity could increase a teacher's professional prestige and hence his/her earnings.

• **post-modern professionalism**

'Post-modern professionalism' consist the following seven principles, which provide an alternative of teacher professionalism to current reform agenda (also in Day, 2007). Those principles are:

1. increased opportunity and responsibility for teachers to exercise their discretionary judgment on the issues of teaching, curriculum and care for students

2. increased opportunities and expectations for teachers to engage with the moral and social purposes and value of what they teach

3. commitment to working with colleagues in a collaborative culture

4. opportunities and conditions for teachers to work authoritatively yet openly and collaboratively with others in the wider community
5. a commitment to care for students instead of simply delivering services to students
6. a self-directed search and struggle for continuous learning
7. a creation and recognition of task complexity with appropriate status and reward.

Sachs (2003) differentiates the so-called 'old professionalism' and 'new professionalism'. The concept of 'old professionalism', she maintains, is no different from 'classical professionalism', while the concept of 'new professionalism' has similar elements as Hargreaves and Goodson's (1996) 'post-modern professionalism'. She argues that 'old professionalism' is no longer appropriate since the teaching profession has been redefined due to changes and reforms (Sachs, 2003).

Sachs (2000a; 2003) further discusses a more proactive and responsible approach to teacher professionalism for the new millennium, an approach to professionalism that should consist of the following elements:

- teacher learning, both individually and collectively
- active participation, which (1) provides opportunities for members of the education community to contribute to debates about policy and practice, and (2) utilises the expertise of various groups in order to yield new insights and strategies
- collaboration, through (1) collegiality and conversations within the school community (internal collaboration), and (2) working with other interested parties outside their school (external collaboration)
- cooperation with peers by rethinking work practices to help break down individualism and isolationism
activism, by being active in engaging with and responding to issues that are related directly and/or indirectly to education and schooling; i.e. teachers actively reinventing their professionalism and rethinking their social relationships and pedagogical practices within their own schools and the wider education community (also in Sachs, 2000b).

Sachs' other studies and discussions include the so-called discourses of teacher professionalism, namely 'democratic' and 'managerial' (Sachs, 2000b; 2001). 'Democratic professionalism' emphasises collaborative and cooperative action between teachers and other educational stakeholders, whereas 'managerial professionalism' sees efficient management can solve any problem and that private sector practices can be applied to public sector (Sachs, 2000b). 'Managerial professionalism' is closely related to educational reforms that promote devolution, decentralisation or school-based management (Sachs, 2000b), and is a consequence of organisational change — a change that brings further impact for teachers to be more accountable and for systems to be more efficient and economic (Day & Sachs, 2004). 'Managerial professionalism' discourse places teachers 'in a long line of authority in terms of their accountability for reaching measurable outcomes that stretches through the principal, to the district/regional office, to the central office' (Sachs, 2001, p. 152).

As opposed to 'managerial professionalism, according to Sachs (2001), the so-called 'democratic professionalism' sees the emphasis as building alliances between teachers. Within this discourse of professionalism, teachers' responsibilities are wider than responsibilities that they normally have in a single classroom. Their extended responsibilities include 'contributing to the school, the system, other students, the wider
community, and collective responsibilities of teacher themselves as a group and the broader profession' (p. 153). In addition, the key factor of this professionalism is collaborative and cooperative action between teachers and educational stakeholders (Day & Sachs, 2004) even though Fullan's (2001) words become a reminder that it is not collaboration per se that counts: 'Collaboration is powerful, which means that people can do powerfully wrong things together' (Fullan, 2001, p. 254).

Sachs (2000b) explains that the managerial approach to teacher professionalism is in contrast with the democratic approach, with the former being advocated by systems and employers, and the latter by unions or other professional bodies. Moving beyond the limitations and ideological differences between the two types of professionalism, she then suggests the so-called 'activist professionalism', in which teachers' trust, obligation and solidarity work together and in which teachers' strong commitment of time, energy and intellectual resources are the heart of professionalism (also in Sachs, 2003). The table 1 on the following page sums up the types of professionalism discussed in this section:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Brief description</th>
<th>Scholars</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Classical/Old</td>
<td>Specialised knowledge, strong service ethic, collegial control, is considered no longer appropriate by many scholars</td>
<td>Day (1999); Hargreaves &amp; Goodson (1996); Hoyle &amp; John (1995); Sachs (2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Flexible</td>
<td>Local professional communities, limited opportunities to extend to wider professional communities, could lead to teacher isolation</td>
<td>Hargreaves &amp; Goodson (1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Practical</td>
<td>Experience or practical knowledge is crucial and is source of valid theory</td>
<td>Hargreaves &amp; Goodson (1996); Goodson (2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Extended</td>
<td>Combination of both theory and teachers' experience; teachers are expected to extend their perspectives beyond classrooms</td>
<td>Hargreaves and Goodson (1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Complex</td>
<td>Recognition of task complexity; not feasible for teaching profession unless supported by non-teaching staff</td>
<td>Hargreaves &amp; Goodson (1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Post-Modern</td>
<td>Discretionary judgment, moral and social purposes, collaborative cultures, working with others in wider communities, care instead of service for students, continuous learning, task complexity</td>
<td>Hargreaves &amp; Goodson (1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Managerial</td>
<td>System driven, external regulation, drives reform agenda, political ends, competitive and market driven, control or compliancy</td>
<td>Sachs (2000b; 2001); Day &amp; Sachs (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Democratic</td>
<td>Profession driven, professional regulation, moves beyond reform agenda, professional development, collegial and profession driven, activism</td>
<td>Sachs (2000b; 2001); Day &amp; Sachs (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Pro-active/Activist</td>
<td>Teacher learning, active participation, collaboration, cooperation, activism, trust, obligation, solidarity, strong commitment</td>
<td>Sachs (2000a; 2003)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The review of various scholars’ conceptions of teacher professionalism in this section has highlighted the meaning of professionalism as abstracted and theorised by key scholars in the field. Despite differences in characteristics and terminology, they mostly agree that the teaching profession has been undergoing transformation and that the meaning of teacher professionalism changes over time. The meaning of professionalism is always redefined because of the changes and reforms in education. The discussion on today’s teacher professionalism does not cease by achieving consensus on the meaning of the term. Other aspects, such as teacher learning or how teachers should respond and act to the continually changing nature of professionalism, deprofessionalism or reprofessionalism, should also be examined. In fact, in her thesis, Hilferty (2004) believes that what is needed to transform debates about teacher professionalism from abstract concepts into realistic strategies of professional practice is discussion of practical suggestions. Therefore, the next section of this chapter will explore a more practical area of teacher professionalism: teacher professional development.

2.6. Teacher professional development

Studies of teacher professional development have been receiving increased attention, particularly as many now realise the centrality of teachers to school reform and improvement (e.g. Burbank & Kauchak, 2003) and the need for high-quality professional development to improve student performance and education (Guskey, 2000). As discussed earlier, the teaching profession is always changing, being developed (e.g. Grundy & Robison, 2004) and is characterised by inherent uncertainty (Munthe, 2003).
In addition, the nature of teaching demands teachers to continuously engage in learning and career-long professional development (Day, 1999). As professionals, teachers should be able to recognise the need to continually update their knowledge and their pedagogical skills (e.g. Bredeson, 2000; Day, 2000). More importantly, they should be able to exercise their pedagogical judgment (Day, 2000) — or, in Eraut’s (1994) words, professionals should be able to perform ‘wise judgment’ under uncertain conditions (p. 17).

Professional development programs for teachers are therefore crucial to the teaching profession and practices. In fact, as strongly argued by Desimone, Smith and Ueno (2006), teacher professional development is at the core of school improvement efforts and is the single largest monetary investment in school reform. It is a crucial component in efforts aimed at improving student performance as teachers have a greater impact than school programs (Sandholtz & Scribner, 2006) and it is believed to be one of the most powerful strategies for bringing about significant changes needed to address challenges in public education (Bredeson, 2000).

Scholars and researchers of professional development have provided various definitions of the concept. Hoyle and John (1995), for instance, refer to professional development as a process by which teachers acquire knowledge, skills and values in order to improve the service they provide to clients. Elsewhere, Guskey (2002) sees professional development as systematic effort to bring about changes in teachers’ classroom practices, attitudes and beliefs, as well as students’ learning outcomes, while Day (1999) emphasises the importance of learning experiences for teachers. Day’s detailed definition of teacher professional development is as follows:
Professional development consists of all natural learning experiences and those conscious and planned activities which are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual, group, or school and which contribute, through these, to the quality of education in the classroom. It is the process by which, alone and with others, teachers review, renew, and extend their commitments as change agents to the moral purposes of teaching, and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues through each phase of their teaching lives. (p. 4).

Bredeson (2000) conceptualises professional development for teachers in terms of its dual purposes: 'as work' and 'at work' (p. 63). Professional development 'as work' recognises that formal learning opportunities for teachers are designed to improve their knowledge, skills and practice, and are legitimate and essential of their work. Such learning opportunities should not be merely treated as superficial and additional programs in the school organisations. The 'at work' professional development views the importance of professional work environments in schools and beyond schools where time, money and institutional supports are in place in order to sustain teacher growth and development.

Whatever the explanations and definitions of professional development, any activities to enhance teacher expertise recognise the role, process and quality of professional learning (e.g. Sandholtz & Scribner, 2006). Thus teacher professional development should not merely be about attending short-term and expert-driven trainings, courses, seminars or workshops with limited follow-up (e.g. Butler et al., 2004; Sandholtz & Scribner, 2006). Instead, the central focus of such development should be sustainable learning (e.g. Knight, 2002; Smylie & Miretzky, 2004) — professional development should be continuous and ongoing with adequate resources and support for further learning (Hawley & Valli, 1999). In fact, teacher learning, as Fullan (2001) believes, is the most demanding aspect of the teaching profession and teacher
professionalism. Such learning should continue beyond teachers’ pre-service and in-service education. This is because today’s teachers work in a more complex and continually changing environment, which may be completely different from what they learn or face in their pre-service education. Fullan (2001) makes further observation about teacher learning by stating bluntly that the ‘new professionalism’ for teachers demands the following types of learning:

...learning how to keep modifying and extending their teaching as research discovers more and more about children’s learning styles, multiple intelligences and ways of understanding; learning how to integrate new technologies into their classrooms; and learning how to interact effectively with adults ‘out there’ to deepen their understandings of and get more support for the students they teach (Fullan, 2001, p. 265).

There are a number of professional development models for teacher learning which are discussed by scholars. Professional development activities that are short-term, training-based, and with passive or little involvement from teachers belong to the so-called ‘traditional model’ (e.g. Burbank & Kauchak, 2003; Butler et al., 2004). The traditional model has some limitations – for example, minimal interaction among teachers, separation from teachers’ daily work, and lack of transfer into classroom practice. Moreover, it does not acknowledge teachers as active participants and as sources of knowledge (Sandholtz & Scribner, 2006). This model, according to Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002), means that change (e.g. through training) is something that is ‘done’ to teachers; that is, teachers are ‘changed’ (p. 948) by outside agents. This is in opposition to what they further describe as ‘change as growth or learning’ where teachers change inevitably through professional activity and teachers are themselves learners who work in a learning community (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002, p. 948).
In another study, Hawley and Valli (1999) propose a more effective professional development model, which supports teacher learning and growth. According to them, effective professional development, among other things, should (1) involve teachers in identifying their learning needs, (2) be organised around collaborative problem-solving, (3) be continuous and supported, and (4) contain rich information in accordance to teachers' needs. Furthermore, professional development programs should enable teachers to see links and benefits between what they are learning and their own classroom practices (Sandholtz & Scribner, 2006), and such programs should include opportunities for teachers to conduct reflective inquiry of their classroom practice through action research (Burbank & Kauchak, 2003).

Elsewhere, Ball and Cohen (1999) state that what teachers need is to have a model of professional development that provides opportunities for more serious and sustained learning of curriculum, their students and their teaching practices, rather than simply updating or keeping up with the latest educational changes in curriculum and assessment. Apparently, many still perceive teaching as a profession that only involves common sense and does not require further learning. Therefore, many professional development programs or activities are following the traditional model and are usually not continuous (Ball & Cohen, 1999). Fullan (2001) has also expressed a similar concern, stating that professional development that facilitates learning communities for teachers are still too few, difficult to get, and even more difficult to sustain.

Professional development, thus, is not simple, easy or instant for teachers. It needs, as Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002) note, a careful consideration of the process by which teachers grow professionally and conditions that could promote such growth.
Based on the literature of professional development discussed in this section, the model of meaningful development for today’s teachers can be summed up as follows:

- It should involve in-depth and long-term learning activities.
- It should be done in collaboration with colleagues and other stakeholders.
- It should be actively sought (by, for instance, the district, school and teachers themselves).
- It should be adequately resourced and supported.
- It should allow and encourage self-reflection.
- It should be relevant with the conditions of school community and classrooms.
- It should aim at improving student performance.

As the data from this study were drawn from English teachers, the next section further examines professionalism in relation to English teachers, as well as their professional development programs and practical strategies.

2.7. English teacher professionalism and professional development

Professionalism and professional development programs for English teachers are desirable and important in all English Language Teaching contexts throughout the world, particularly given the fact that English is now the preferred language of communication in the fields of science, communication, technology, trade and education (Walker, 2001; Senior, 2006). This era of globalisation has resulted in the further spread of English as an international language. Recent economic and employment trends and developments have also changed the way English is used (e.g. Warschauer, 2000). Such trends, as a result,
have led to the changing roles of EFL teachers, their professionalism, as well as types of professional development programs and learning opportunities that EFL teachers might need. More than a decade ago, Lopez (1994), for instance, has noticed that EFL teachers' roles have changed a lot. EFL teachers are no longer referred to as a conductor or a 'drill sergeant' (p. 11); instead, they should act as a learning facilitator and they should be able to manipulate much more information in different areas of knowledge (Lopez, 1994). Furthermore, as Warschauer (2000) observes, today's teachers of English cannot escape the implications of globalisation. EFL teachers, for example, must reconceptualise how they conceive of the link between language and culture. In addition, there is an urgent need for teachers of English 'to be able to write persuasively, critically interpret and analyse information, and carry out complex negotiations and collaborations in English' (Warschauer, 2000, p. 518).

In another discussion, Hedgcock (2002) admitted that language teachers sometimes lack of consensus on what knowing a language means. This lack of consensus does not necessarily mean that second or foreign language teachers also lack knowledge about the language they teach. Instead, language teachers should be 'grammatically, sociolinguistically, discursively, and strategically proficient' in the target language (p. 301). Apart from that, such teachers must have awareness about language learners, processes of learning, approaches to classroom instruction (also in Alatis, 2005), as well as adequate experience and practice in the target language. What is also perceived as crucial for second or foreign language teachers is interactions with the so-called 'language education field' (p. 301) and communications with fellow language teaching professionals. Such interactions and communication, as Hedgcock further reviews, can be
done through informal chats, formal discussions, presentation in conferences and/or seminars, email messages with other teachers, and publications of research papers (Hedgcock, 2002).

It is perhaps not easy to list what professional English language teachers must possess. For example, there are still debates on whether or not native speakers make better language teachers than non-native speakers. Shin (2008) has claimed that while native speakers do have the proficiency in the target language, such proficiency alone is not sufficient qualification for teaching positions — they should have teaching competency. At the same time, however, English teachers who are non-native speakers are required to possess a high level of written and oral proficiency in the language as well as competency in teaching should they want to be considered as professional English teachers.

In other words, foreign language teachers, regardless of their label as native speakers or non-native speakers, should have subject competence and general pedagogical competence (e.g. Oder, 2008). Oder further adds that foreign language teachers should also be aware of the communicative competence, that is the teacher’s ability to communicate in a foreign language in different situations and contexts using speaking, reading, listening and writing skills (p. 238).

Another debate is concerned with the core knowledge that English language teachers are expected to have, i.e. whether or not knowledge about language and how language is learned are more fundamental than knowledge about teaching or vice versa (e.g. Troudi, 2005; Yates & Muchisky, 2003).
This thesis will not further elaborate on matters related to expected and/or required characteristics of the so-called professional English teachers. This is because the concept of ELT teacher professionalism itself is not easy to define and is constantly changing (Oder, 2008). Also, the aim of the current study is to investigate EFL teacher professionalism within the context of Indonesian education – a context which is far from ideal and is characterised with a lot of complex realities, limitations and obstacles in its classroom. Perhaps for Indonesian context, professional English teachers, as briefly summed up by Walker (2001), are sufficient to at least: (1) have educational qualifications, (2) have good subject-matter knowledge, and (3) be skilled practitioners in the classroom.

However, the chapter does examine concerns related to learning opportunities and professional development for EFL teachers. Teacher learning is inevitably crucial for English teacher development and growth. In conceptualising the term ‘teacher learning’, Richards and Farrell (2005) first ask three fundamental questions, namely: (1) What is the nature of teacher knowledge and how is it acquired?; (2) What cognitive processes do language teachers employ while teaching and while learning to teach?; (3) How do experienced and novice teachers differ? (p. 6). Based on these questions, Richards and Farrell explain teacher learning within four concepts. The first concept sees teacher learning as skill learning, which means successful and effective teaching is actually a development of different skills and competencies. Teacher learning as a cognitive process, the second concept, focuses on the teachers’ beliefs and thinking and how their teaching and learning processes are influenced by those beliefs. The next concept views teacher learning as personal construction. This is based on the belief that knowledge is
"actively constructed" instead of "passively received" (p. 6). The fourth concept of teacher learning focuses on the learning as reflective practice and sees the importance of critical examination of one's experiences in teaching.

Any activities and opportunities for professional development for EFL teachers should therefore be linked with teacher learning. A number of areas of professional development for EFL teachers that may be identified include: the development in subject matter knowledge, knowledge of pedagogical expertise, knowledge of oneself as a teacher, knowledge and understanding of the language learners, knowledge about the curriculum and materials in use, knowledge necessary for one's teaching career advancement (Richards & Farrell, 2005).

With regard to practical issues on professional development and learning opportunities for language teachers, Senior (2006) suggests that for EFL teachers, professional learning can occur both formally and informally. Attending workshops and learning from colleagues are examples of formal professional development programs, while "learning on the run" (p. 65) is a kind of informal professional development activity in which teachers share ideas outside class times about their teaching practices. Similar to Senior, Harmer (2001) also points out the importance of formal and informal professional learning for EFL teachers. He has observed that English teachers seeking further qualifications and/or enrolling at a postgraduate course, such as a Master's degree in TESOL, seem to be the recent trends of formal professional development. However, as he further argues, pursuing higher teaching qualifications is not enough. While formal education and training is undoubtedly important, English teachers must also continue to grow professionally by conducting action research, by keeping up with relevant
professional literature, and by developing together with their colleagues or other English teachers in their schools, institutions or learning communities (Harmer, 2001).

Besides the importance of formal and informal learning as listed by Harmer (2001) and Senior (2006), in order for EFL teachers to grow as professionals, Murphey (2003) lists three other tasks for today's language teachers:

- collaborating and researching, particularly for English teachers who find themselves in isolation
- using available technology to stretch the limits of professional development for both language teachers and learners
- volunteering in professional learning by sharing ideas and expertise with other English teachers.

Elsewhere, Ur (2002) has stated that English language teachers should be professional in the sense that they should:

- actively join conferences locally, nationally, and internationally
- have appropriate training and should be committed to their job
- be autonomous and responsible for maintaining their professional standards
- not only be able to speak the language but should also be able to explain how and why the language works the way it does.

In another study, Richards and Farrell (2005) have also emphasised that professional development programs for EFL teachers should serve a longer-term goal; hence, such programs should not follow the traditional model of professional development that focuses only on short-term and expert-driven trainings or workshops.
Richards and Farrell differentiate between training and development. The former is concerned with activities directly focused on language teacher’s present responsibilities, has short-term goals, and the content is either prescribed in methodology books or determined by experts. Contrary to training, the term development aims at facilitating the growth of language teachers’ understanding of teaching and themselves as teachers. Development, unlike training, has a long-term goal and it provides opportunities for teachers to examine and reflect different dimensions of a teacher’s practice (Richards & Farrell, 2005). From this development perspective, English teachers should therefore:

- understand how the process of second language development occurs
- understand how teachers’ roles change according to learners’ needs and teaching context
- understand the kinds of decision-making that occur during lessons
- review the theories and principles in language teaching
- develop an understanding of different styles of teaching
- determine learners’ perceptions of classroom activities.

Acknowledging the importance of both practical training and cultures of learning, reflection and collaboration, Richards and Farrell (2005) further discuss practical strategies for professional development for EFL teachers. They are workshops, self-monitoring, teachers’ support group, teaching journals, peer observations, teaching portfolios, analysis of critical incidents, case analysis, peer coaching, team teaching, and action research. Although not all strategies discussed here were used by Indonesian EFL teachers due to a number of constraints and obstacles, interview data of the current study reveal that most teachers were actually aware of the importance of those professional
development activities for their learning and growth – some of them even made their best effort to apply the practical strategies in EFL teacher professional development discussed in this section, albeit at their own expense.

2.8. Summary

This chapter has reviewed literature on professionalism from a sociological perspective as well as examining the meaning of professionalism in relation to teacher profession and teaching practices – among other things, issues and studies concerning where today’s teachers are positioned within a broad educational policy context, and whether they are being professionalised, deprofessionalised or reprofessionalised. It has also highlighted the notions of professional development programs for teachers in general and for English teachers in particular, and the importance of teacher learning as an essential condition to grow as professionals.

The literature discussed in this chapter has shown ideal concepts and practical strategies for teacher professionalism and development programs, which are crucial for setting up the theoretical framework of this study. The literature is mainly ‘Western’ in nature.

Nevertheless, as revealed from the data later, these theories, abstractions and strategies are at some point too hard to realise or apply, particularly within the context of education policy and practice in the Indonesian education system. There are far too many obstacles and stories at the grassroots level, which perhaps shape Indonesian teacher professionalism in a unique, particular and different way. It is thus necessary to also
explore what makes the present Indonesian education system and its teaching force, an overview of education changes and reforms that have been taking place so far, as well as the conditions of English teaching and teachers in the country. These issues will be the main focus of discussion in the next chapter.
CHAPTER 3

Education in Indonesia

3.1. Introduction

This study focuses on the teaching profession and EFL teacher professionalism within the Indonesian education system, policy and practice, in the case of an Indonesian Municipality, Salatiga, in Central Java. Besides reviewing literature in profession and professionalism as discussed in the previous chapter, it is as well considered crucial to explore the conditions of education and the teaching force to better understand the context of the study in Indonesia in general. Chapter 3 focuses on these issues. The first section of this chapter discusses the history of education in Indonesia, because history plays a critical role in the making of the nation’s contemporary education.

The next section of Chapter 3 overviews the education system in general, including the types of schooling and its common realities and problems. This section also discusses changes and reforms that have been taking place and that have continually shaped the education system, policy and practice. As the study is about teachers, a section about Indonesian teaching force and teachers is also presented. A brief review of the latest law on teacher professionalism (Law Number 14/2005) follows after that. The next section then focuses on language education in Indonesia, particularly with regard to
English Language teaching (ELT) because the data were mostly sourced from English teachers. A brief summary ends Chapter 3.

3.2. Indonesian education: a historical perspective

Indonesia is a country made up of more than 17,000 islands, whose population exceeds 230 million, and whose people come from remarkably diverse ethnic and linguistic backgrounds. Dealing with education in Indonesia is not a simple matter; politicians and policy-makers have always faced a dilemma of how to accommodate such huge diversity without undermining national cohesion (Bjork, 2003). Since the establishment of the nation, education has always been one of the most problematic and challenging sectors and its quality has mostly been relatively low (e.g. King, 1998; Purwadi & Muljoatmodjo, 2000). It can be argued that such ongoing problems and challenges can actually be examined from the perspective of the nation’s history – how the country and its education system were founded and are shaped the way they are now.

3.2.1. Education prior to Dutch colonialisation

Indonesia has a long history of colonialisation by the Dutch interspersed with a brief occupation by the Japanese. Nevertheless, the arrival of Islam by Persian and Gujarati traders in the 11th century and the Portuguese and Spain in the early 16th century also contributed to contemporary phenomena in education in Indonesia. Soemanto and Soeyarno (1983) have noted that one of the earliest education forms was
the establishment of langgar (a small Islamic prayer house) where a regular course of reading and writing in Arabic was usually conducted. A more in-depth Islamic education was later conducted in an Islamic boarding school (pesantren), in which teachers and students lived under the same roof. Pesantren students mostly learn religious studies taught by Islamic clerics. To put it more precisely, pesantren is an Islamic institution where Islamic clerics act as teachers and teach classical Islamic knowledge written in classical Islamic books. More advanced students in pesantren are taught Islamic sciences such as interpretation of the Koran, Islamic history, and theology for missionary purposes, whereas those less advanced students usually learn basic religious knowledge and rites (Syafi'i, 2005). However, in pesantren students also learn general knowledge and life-skill knowledge to prepare them to work when they graduate. The pesantren school system is believed to be the first Indonesia's system of mass education (Bjork, 2005) and it still exists in Indonesia up until now; it is normally a five-year period of study (Soemanto & Soeyarno, 1983).

Later on, during the colonial government, pesantren developed into the so-called Madrasah system of schooling as a strategy to attract more students (Syafi'i, 2005). Although Madrasah is also Islamic-based, unlike pesantren, Madrasah students do not have to stay in a boarding school. In addition, the emphasis is more on general studies instead of religious studies. The levels of Madrasah schooling is the same as those within general schooling: kindergarten, primary, middle and high school (Soemanto & Soeyarno, 1983).

In early 16th century the Portuguese became the first Western nation to arrive in Indonesia, followed by Spain. They first arrived in the Molucca Islands in the eastern part
of the archipelago, well-known for its spices. Included in the Portuguese fleet were Catholic missionaries. Those missionaries founded schools and seminaries for local people and conducted social work. The missionaries were usually the teachers in those schools. Although there were continuous resistance movements by the local Sultan, it was believed that Catholic schools around this time made significant contributions for the Moluccan people, both for their work in education and in social work (Soemanto & Soeyarno, 1983). The arrival of the Portuguese indeed marked the first Catholic education system in Indonesia – a system that is still relatively popular albeit among the upper middle classes.

3.2.2. Education under the Dutch colonial government

Despite the important influence of Islamic and Catholic education systems prior to 16th century, it is perhaps the Dutch that influenced the nation’s education system to the greatest extent. Mauldin (1961) has argued in his dissertation that the long period of Dutch colonialisation indeed played a basic role in shaping the current education policies (Tilaar, 1995). In fact, prior to Dutch colonialisation period, there were no actual educational policies in the archipelago. Writing in a time when colonial systems were either abolished or disguised, he confirmed that none of the colonial policies had affected the progress of the colonised nations more than the educational policies because, to a large extent, such education policies determined the readiness of the people for independence. The education system introduced by the colonial power did determine and shape the type of education which the new nation would soon establish (Mauldin, 1961).
During the Dutch colonial period, the education system was aimed at maintaining and increasing the power of the Dutch government (Purwadi & Muljoatmodjo, 2000; Tilaar, 1995) and the local Indonesians had very little opportunities to receive any kind of formal education (Mauldin, 1961). In fact, it was not until 1854 that the colonial government made real provision of education for either the Dutch nationals or indigenous people.

The history of education in Indonesia around this time was also influenced by the so-called 'Ethical Policy' movement in late 19\textsuperscript{th} century (e.g. Tilaar, 1995; http://www.country-data.com). According to Tilaar's review of the history of education in Indonesia, an essay titled 'A Debt of Honour' by Van Deventer served as the embryo of this movement. In his essay, Van Deventer argued that the Netherlands had a moral responsibility to return all the profits that had been made from exploiting the crops from the colony. He believed that the profits should be invested in welfare and education instead. When the liberal government won the election in 1901, this idea became the basis of the Ethical Policy – a policy where the main goal, along with improvements in agriculture and transmigration, was improvement and expansion of educational opportunities. This policy also led to the growing of awareness of how Indonesians were being exploited by the colonial government; furthermore, it also led to the birth of the Indonesian independence movement (see Tilaar, 1995 for instance).

Despite the good intentions of the Ethical Policy, it was believed that the achievements of such policy were much more modest (http://users.skynet.be/network.indonesia). For example, public education was only established through a system in village schools in 1906. By 1913, there were only 3,500
schools for a population of more than 36 million (http://www.country-data.com). In addition, the education system was selective and discriminative, and separate school systems were run to serve three different groups of people: the Europeans, the Indonesians and the ethnic Chinese (e.g. Tilaar, 1995). The majority of Indonesian children still had little chance of entering schools (Bjork, 2005). The colonial government provided education only for a few Indonesians to be trained in administration and vocational skills. Those people would in turn be expected to support the colonial government’s business interests (Purwadi & Muljoatmodjo, 2000). Education during the Dutch colonial government was also characterised by centralisation. All matters and policies concerning education became the responsibility of a colonial government body called Departement van Onderwijs en Eerediens (Department of Education and Religious Affairs). This department had offices in major provinces in Indonesia whose main duty was to provide education for the native people (Tilaar, 1995).

In another study, Syafi’i (2005) has observed that the expansion of education by the colonial government between 1848 to 1900 was due to the increased demand for literate and educated labour for expanding the economy, for increasing the efficiency of colonial administration, as well as for reducing antagonism between the European and the native people (Mauldin, 1961). Such was understandable in the structure of a colonial society. Education, as a matter of fact, was of little importance to the colonial government officials because their principal goal in the colony was financial gain – the colonial government could not see how expenditures in education would increase that financial gain (Mauldin, 1961).
During the period of colonialisation, it was the Christian missions which finally became aware of their duties to educate the native Indonesians. Missions were established that set up good schools, particularly in the Molucca Islands, North Sumatra and North Sulawesi (Soemanto & Soeyarno, 1983). During the Dutch colonial period, there were at least two impacting factors related to schooling. Firstly, as Mauldin (1961) observed, there were a greater number of schools in Sumatra and Sulawesi than in Java and Madura, even though the latter two islands had at least two-thirds of the population. This was because the Christian missionaries mostly settled in Sumatra and Sulawesi—hence, they set up more Christian schools in those islands. In addition, schools outside Java enrolled many girls whereas those in Java enrolled mostly boys, who were trained to be lower officials. In this case, Mauldin believed that a religious aspect played a role in Java where there were a significant number of adherents of Islam—girls were not encouraged with the same opportunities as boys. On the other hand, missionary schools in Sumatra and Sulawesi usually worked to elevate the position of women and therefore encouraged education for girls.

Secondly, as noted by Purwadi and Muljoatmodjo (2000), prior to 1900 there were obviously different social classes in the schooling systems. The highest status were primary and advanced schools for European descendents, followed by public primary and special schools for the native population of noble status. The lowest status was vocational schooling for both European descendents and native people. Discrimination in schooling systems still occurred after 1900 (Tilhaar, 1995). During this period, there were primary and secondary levels of schooling. For primary level, the schools consisted of two types: schools with Dutch as the medium of instruction and those using local languages.
Primary schools using Dutch were for three different types of students: schools for European descendents, schools for Asians other than Indonesians, and schools for native Indonesians. Primary schools using local languages were also broken into three categories: five-year primary schools, three-year native village schools, and two-year advanced village schools. As for secondary level of schooling, the discrimination was even more serious. There were only two types of secondary schools: public secondary for European descendents and general secondary schools for native Indonesians and those of other Asian descendents (Purwadi & Muljoatmodjo, 2000). Village students, as a result, were very unlikely to enrol to secondary schools.

Provision of education in the colonial period, unfortunately, suffered from lack of funds and qualified teachers and this resulted in the development of independent schools that did not receive subsidies from the government (Bjork, 2005). The pioneer of such schools was Ki Hadjar Dewantara, who in 1922 established a schooling system commonly referred to as Taman Siswa. Taman Siswa covered nearly all levels of schooling system, including teachers' training colleges (Tilaar, 1995). Taman Siswa, as reviewed by Tilaar (2005), was meant to be a political movement because Ki Hadjar Dewantara believed that education was an effective means and strategy to fight against the colonial government. Later on the country witnessed the development of Taman Siswa and Ki Hadjar Dewantara was considered to be the founding father of modern education of Indonesia (see Tilaar, 1995 & Tilaar, 2005 for more details about Taman Siswa).

Alongside political movements the establishment and development of independent schools such as Taman Siswa was due to a combination of other factors:
limited access for the natives to enrol at Dutch schools, a desire for teacher training and further employment for the local people, and a desire to establish a type of education that was uniquely Indonesian and that encouraged Indonesians to formulate their own ideas. Independent schools were referred to as ‘wild schools’ by the Dutch government because, without the government’s permission and guidelines, such schools could not be established (Bjork, 2005; Tilaar, 1995).

Education during the colonial period, as detailed by Syafi’i (2005) in his study on Madrasah, also witnessed the birth of the dualistic education system that exists in today’s Indonesia: the development of the religious system of education or Madrasah (managed by the Ministry of Religious Affairs) versus the development of general schooling or Sekolah (managed by the Ministry of National Education). As mentioned earlier, the latter education system was developed by and expanded rapidly under the colonial government in order to provide more literate and skilled labours in response to the booming of economy around that time. The government thus had to produce a number of policies that supported the education expansion and development. This proved to be attractive to the local people because they could secure government positions once they graduated from the colonial schools (Mauldin, 1961).

The development of the colonial schools resulted in resistance by Muslim leaders. This led them to reform their religious and traditional system of education, a reformation that finally gave away to the development of Madrasah schooling system. The initial aim of such a system was to resist the colonial education system which was thought to have ignored the spiritual development of the students even though it nurtured their intellectual and technical aspects (Syafi’i, 2005).
During the Japanese occupation, education was run differently – or as Mauldin (1961) put it, it was radically revolutionised; it was fascist and militaristic in nature. Schools around this period were organised to support the Japanese war effort and the goal of creating the so-called ‘Greater East-Asia co-prosperity Sphere’ (Bjork, 2005) and students received little more than skills in physical exercises and military training (e.g. Soemanto & Soeyarno, 1983; Tilaar, 1995). Moreover, education around the occupation of the Japanese was aimed at facilitating the formation of an economic region led by Japan (Purwadi & Muljoatmodjo, 2000). The Japanese intended to replace the Dutch to become the dominating power in Indonesia and to impose the Japanese culture on the indigenous people – hence the imprisonment of the Dutch teachers and the ban of the Dutch language (Mauldin, 1961).

Although it was during this period of history that the education system became less stratified and less discriminative (Tilaar, 1995) and the Malay language finally became a prominent medium of instructional at schools (Purwadi & Muljoatmodjo, 2000), the quantity and quality of education experienced a significant decline (Bjork, 2005) because a number of schools formerly run by the Dutch government and missions were closed down. Mauldin (1961) has observed that financially, morally and emotionally the Japanese occupation, albeit over a very short period of time, had produced a great devastation for the nation, including in the education sector. As far as education is concerned, the only positive contributions by the Japanese were the elimination of stratification system which differentiated between education for the...
European people and that for the native Indonesians (Tilaar, 1995), and the permission to conduct lessons in the Malay language in schools across the archipelago – a reform which eventually stimulated the development of the national language, Indonesian (Mauldin, 1961).

3.2.4. Summary

It is obvious that, although formal schooling system did develop under the Dutch colonialisation and the Japanese occupation, schools were established to merely serve the needs and interests of the occupying power. The education systems were selective and discriminatory, and the majority of indigenous people had little opportunity and choice in education. The period after Indonesia became independent in 1945 and then became a sovereign state in December 1949 marked a new era of the country’s history. It was also a turning point for the development of national education. The next section of this chapter outlines the development of the country’s education system in post-colonial period.

3.3. An overview of education system in Indonesia during post-colonial times

The proclamation of Independence on 17 August, 1945 automatically led to plans by prominent national leaders to rebuild the country, including in the field of education. Being considered crucial, the education sector was included in the preamble of the 1945 Constitution (Undang-Undang Dasar 1945) created after Independence. The Constitution serves as the basic law under which all future laws were to conform (e.g. Cohen, 2000;
Thomas, 1990); this includes the first fundamental yet ‘imperfect’ Education Law issued in 1950 and later revised by Law Number 12 in 1954 (Thomas, 1990, p. 8), the Education Law Number 2 of 1989 which, as Cohen (2000; 2001) has noted, sets into place the modern system for education in Indonesia, and Law Number 22 and 25 of 1999 which concern education decentralisation. It is clearly written in the preamble of the Constitution that educating the people and providing educational services for everyone should be a national goal. It is further stated in Chapter 31 of the Constitution that each citizen is entitled to receive an education and the government shall conduct a national system of education regulated by law.

Upon gaining independence, the first priority in the education field was to address the problem of illiteracy because there was only seven per cent literacy out of a total population of 80 million; the leaders and politicians believed that raising the literacy rate was a significant first-hand movement for improving the social and educational standards of the country and for guaranteeing a successful democracy (Mauldin, 1961) for a new nation. Consequently, the period after independence witnessed the rapid development of schooling, particularly that of primary schooling (e.g. Newhouse & Beegle, 2005) and the effort to eliminate illiteracy (Mauldin, 1961).

Another characteristic of education in post-colonial times has been the attempt to ‘break free from the past’ (Bjork, 2005, p. 44). National leaders and educational thinkers saw the need to determine what principles should underlie the educational policy of the new country. They decided that the new educational system should revive the national heritage but at the same time also attempt to foster economic and social developments; the new national education system should also be different in terms of content and
method from that of the colonial time (Mauldin, 1961). Learning from past experiences, architects of the first Indonesian schooling systems rejected the Dutch conception of education and tried to create school institutions that were anti-elitist, anti-discriminatory and anti-capitalistic (Bjork, 2005).

Nevertheless the dual education system – between general schools and Madrasah schools – still existed in post-colonial time, and Syafi’i (2005) has observed that such a system retained the colonial legacy from the past. This was because general schools were managed by the Ministry of Education, whereas Madrasahs were under the Ministry of Religious Affairs because the latter fell into the category of Islamic education. Besides the effort to break free from the colonial past, the so-called dual system of education, i.e. the separation between general schools and Madrasah schools, also characterises contemporary education in Indonesia. According to Syafi’i (2005), such a system actually retained the colonial legacy that separated the two types of schooling; general schools were managed by the Ministry of Education whereas Madrasahs were managed by the Ministry of Religious Affairs because the latter fell into the category of Islamic education. This dual system of education is still in practice today.

Post-colonial education was also marked by the lack of education experts and teachers because, after the war, the Dutch teachers returned to the Netherlands. In fact, the government had to provide emergency training courses for Indonesians and appoint foreign consultants and instructors until sufficient and qualified Indonesian personnel were available (Mauldin, 1961). Another problem was the wide gap between education and schooling provision and attendance in Java’s predominantly urban population and
that of rural population; it was revealed that 90% of people living in rural areas had never attended schools (Cowell & Holsinger, 1985).

The country’s effort to expand educational opportunities following its independence was proven to be quite successful. As acknowledged by the World Bank (World Bank, 2004), education in Indonesia after Independence has made significant achievement in terms of: (1) rapid expansion of enrolment; (2) upgrade of the labour force and reduction of wage differentials; (3) more trust and reliance upon private sectors to manage education; (4) success to narrow the gender gap in education; and (5) decentralisation of major delivery functions of primary education.

Nevertheless, the effort to break free from the colonial past was not as successful since Indonesia was still bound by the colonial education system and in a lot of ways still relied heavily on the ‘old colonial schooling system’ – the very system from which the new nation wanted to distance itself. The Indonesian state education system was actually created in accordance with a colonial model inherited from the Netherlands (Nilan, 2003). Additionally, the provision of education in the post-colonial era was still unable to meet the socio-economic needs of the country (Mauldin, 1961) despite the government’s attempt to massively expand education and combat illiteracy. Yet many believed that the new education system after the country’s independence should be an instrument of unification given its huge diversity in geography, socio-economic status, language, culture and custom. Beside their usual tasks of literacy and numeracy instruction, schools should also fulfil the task to transmit the fundamentals of the ideal national ‘Indonesian’ characters (Cowell & Holsinger, 1985).
Post-colonial times did see the expansion of education in the country (e.g. Jones & Hagul, 2001; World Bank, 1998; World Bank, 2004). Yet, as the next section in this chapter discusses, problems and challenges in terms of quality have always been part of the national education system (e.g. Van Der Werf, Creemers, De Jong & Klaver, 2000). Policy and curriculum changes and reforms in the education sector are not uncommonly seen as a panacea to cure the problems. These problems seem to persist, particularly after the monetary crisis that hit the country in 1997; the crisis has led to the government’s policy to cut budget for the education sector (Jones & Hagul, 2001). The following part of this chapter explores contemporary education in Indonesia, which claims to emphasise the quality improvement of human resource development and its dynamic links with the society, business and industry (Purwadi & Muljoatmodjo, 2000) but which is characterised by underfunding and various policy and curriculum changes—changes that affect not only on the quality of students, schooling and its management, but also teachers themselves.

3.4. Contemporary education in Indonesia

Schooling in Indonesia, particularly primary schooling, has been developing rapidly since the country’s independence in 1945. The peak of such development occurred in 1970s, mainly due to the 1973 oil windfall (e.g. World Bank, 1998; World Bank, 2004). The government of Indonesia used the revenue from the windfall to largely finance the construction of an extensive primary schooling program. There has been a steady increase in elementary school net enrolments, from around 76 percent in 1970s to
91.5 percent by 1995 (e.g. Granado, Fengler, Ragatz & Yavuz, 2007; Newhouse & Beegle, 2005; World Bank, 2004). The rise of primary school enrolments has been accompanied by that of secondary school enrolments, from 18 percent in early 1970s to 70 percent in 1997 (World Bank, 1998). Recently, Granado et al. (2007) have reported that in 2005 the net enrolment rate was 91 percent for primary education and 62 percent for secondary education. By 2009 Indonesia has a target to reach 100 percent gross enrolment rate at the primary schooling and 96 percent at the secondary schooling (Granado et al., 2007).

Indonesia, according to a study conducted by Jones and Hagul (2001), has actually achieved universal primary education as the majority of school-age children are enrolled at schools. It is, nevertheless, 'universal' only in the sense that almost all children spend some time in primary school, regardless of the quality. As reported by the World Bank (2007), the quality of education in Indonesia is of serious concern. Some of the reasons behind the low quality of education, as summed up by King (1998), are stagnant per-pupil spending, unqualified and many poorly trained teachers, poor monitoring and feedback systems, few incentives and a poor reward system for doing things better.

A report by the World Bank in 2007 has revealed that in terms of quality access to education and health, Indonesia continues to under-perform if compared with its neighbouring countries. This is despite the country's on-going effort to restore its macroeconomic and financial stability, and the fact that its economic growth has increased from 3.8 percent in 2001 to 5.6 percent in 2005 (World Bank, 2007). In general, the quality of education in Indonesia is still low and education infrastructure is
deteriorating (Granado et al., 2007). Furthermore, inequities in distribution of education (e.g. between the rich regions and the disadvantaged ones, between urban and rural schools, or between privileged and under-privileged schools), occur in many parts of the country (e.g. Nuryatno, 2005). Rural schools in particular suffer from ineffective allocations of teachers, poor distribution of school materials, as well as insufficient facilities (e.g. Granado et al., 2007; World Bank, 2004). In sum, despite Indonesia’s impressive increase of enrolment at the national level, it is evident that there are disparities of educational access, service, provision and quality between provinces and among districts and municipalities within provinces (World Bank, 2004).

Another report by the World Bank (1998) makes the list longer by highlighting some other problems commonly found in Indonesia. Poorly trained teachers in subject matter and teaching practices, low salary for teachers which later encourages some of them to ‘moonlight’, overloaded and un-integrated curriculum, insufficient or otherwise poor-quality resources, or the low quality and quantity of textbooks and materials, are common in schools around the country, says the Report (World Bank, 1998). For schools in poor communities or remote areas, problems are worse. Those problems, in turn, have resulted in the relatively poor outcomes of the educational system and unsatisfactory enrolment in secondary or further education (Van Der Werf et al., 2000).

Chapter 31 verse 4 of the 1945 Constitution has stated that the governments (central and local) should give priority to education funding by allocating at least 20 percent of their GNP for the education sector (e.g. Faiz, 2006). The funding is to be mainly used for financing education services and provisions; it does not include funding for teachers’ salaries. Despite the government’s intention to continually develop the
quality of education through various efforts, such as giving more attention and assistance to improve teachers’ qualifications (e.g. Bukhori, 2006; Van Der Werf, 2000), general education in Indonesia is still under-funded. As has been widely reported in the media or by non-government organisations, public spending on education has never met the mandated level – for example, in 2004 only as little as 1.4% of the total GNP was allocated to fund education (e.g. Bayhaqi, 2004). In recent years, strong public support and pressure through Parliament to improve educational quality has led the government of Indonesia to amend its Constitution in 2003 - 20 percent of government spending should now be directed to education (World Bank, 2007). This is confirmed in Chapter 49 verse 1 of Law Number 20 of 2003 regarding the new national education system. It is clearly stated in the Law that the education sector should receive 20 percent of the government spending (e.g. Depdiknas, 2003; Faiz, 2006).

Today, it is reported that spending in education has been rising steadily and is expected to increase further. Indonesia now spends 16.5% of its budget on education; such a spending shows the government’s commitment to improve the quality of education. However, if compared with neighbouring countries, the spending level is still relatively low. The data from the World Bank reveal that Malaysia and Thailand, for instance, invest more in education. Indonesia, in contrast, spends the lowest. This has resulted in deterioration of many school buildings (e.g. only 44% of classrooms in the country meet the minimum standards set up by the Ministry of Education) as well as students’ low learning outcomes (World Bank, 2007).

That educational budgets would come under heavy pressure should come as no surprise. For years, the Indonesian government has been struggling hard to pay off its
enormous debt – a condition which was later made severe by the monetary crisis that hit the country in 1997 and whose impacts still remain today. Other critical issues, such as terrorism and defence, have also made it quite impossible for the government to allocate 20% of its revenues for education sector as mandated in the Constitution (Jones & Hagul, 2001). This is also confirmed by the World Bank, which stated that implementing the 20% education mandate is unrealistic and problematic at both the central and local level of government (World Bank, 2007).

The recent law on the national education system is Law Number 20/2003 (Depdiknas, 2003). Like the previous laws on education system, this Law is also regarded to be imperfect by some scholars. Nuryatno (2005), for instance, believes that the Law still discriminates the poor and disabled people. There has been a growing concern that public education has become more and more expensive nowadays. In addition, the latest Law in education does not give relatively enough opportunities for learners to develop their critical thinking; students are now directed to always comply with corporate values instead of expressing themselves as free individuals (Nuryatno, 2005).

According to Law 20 of 2003, formal education system in Indonesia consists of two years of kindergarten and six years of primary school. Graduates from primary school continue with secondary education; secondary education is divided into junior and senior levels, which comprise of 3 years each. This is followed by different types of higher or tertiary education, such as academies, polytechnics, and universities (e.g. Musthafa, 2002). Children usually start school at the age of seven. Since 1993, the government has provided a nine-year basic education program (Jones & Hagul, 2001) and in 1994, the program was declared universal. The aim was to provide all children
aged 7-15 years with basic education by 2004, an aim thought to be too ambitious by some despite (e.g. Purwadi & Muljoatmodjo, 2000).

In terms of provision of education, schooling in Indonesia is supplied by both government and non-government bodies at different costs to families. Existing schooling systems in Indonesia also differ with regard to religious affiliations (usually Islam, Catholic or Protestant), academic or vocational contents, or even quality and academic standards. Pearse (1977) believes that different parental choices and demands for their children schooling actually show disparities in terms of parents' income, educational backgrounds and residence (e.g. urban or rural). The following section briefly describes schooling systems that are commonly present in Indonesia, particularly in relation to public and private education.

3.4.1. Public and private schooling

The government is the major provider and financier of education in Indonesia. Public schools are run, financed and controlled by the government and those schools are thus accountable to the government. Private schools are run by organisations or foundations (usually with certain religious affiliations) and are accountable to both the government and their organisations. The government provides only a little assistance to private institutions – for example, by placing public-service teachers if needed. Despite this fact, Bangay (2005) in his study highlights the importance of private education and believes that private schools will continue to play a major role in Indonesia's education for the foreseeable future due to the financial constraints that the country is facing.
In their study, Bedi and Garg (2000) found that nearly 75% of all students at all levels of education attend public schools, and almost 97% of primary enrolment is in public schools. Nevertheless, private institutions also contribute significantly to the provision of education even though the share varies depending on the level of education. Their study has revealed that the higher the level of education, the bigger is the share of the private sector (also in Purwadi & Muljoatmodjo, 2000). Jones and Hagul (2001) argue that such a pattern is appropriate in the Indonesian context because the government can be freed from financing higher levels of education and can instead concentrate on the compulsory lower levels of the education system. Private institutions, thus, help ease the government’s burden in education services and provisions.

Private schools are either run by religious (mainly Muslim, Catholic and Protestant) or secular organisations and they usually have a smaller number of students than public schools. Despite having a distinct characteristic as ‘private’, this type of schooling does not necessarily mean ‘rich’. In fact, unlike public schools whose teachers’ salaries are supplied by the government, private schools are more vulnerable to economic downturns because they have to pay the teachers’ salaries from the school fees (Jones & Hagul, 2001). Hence, private schools depend a lot on annual student intake. As a matter of fact, in the 1990s as many as 2,000 private schools were forced to close because enrolment was low in those schools (Jones & Hagul, 2001).

Using labour market earnings as their measures, Bedi and Garg (2000) conducted a study on the effectiveness of private versus public schools in Indonesia. Their findings reveal that private schools perform better in the labour market although public schools almost always perform better in the national examination. They concluded that greater
participation from private institutions is needed in the education sector in Indonesia (Bedi & Garg, 2000).

In another study, Newhouse and Beegle (2005) examine the effect of school type on academic achievement, in which achievement is measured by how students score in their national examination. Contrary to an earlier study, they found out that public schools are more effective than private schools at imparting cognitive skills. Nevertheless, a further study on the centralistic national examination is needed as it is in itself controversial and many critics in education still believe that national examination scores cannot measure students' achievement.

Both studies, however, confirm that private schools are better managed. Bedi and Garg, in particular, mention that in most cases, inputs and physical structure are similar in both types of schools yet principals in private schools have greater autonomy. They further suggest that merely channelling more resources to schools, as often the case with public schools, does not automatically increase the schools' effectiveness (Bedi & Garg, 2000). Apparently, in terms of managing resources as effectively as possible, private schools excel their public counterparts even though they might score lower in the national examination. Unfortunately, the two studies did not focus on differences between teachers working at public schools and those at private schools – for example, whether or not private school teachers were better managed as well.

Nevertheless, research by Chamidi suggests that schools run by private institutions have more complicated management systems because they have to be accountable to both their organisations and the government, and thus in some cases, many private schools do not perform well, both in management and in the students'
achievement in the national examination. He further describes the role of private education as ‘important but still needs improvement with regard to quality’ (Chamidi, 2002).

Despite different findings from studies on public versus private schooling in Indonesia, scholars and practitioners seem to agree that private education plays an important role in Indonesia. With the many trends, reforms and changes in education and along with the monetary crisis in 1997, political turbulence in 1998, and the rapid emergence of pressures for decentralisation in 1999, Indonesia’s education system faces many problems as well as challenges. Both public and private schools are affected by these circumstances. The following section will further explore this issue.

3.4.2. Changes and reforms in Indonesia’s contemporary education

Indonesia has witnessed changes and reforms in education policies as initiated and mandated by policy-makers, although in many cases those changes are nothing but another cycle of relabelling and renaming existing policy and practice. Curriculum decentralisation in 1994, school-based management reform, and education standardisation through national examination in early 2000, are among the changes that have been taking place. In addition, the government has been experimenting with the national curriculum. For example, the so-called competency-based curriculum to be implemented in 2004 was finally discontinued and a new curriculum was then introduced in 2006 (e.g. Budiwalujo, 2006; Sukrisna, 2006). The data from interviews with English
teachers reveal that curriculum changes do create confusion and affect teacher professionalism (see Chapter 6).

It is understood that changes, reforms and innovations do aim at improving education of a nation. Although implementation of new policies or education reforms at the grassroots level is sometimes not as satisfactory as is first expected, those changes usually address aspects related to education, such as issues of quality and equity. In his working paper, Cohen (2000) lists five key areas that will continue to be addressed by changes in educational law, regulations and policies in Indonesia. Those key areas are:

- access to education, by increasing junior secondary enrolment by 100% and maintaining 100% enrolment for primary education
- equity in education, by providing alternative and non-formal educational delivery for less populated areas
- quality of education, by investing more in teacher training and education and provision of textbooks
- education efficiency, by attempting to operate at lower unit costs
- institutional strengthening, by giving training to related educational stakeholders in terms of educational planning, program development and program implementation.

With regard to policy changes in education, perhaps decentralisation policy and school-based management reforms have been the one of the highlights of the nation’s contemporary education in recent years despite the fact that they are actually not novel strategies in education management and provision. In fact, a common view of Indonesia’s decentralisation is ‘a swinging pendulum from centralisation to decentralisation back and
The release of Law 22/1999 on the devolution of political authority to regional/local government and Law 25/1999 on the fiscal balance between the central government and the local regions (e.g. Aspinall & Fealy, 2003) have marked a new beginning of decentralisation in Indonesia. In a nutshell, motivations behind Indonesia’s decentralisation reform appear to be triggered by various political and economic events that happen in Indonesia: the political crisis due to regional conflicts and the fiscal/monetary crisis that hit the country in 1997 (Shah & Thomson, 2004).

The national decentralisation reform has also affected the education sector. This is because with Law 22/1999, functions such as education and culture, health, public works, agricultural development, communications, environment, land management, capital investment, labour, cooperatives, manufacturing and trading are devolved to districts (kabupaten), municipalities (kotamadya), sub-districts (kecamatan), or villages (desa). Other functions such as justice, defence, police, monetary policy, development planning and finance remain in the hands of the central government, whereas provincial governments are only given a minor coordinating role (Shah & Thomson, 2004). Thus, as of 1 January, 2001, each region is responsible for its educational provision and funding.

Decentralisation policies have indeed changed the landscape of Indonesia’s education and schooling. Following basic laws, the Ministry of Education released a guideline for implementing decentralisation at the school level (i.e. school-based management reform) to address problems of national schooling (Depdiknas, 2000). Advocates of education decentralisation strongly believe that devolving authority to school level will lead to better school performance, greater school autonomy, greater
parental and community involvement, and a more sensible match between the educational services delivered and students' needs (Depdiknas, 2000).

In Indonesia, school-based management direction has brought reforms and changes in education given the country's long history of centralised bureaucracy – a system that has resulted in a culture of dependence among education bureaucrats and practitioners (Syafi'i, 2005). Thus, the successful implementation of decentralisation at the school level should be continuously questioned and even challenged. For schools with professional and qualified principals and teachers, strong financial support from parents and community, and good networks with business links and sponsorship, there will be no problems implementing the school-based management. However, schools which lack support will find it hard to cope with the reform.

Koster (2000) conducted a study on four junior secondary schools in Jakarta shortly after the school-based management policy was issued. One of his findings, among others, was that, in general, school principals still lack managerial skills. This is due to the old centralised practice in which principals were selected not because of their leadership and managerial capability but because of their high ranking in the public service hierarchy. Koster stressed that with school-based management reform, principals should be given leadership and managerial training. In addition, his study also reveals that participation from parents was still relatively low despite the fact that parental participation is one important factor that could determine the success or failure of school-based management (Koster, 2000).

In other research, Bjork (2003) examined the responses of the local actors (i.e. teachers). He conducted ethnographic fieldwork in six junior high schools in East Java...
for 17 months. Bjork in particular examined the over-centralised system of education in Indonesia in the past and how nowadays the government has tended to be a lot less centralised. Despite the intended reforms and changes, he doubted if the local actors in education, particularly the schoolteachers, were actually ready to be completely independent (or autonomous) in making decisions in the era of decentralisation. He commented that the government has eagerly embraced educational decentralisation without careful studies at the school level beforehand (Bjork, 2003).

Bjork’s research also indicates that teachers do not seem to show enthusiasm toward autonomy for a variety of reasons. One of the reasons is the culture of civil servants who, for many decades, have been used to serving and being loyal to the government, and not to education itself - such a culture, apparently, has been a tradition since the counts of the Dutch occupation. This type of culture places emphasis on teachers as government employees rather than as educators. Furthermore, previous policies which showed tendency towards educational centralisation seemed to make teachers become more accustomed to receiving or following orders from the centre than actively participating or being creative and innovative. This shows that, despite the policy trend towards teacher autonomy, Indonesian teachers may not yet be ready to be completely autonomous; in most cases they still rely on directives from principals or other superiors. Bjork’s study further implies that, whatever the reforms are and no matter how good they are, if actors at the school level are not ready (or not well prepared) and do not respond positively, such changes and reforms are useless. In the case of Indonesia, sometimes it is not the policy or curriculum that goes wrong. Instead, it is the culture, perception or beliefs of the educational actors that matter more (Bjork, 2003).
The most recent law in education released by the government, Law 14/2005, deals with matters concerning the teaching profession and teacher professionalism (Depdiknas, 2005). This new policy will undoubtedly affect teachers directly. Law Number 14, which details the definition of the teaching profession, principles of teacher professionalism, teacher status, rewards, competence and certification, was finally approved by the parliament in December 2005 (e.g. Lie, 2006; Naja, 2006). Prior to its issuance, this Law was initially advised by the Indonesian Teachers’ Association (PGRI) in their 18th congress in 1998. The Teachers’ Association had been expressing their concerns because specific laws to protect the teaching profession and teachers’ right were absent. Moreover, the teaching profession was thought to suffer from discrimination, particularly in comparison with other professions. On top of that, the Teachers’ Association also felt that Indonesian teachers had not yet received proper status, rewards and protection in law – hence, the necessity for a specific law for teachers. It took seven years of lengthy discussions, presentations and lobbying from members of the Teachers’ Association before the Law was finalised and eventually approved in December 2005 (Pengurus Besar PGRI, 2006).

According to Law 14/2005, a teacher is defined as ‘a professional educator whose main jobs are to educate, teach, supervise, direct, train, assess, and evaluate students at elementary and secondary levels of formal schooling.’ The law also defines ‘profession’ in Chapter 1, verse 4, as ‘one’s occupation or activity which becomes his/her main financial source, which needs special expertise, skills, and knowledge, which should meet
certain standards and norms, and which requires professional education and training’ (Depdiknas, 2005).

In general, the definition in the Law has captured the notion of professionalism as theorised and abstracted by (Western) scholars discussed in the previous chapter (see Section 2.5). In practice, however – as the interview data later reveal – teacher professionalism in Indonesia still faces a lot of challenges and defining ‘professionalism’ in the Indonesian education context is not a simple matter. This issue will be further explored in the discussion and findings chapter, Chapter 6.

Responses from the general public and educators regarding the new Law have been mixed. On the one hand, some express their optimistic attitudes by stating that the release of the law will impact positively on teachers for at least three reasons: (1) providing a legal and formal ‘umbrella’ and hence security for the teaching profession – something which has been absent for many years, (2) improving the lives of teachers in terms of status and salary, and (3) improving the quality of education in Indonesia in general if all teachers are to be certified (Naja, 2006).

On the other hand, other commentators have been critical and cast their doubts as whether or not the new Law will make a significant difference in teachers’ lives. They believe that the Law still lacks clarity and thus leads to many interpretations. For example, it is still not clear who would finance the teacher certification program – the central government, the local governments, or other stakeholders – as it will need a huge amount of money to implement (approximately 77 trillion rupiah – the equivalent of AUS$ 11.5 million) (Kompas, 2006). In addition, given the huge amount of funding for this teacher certification program, the Law is thus prone to corruption, collusion and
nepotism (e.g. Lie, 2006; Prasetyo, 2006) because a lot of universities and teachers' training foundations could be involved in unhealthy competition to successfully bid for projects to educate teachers. Moreover, the Law seems to only accommodate teachers who are public servants, whereas those who work at private schools are still neglected (Naja, 2006) even though private schools play a crucial role in Indonesia's schooling and a significant number of teachers work at private institutions.

Whatever the attitudes are regarding the Law, implementation of the Law needs adequate mechanisms and institutions of performance control as well as strong accountability. These are important since one of the consequences of the implementation of the Law is significant increase in teacher income. Such an increase could translate into higher learning outcomes as long as teacher attendance and teaching quality are monitored sufficiently. (World Bank, 2007). While teacher monitoring and strong accountability as indicated in the Law are perhaps against the spirit of autonomy and professionalism, the data in the study did show some teachers' behaviours and attitudes which did not reflect their responsibilities as professionals. This will be discussed in detail in Chapter 6 of this thesis.

3.4.4. Summary

Education changes and reforms affect not only the national education system or school management in general, but specifically teachers. As asserted by Fullan (2001), 'education change depends on what teachers do and think – it's as simple and as complex as that' (p. 115). The next section discusses the common conditions of Indonesian
teaching force, its quality, problems and future prospects as direct implementers of education policy and practice.

3.5. The Indonesian teaching force

The scholarly literature on teaching (and teachers) always highlights the important role that teachers play in education. Teachers are the ones who deal with the day-to-day realities of students and schooling management and systems. Bjork (2005) states that educational literature – mainly published in the West – often emphasises that the key motivation for most teachers is the opportunity to make a difference in the students’ lives, despite their unpleasant work conditions and perhaps low pay. However, Indonesian teachers might not be the same because the nation’s education system has encouraged public servants to approach their work with a different mindset: instead of serving students, parents and local communities, Indonesian teachers normally place the government and authority as their priority (Bjork, 2005).

Despite the government’s high expectation for Indonesian teachers to be agents of change, a teacher’s work is controlled nationally. In addition, Indonesian teachers are required to: (1) teach and instruct students to behave in standardised formal institutional settings despite the students’ varied backgrounds, (2) channel them into becoming particular kinds of citizens, (3) teach them to be loyal and obedient to state agenda, (4) instruct them to be Indonesian-speaking (Nilan, 2003). Such huge tasks that teachers have to perform, unfortunately, are not rewarded well.
Alwasilah (2000) argues that the teaching profession in Indonesia has not yet been properly recognised, both financially and in terms of status. As a matter of fact, the teaching profession and its salaries only appear attractive to those groups which are located in the lowest income percentiles (Nilan, 2003). One of the reasons of the failure to properly recognise teaching as a profession is because many Indonesian teachers still do not have suitable academic qualifications. It is reported that there are more than 2.5 million teachers all around the country, with only 35% of them holding bachelor’s degrees or diplomas of education and who are considered suitably qualified to teach. The rest either hold one-year diplomas, two-year diplomas, senior secondary school certificates, or even junior secondary certificates (see for example Kompas, 2006a; Kompas, 2006b; Naja, 2006; Prasetyo, 2006; Suara Merdeka, 2006). In a review of Indonesia’s recent public expenditure, it is reported that for primary and junior secondary levels of schooling, only 55% and 73% of the teachers respectively have the minimum qualifications required by the Ministry of National Education (World Bank, 2007). It is obvious from the data that teacher educational attainment needs to be improved in Indonesia. This problem has actually been tackled by the government following the release of Law 14/2005, where it is stated that the government will provide additional incentives for teachers who obtain certification.

Although the quality of the teaching force in general is still low, the fact is that Indonesia’s schooling suffers from low numbers of teachers. Naja (2006) has reported that in 2005, the country needed more than 200,000 teachers. On top of that, there is unequal distribution of teachers throughout the country, with schools in remote areas, villages, and areas outside Java suffering the most (Naja, 2006). For example, it is
recently reported that 55% of schools have an oversupply of teachers, while 34% of them are undersupplied and most large schools in urban areas have too many teachers, while 66% schools in remote areas are still lacking teachers (World Bank, 2007).

In general, the Indonesian teaching force continues to suffer from underpayment, which results in many of them taking another job apart from teaching (Nilan, 2003) – a condition that jeopardises their focus on teaching. Teacher earnings are still lower than those of other civil servants with similar education levels. It is not surprising then if many claim that the quality of Indonesian schooling is still low and that education infrastructure is deteriorating. To improve the quality, issues related to teachers need to be addressed: (1) improving the level of teacher qualifications, (2) improving the structure of teacher compensation, (3) improving the teacher educational attainment, and (4) improving classroom quality but reducing class sizes so teachers can perform better (World Bank, 2007).

As the study examines English teacher professionalism, the next section of this chapter briefly outlines the common conditions and practices of language education and English Language Teaching in Indonesia.

3.6. English language education in Indonesia: an overview

This section starts with exploration of the history of language teaching in Indonesia, followed by facts that can be found in English classrooms in the country.
3.6.1. History of foreign language education in Indonesia

As summed up Wiratno (2000) and Dardjowidjojo (2000), there are three existing language groups in Indonesia: Indonesian language, indigenous or vernacular languages, and foreign languages. Indonesian language, or Bahasa Indonesia, is the national language and the language of a wider communication, which must be used in any formal administrations and government sectors and in educational institutions at all levels (Wiratno, 2000). Bahasa Indonesia was chosen as the national language in October 1928 when a group of patriotic youths declared their oath to have one nation, one country and one language. This was done as a form of resistance towards the Dutch Government. However, indigenous languages, which comprise as many as 737 living languages spread over thousands of islands (Gordon, 2005), are usually the mother tongues and are mainly used within the communities as family languages and for social communication (Dardjowidjojo, 2000) and are thought to play an important role for the communities' arts, culture and traditions (Wiratno, 2000).

The historical background of English language teaching in Indonesia dates back to the early 1950s. As discussed in the early part of this chapter, before the Japanese occupation in 1942 and the country's independence in 1945, Dutch was the main foreign language taught in schools. Education itself was given more attention in the 1950s after the Indonesian government was able to settle down all the more important political matters. It was also around this time that the government chose English over Dutch as the first foreign language to be taught formally at schools for two reasons: Dutch was considered as the language of the colonialists and it did not have the so-called
international stature as English did. Policy-makers at that time were well aware of the potential of English as a tool for Indonesia’s future economic development (Nur, 2003). Moreover, during that time, the government of Indonesia actually deported Dutch teachers who had been teaching English and replaced them with local teachers, even though those local teachers did not have qualifications in teaching English. This deportation was done for the so-called ideological reason that no Dutch people were to educate Indonesians any longer (Jazadi, 2000).

Dardjowidjojo (2000) further explains the difficulties faced with regard to the teaching of English in a country as young as Indonesia – the unavailability of human resources and other means and resources to teach the language. After a successful lobbying and approach by the Indonesia’s ambassador to the US at that time, grants were finally made available by the Ford Foundation in October 1953. These grants made it possible for the government to start a project called the In-service English Teacher Training Project, in which its major aim was to introduce English language teaching into schools as speedily, effectively and extensively as possible (Dardjowidjojo, 2000).

Later, still mainly financed by the Ford Foundation, the Indonesian government established a two-year English teachers’ training institute known as the Standard Training Center in two locations in Central Java and Central Sumatra. Not only that, the Ford Foundation also provided scholarships for the best students at the Center to undertake their further studies in the USA. In the late 1950s, the Ford Foundation financed another project. This time it was aimed at developing English language materials for high schools. The final products of this project were called the Salatiga Textbooks, as they were completed in the town of Salatiga in Central Java. Other countries such as Australia
and New Zealand also made significant contributions for the development of ELT in Indonesia through scholarship programs for English language teachers to study in both countries. In addition, the British Council was also actively involved in English language teaching and set up its headquarters in Bandung, West Java, in 1948 (Dardjowidjojo, 2000).

English is perhaps a relatively new language for Indonesia given it was only introduced in the early 1950s, not long after the country’s independence. For five decades, the teaching of English has always been challenging. Problems faced years ago in terms of choice of approaches, teachers’ qualifications and material designs, for example, are also present nowadays. Teachers, English education practitioners, researchers, curriculum designers or even policy-makers have been attempting to find out what works best in ELT classrooms in Indonesia. The next section will look at some common facts and problems of ELT practices in Indonesia.

3.6.2. Some facts from English classrooms

Since English was first introduced as a compulsory foreign language, the facts from classrooms and schools are quite intriguing. For example, Dardjowidjojo (2000) calculated the contact hours Indonesian secondary students spend in learning English at school for four years. By the time a student graduates from the senior high school, he/she will have studied English for 606 hours. This estimation excludes the teaching of English outside school hours, e.g. private courses or tutorials. With this amount of time spent at secondary schools, it is expected that high school graduates will be able to use the
language fairly well. Sadly, this is mostly not the case as many high school graduates are not as ‘fairly’ good as they are expected to be (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). Moreover, as Jazadi (2000) has also noticed, Indonesian learners are not sufficiently exposed to non-classroom types of discourse. As a result, despite the sufficient contact hours, many students are still unable to communicate in English well when they finish their high school.

Research conducted to estimate the English vocabulary knowledge of first-year university students shows another worrying fact. Nurweni and Read (1999) investigated how much and how well those freshmen, after learning English for at least six years, know about English words. The results showed that first-year university students only had some knowledge of 1226 English words. This figure falls short of the expected threshold level (3000-5000 words). Nurweni and Read (1999) are concerned with their findings, since university students are required to read more difficult and complex academic texts than their English textbooks in high school.

With regard to English teachers, recent studies on the conditions of ELT practices and English teachers in Indonesia conducted in Java show surprising if not worrying facts from English classrooms, which indicate that English teachers have not themselves mastered the language they are teaching (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). Since Java is the most important (hence, the most advanced) island of the country, one can only imagine what the situations in remote places outside Java would be like. Also, in most cases, EFL teachers in Indonesia depend a lot on textbooks and curriculum guidelines but often without having full understanding of the philosophy behind those materials or methods. In other words, many of them still have the so-called ‘new-textbook old-method’ attitude.
The standardised national assessment system that the country is still implementing despite wide criticisms (e.g. Hartono, 2006; Nuridin, 2006; Sugita, 2006) is another concerning fact of ELT practices in Indonesia. Jazadi (2000) has mentioned critically elsewhere that such a system offers little information about students learning and jeopardise teaching–learning activities as they become more exam-focused.

Although more studies still need to be conducted, the facts from English classrooms indicate that ELT practices in Indonesia at the very lowest level (i.e. the classroom level) have not been successful. Research findings, as well as inputs and criticism from ELT practitioners and other educators, have shown that many aspects need to be fixed in English classrooms, including the teachers. Considering the problems and conditions that exist in the classrooms, English teacher professionalism in Indonesia needs to be examined carefully and redefined.

3.7. Summary

This chapter has outlined the historical perspective of the Indonesian education system. It is argued in the study that history does influence the country's schooling systems in general, and teachers in particular. Contemporary education in Indonesia was built on a fragile foundation – it is unfocused and fragmented (Bjork, 2005). History has shown that no education is 'uniquely Indonesian'. The government still relies on the 'Western' schooling system that it desperately wanted to break free from, yet at the same time it is impossible to apply the traditional and religious schooling system as such a system would be exclusively Islamic. Due to long periods of colonialisation and
occupation, the government of Indonesia did not seem to know where to start to build its education sector. As a result, policy changes and reforms occur almost of the time, particularly in the contemporary era. This has in turn affected the teaching force and teacher professionalism in general, as teachers are usually the direct implementers of any policy changes. Chapter 3 has also examined the conditions of the teaching force in general and the practice of English Language teaching in Indonesia. It is argued that ELT practices in Indonesia have not been satisfactory and that English teacher professionalism needs to be examined more carefully and critically. Figure 1 on page 93 summarises the theoretical framework discussed in Chapter 3. Figure 1 can be explained as follows:

• The long history of education in Indonesia prior to, during and after the period of colonialisation shapes the present national education system, which is unstable and fragile in nature.

• The present national education system, in turn, influences the teaching profession and teacher professionalism in general, and English teacher professionalism in particular. In other words, the teaching profession in Indonesia has been built upon unstable foundation.

• In addition, English teacher professionalism is impacted by three other factors: changes and reforms of education, common conditions of Indonesian teaching force, and realities found in classrooms.

• The three factors impacting English teachers are the products of unstable national education system.
Figure 1: History of Indonesian education and its impact on contemporary education

History of Indonesian education (pre-, during and post-colonialisation period)

Contemporary national education system (unstable and fragile)

The teaching profession and teacher professionalism

English language teacher professionalism
Impacted by:

Changes &
Reforms:

1. Standardised national examination (Government Regulation 19/2005)
2. New English curriculum
3. Law 14/2005

Common
conditions of
teaching force:

1. Undervalued
2. Underpaid
3. Underqualified
4. Academically poor teachers

Common
classroom realities:

1. Big class
2. Lack of facilities
3. Students with low motivation
Below is the summary of laws and policies in education discussed in this chapter and throughout the thesis:

Table 2: Education laws and policies in Indonesia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Law / Regulation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The 1945 Constitution <em>(Undang-Undang Dasar 1945)</em></td>
<td>The Constitution was created after Independence and it serves as the basic law under which all future laws were to conform.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Law 4/1950</td>
<td>The first Law on the national education system was created during turbulent years after Independence and thus it was considered immature and imperfect.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Law 12/1954</td>
<td>The more mature version of the previous Law.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Law 2/1989</td>
<td>The education law that sets into place the modern system for education in Indonesia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Law 22/1999</td>
<td>The Law on the devolution of political authority to regional or local government, including devolution of education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Law 20/2003</td>
<td>The most recent Law on national education system.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Government Regulation 19/2005</td>
<td>Government rules and regulations which were derived from Law 20/2003 and were prepared by the implementing minister; this government regulation is about the standards for the national education system, which includes regulations on the standardised national examination for secondary level students.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Overall, Chapter 2 and 3 have provided a background and theoretical framework needed to further analyse the interview data in this research project. The next chapter focuses on research methodology – how the study was conducted and why a particular method was chosen.
CHAPTER 4

Research Methodology and Design

4.1. Introduction

The research questions underpinning this study are:

1. How is teacher professionalism defined, constructed and perceived by Indonesian EFL teachers and other related education stakeholders in one case in the Indonesian town of Salatiga?

2. What support is available and perceived important for enhancing Indonesian EFL teacher professionalism?

3. To what extent are professional development activities, which are planned and programmed by various educational stakeholders, perceived crucial in bringing changes on Indonesian EFL teacher learning and professional practices?

4. To what extent is Law 14/2005 perceived to impact on Indonesian EFL teacher professionalism in Salatiga?
   a. How do Indonesian EFL teachers, principals, and other related stakeholders perceive the imposed changes?
   b. What are the responses, support, professional behaviours and strategies of teachers and principals in particular in coping with the mandated changes?
c. Are there any different perceptions, beliefs, behaviours, and strategies among different teachers and principals from different types of schools?

The previous chapters have focused on the background of the whole study as well as its underlying conceptualisation within sociological theory and the notion of teacher professionalism. This present chapter focuses on the design on how the study was conducted. It justifies why a certain research method (i.e. qualitative inquiry) was chosen to carry out the research project. It provides critical and detailed discussions of qualitative research in terms of its backgrounds, aims, design, strategies and methods. In addition, Chapter 4 also examines a particular data collection method in qualitative research, namely the semi-structured interview, as such was the main method used in the study. Another method, document examination, will also be explored.

Before turning to the next chapter on analysis and research findings, this chapter will first discuss the processes adopted to analyse the data.

4.2. Chosen approach in the study

When discussing qualitative research, it is not surprising to find social researchers who draw their initial attention to the differences between quantitative and qualitative research (e.g. Holliday, 2007). This is usually due to the fact that the two types of inquiry are originally different in terms of their knowledge claims, strategies of inquiry and research procedures (e.g. Creswell, 2003) even though some believe that both styles share basic principles of science (Neuman, 2003) and that both types of inquiry are, as a matter of fact, shaped by the positivist and post-positivist traditions in the physical and social
In a nutshell, quantitative researchers traditionally start their projects with their positivist knowledge claims that their research (1) uses predetermined methods, (2) applies statistical analysis, and (3) conceptualises notions in a value-free way. Meanwhile, qualitative researchers use constructivist assumptions, apply the so-called emerging methods, use text and image analysis instead of statistical analysis and do not conceptualise issues in a value-free way (e.g. Creswell, 2003; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Merriam, 1998). In addition, qualitative researchers, as opposed to their quantitative counterparts, see reality as socially constructed and suggesting an intimate relationship between researchers and their research subjects, all the while acknowledging the situational constraints that could shape their research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003).

It is not the aim of this thesis to further distinguish between the two types of inquiry. The study is based upon qualitative research methods because the nature of the research problems, research goals, data generation and questions to be answered in the study were best investigated using a qualitative approach. This research project takes on a position that the perceptions of those being studied (i.e. teachers, principals, other educational stakeholders) are important (McMillan, 1992); it also takes advantage of their personal insights and feelings to understand their lives as educators more fully (Neuman, 2003). Hence, the quantitative approach would not be appropriate here. Instead, it is more in line with Freebody’s (2003) perspective on qualitative research in education:

... many educational researchers came to feel that research activities structured through the logics of quantification leave out lots of interesting and potentially consequential things about the phenomenon ... in terms of the richness of the accounts of the educators' experience. (p. 35).
This research project examined people's perceptions (e.g. teachers and principals'), thus suiting qualitative research. The next section below thus provides more in-depth discussions of a qualitative research approach.

4.3. Qualitative research

Not all qualitative researchers share the same assumptions about qualitative inquiry and tensions indeed arise within this particular research approach (e.g. Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). It is also important to acknowledge that there is no single and accepted way of doing qualitative research and that through the years the practices and approach to qualitative research have been developing and evolving (Snape & Spencer, 2003). Nevertheless, it is still useful to examine some common elements of qualitative inquiry discussed by scholars.

Merriam (1998), for example, lists five characteristics commonly attached to all forms of qualitative research:

- Qualitative research aims at investigating and understanding the phenomenon of interest from the participants' views instead of from the researcher's – that is, the 
  *emic*, or insider's perspective, versus the *etic*, or outsider's perspective (pp. 6–7).
- Qualitative data are mediated through a human instrument (i.e. the qualitative researcher) rather than through an inanimate instrument.
- Qualitative research usually involves fieldwork in which the researcher has to physically go to the site and talk to people.
• Qualitative inquiry uses an inductive research strategy; such a strategy builds abstractions and concepts rather than tests existing theory.

• Qualitative research usually produces a richly descriptive research report in the forms of words and pictures rather than numbers; elsewhere, Snape and Spencer (2003) refer to such a description as an in-depth and interpreted understanding of the research participants’ social world.

Other common elements of qualitative research include the researchers’ interests in unintended as well as intended consequences of some kind of change (Freebody, 2003), and their determination to identify research phenomena which exist in the original, uncontrolled and natural setting (e.g. McMillan, 1992). Another distinguishing aspect of qualitative inquiry is the distance of the study from statistical normality in data analysis (Freebody, 2003). Freebody also makes a precise observation of why qualitative research, unlike quantitative research, does not theorise variables prior to the real study: it is because ‘phenomenon of interest can escape when it is decontextualised or when it is mistaken for a pre-theorised variable’ (Freebody, 2003, p. 41).

Others consider qualitative inquiry as being humanistic and sensitive to researcher effects (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992), and as being underpinned by a philosophical assumption that the world is a subjective phenomenon that needs interpreting instead of measuring (Burns, 2000). In addition, qualitative research usually uses small-scale samples which are purposively selected based on certain criteria and during data-gathering processes it allows an interactive and developmental contact between the researcher and participants (Snape & Spencer, 2003). In addition, the approach attempts
to answer ‘what is’, ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions and the main methods used usually include observations, interviews, focus group, life histories, narratives, and analysis of documents and texts (e.g. Snape & Spencer, 2003).

The current study is qualitative because it contains the elements commonly attached to qualitative research approach as previously discussed:

- This study involved fieldwork undertaken by the researcher herself, in which the researcher went to the sites and talked directly to Indonesian EFL teachers, principals, university staff members and other relevant educational actors.

- Through in-depth interviews, this study considered the participants’ perspectives as being crucial to answering the research questions.

- The researcher was interested in the intended as well as the unintended consequences of changes that happened to, or affected, the research participants (e.g. changes in educational policies); such consequences could not be quantified or measured statistically.

- The research setting was obviously not controlled by the researcher and no research variables were pre-theorised.

- The findings and results of this study are in the form of a rich description report.

Furthermore, this study aimed to ‘capture data on the perceptions of local actors from the inside...’ (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 6). In this research project, the ‘local actors’ were mostly teachers and principals who were purposively selected and who were interviewed directly by the researcher. Undertaking research in schools means dealing
and interacting with people in those schools (teachers and principals, in particular) and how the researcher is interested in their inner lives (Freebody, 2003) of those people working under the school settings – that is, their thoughts, perceptions and beliefs. Thus, in a qualitative study, the perceptions of those being studied are important (McMillan, 1992), and meaning will be perceived or experienced by them – not imposed by the researcher (Wiersma, 2000).

The study adopted a case study approach and used semi-structured interview as the main data gathering method. However, another method was also used: document analysis. Case study is considered relevant because it involves a detailed examination of a specific event, an organisation, a subject or a school system (Wiersma, 2000) and is conducted to gain an in-depth and full understanding of the situation and the people studied/involved (Merriam, 1998; Punch, 2005). In this research project the researcher was interested in examining the notion of teacher professionalism as viewed, defined and practiced by teachers in a particular geographical site in Indonesia (i.e. the Salatiga Municipality in Central Java), as well as exploring the perspectives of principals and other related educational stakeholders on a similar issue in the Municipality. Thus, 'Salatiga Municipality' was considered as the case in this research project, and not the teachers or principals. Although there was only one geographical research site, this study was conducted within a broader context of reforms and mandated changes in Indonesia’s contemporary education.

Furthermore, following Ritchie’s (2003) identification of the functions of qualitative research, this qualitative study is evaluative in nature as it is concerned with the issues about how well a policy or program works and as it attempts to identify the
different types of effects/consequences that can arise from implementation of a mandated policy. According to Ritchie (2003), information obtained from evaluative qualitative inquiry can be used to (1) identify the factors that contribute to successful/unsuccessful delivery of a program, (2) identify the impacts of a program, (3) examine the responses of different groups within the target population, and (4) explore organisational aspects in relation to the delivery of the program. The research project was carried out around the time when a new law on teacher professionalism, Law 14 of 2005, had just been introduced. The success, usefulness, problems, impacts and consequences of the Law therefore need to be further investigated and evaluated, particularly from the perspectives of the local educational actors who are the direct implementers of such a policy.

The following sections of this chapter discuss the design of this study and present a more detailed discussion of the selected methodological approach, justification of sampling and the chosen data gathering methods.

4.4. Case study

Case study is a methodological approach widely used in qualitative inquiry. Social researchers use a case study to carry out and disseminate their research with the aims to ‘... impact upon practice, and to refine the ways in which practice is theorized’ (Freebody, 2003, p. 81). Thus, case study can serve the purpose of bridging the gap between the work of researchers and educational practitioners such as teachers and principals; case study helps researchers connect the micro level or the action of individual people to the macro level or large-scale social structures (Neuman, 2003). In addition,
case study is common among qualitative researchers as the data obtained through interviews, observations and fieldwork are usually more detailed, varied and extensive (e.g. Neuman, 2003).

Generally, what can be considered as 'cases' in a research project can include individuals, groups, organisations, movements, events or geographic units (e.g. Neuman, 2003). Merriam (1998) offers quite a specific explanation of what it is that constitutes a case. According to her, a case can be defined as a thing, a unit or a single entity where boundaries exist around it – hence the case could be a person, a program, a school, a community, a specific policy (Merriam, 1998), a decision, a process (Lewis, 2003; Punch, 2005) or an organisational context (Lewis, 2003). In other words, there should be a limit to the number of participants who could be interviewed or classrooms to be observed, for example. If (actually and theoretically) there is no end to the number of participants, events or programs that could be involved in the study, then the phenomenon to be investigated does not qualify as a case (Merriam, 1998).

For Freebody (2003), however, the question of 'what is a case?' is not as fundamental as the question of 'what is this a case of?' (p. 82). Freebody believes that in a case study approach in education there are more critical issues to be dealt with – for example, the clarity of the object of reflection, the researcher's readiness to explore unforeseen impacts of educational practices, a clear focus on the issues being investigated, the need for validation through multiple accounts of a phenomenon, and the need to make principled and naturalistic generalisations (Freebody, 2003).

Reasons for adopting a case study approach may vary. McMillan (1992), for instance, believes that such an approach is usually preferred because the perceptions of
research participants cannot be manipulated. Each case is often believed to be unique and therefore valuable to the whole research project. Another reason why one chooses a case study approach is because this approach will generate rich and subjective data that will bring variables, phenomena, processes and relationships that deserve more intensive investigation (Burns, 1994). Other scholars believe that case studies can capture multiple perspectives rooted in a specific setting, and can give detailed, holistic and contextualised understanding (Lewis, 2003). Elsewhere, Yin (2003) proposes the following rationale of why a researcher chooses such an approach: (1) it usually tries to answer the questions of ‘how’ or ‘to what extent’; (2) it does not require control of behavioural events; and (3) it focuses on contemporary events or phenomena within its real-life contexts.

This research project qualifies as a case study as is outlined below:

- Although there are seventy-one research participants interviewed, this study focused on the perceptions and beliefs of those participants on the issues of teacher professionalism in a particular research site (the Salatiga Municipality); there was a limit as to how many educational actors who could be interviewed in the Municipality and thus ‘Salatiga Municipality’ could be considered as a ‘case’.
- The researcher attempted to answer the question that captures the nature of ‘How (or to what extent) do educational policy changes and reforms affect educational actors?’.
- This study explored the predictable and unpredictable impacts of educational practices in a particular setting.
• The researcher believed that through a case study approach, the research participants would give detailed and contextualised understandings of their beliefs about, and concepts of, professionalism.

4.4.1. Limitations of case study

A case study methodological approach does have limitations. For one thing, such an approach may raise a number of questions at the design stage – for example, decisions about the criteria on which cases will/should be selected for the study. In addition, it can become very complex in the analysis stage as the researcher often has to make comparisons between different participants within a single case, between cases, or between groups of participants across cases (Lewis, 2003). Other limitations, as observed by Merriam (1998), are set out below:

• Case studies can either oversimplify or exaggerate a phenomenon being investigated.

• There are no fixed guidelines in analysis and constructing the final report, and thus a case study researcher is often left to rely on his/her own instinct.

• Case study researchers or authors need to be aware of biases that may affect the final report.

• Issues of reliability, validity, generalisability and representativeness always occur.

This study did pose the limitations discussed above. For example, the researcher’s decision in choosing the Salatiga Municipality as the research site (hence the case) was
for practical considerations (e.g. cost and access), although the Municipality, as discussed later in section 4.9 in this chapter, was quite representative for this research project. Limitations with regard to reliability, validity and generalisability are addressed in section 4.8 and those related to ethical considerations are discussed in section 4.11.

4.4.2. Summary

Despite its problems and limitations (which will be further addressed in the next sections of this chapter), the study applied a case study approach for reasons and/or advantages discussed previously. First, the case was selected based on a particular geographical unit: the project was conducted in the Salatiga Municipality in Central Java, Indonesia. Second, it investigated a specific contemporary education phenomenon: teacher professionalism. The notion of professionalism here was investigated in a 'real-life' context whereby the researcher went to visit the sites and talked to teachers and principals in selected schools in the Municipality. The study investigated how those teachers and principals perceive, define and practise professionalism in their local school settings and how they relate themselves with broader contexts of the national education system and policy, local educational bureaucracies, and organisational practice in each school. Third, the study mainly employed a face-to-face interview to gather the data, aiming at providing rich and thick descriptions of the phenomenon being investigated.

In this study, the researcher asked the same questions to the participants. Although the interviews were semi-structured in the sense that some questions were open-ended and thus would produce unexpected responses (see section 4.6), the interview
questions were pre-determined and they were designed in line with survey research strategy. The next section briefly discusses such a strategy.

4.5. Survey strategy

This study was in accordance with survey research strategy because the research questions centre around the nature of professionalism based on teachers’ attitudes, beliefs, and opinions, and because the study sampled many respondents (71 respondents) who answered the same questions (e.g. Bell, 1999; Neuman, 2003). Or, as Aldridge and Levine (2001) put it, the strategy used in survey research is that researchers ‘collect the same information about all the cases in a sample’ (p. 5), in which the cases are individual people. In particular, a survey study normally asks respondents’ attributes (e.g. age, educational backgrounds), behaviour (e.g. questions related to when and how often), point of view (Aldridge & Levine, 2001; Neuman, 2003), expectations, self-classification and knowledge (Neuman, 2003). The researcher did ask questions in relation to those matters.

Elsewhere, Salant and Dillman (1994) point out that a researcher wants to conduct a survey because he/she wants to find out the characteristics, behaviour or opinions of a particular population. They specifically mention that one of the reasons for conducting such a study is to learn about the impact of public or private programs and/or policies. They refer this type of survey – as opposed to needs assessment survey and marketing survey – as an ‘evaluation survey’ (Salant & Dillman, 1994).
With regard to second language research in particular, Mackey and Gass (2005) and Brown and Rodgers (2002) note that the survey has become one of the most common methods in gathering data about attitudes and opinions from a large group of respondents/participants. For example, surveys are not uncommonly carried out on learners’ beliefs and motivations about their learning and classroom instruction (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Other examples of survey in second language research include evaluating learners’ learning styles, evaluation of certain language programs, usefulness of training programs for teachers, or evaluation of other characteristics of teachers and their beliefs and professional lives (Brown & Rodgers, 2002). The questions used in this study included questions about teachers’ beliefs of their professional lives and professionalism and their critical examination and/or comments of the current English language programs and curriculum.

The next two sections of this chapter focus on the data-gathering methods used in the study.

4.6. Interview

The methods of data collection used in this research project were the in-depth semi-structured interview and document analysis. In a qualitative research project, data collecting is about ‘asking, watching, and reviewing’ (Merriam, 1998, p. 69) and thus qualitative data are mainly collected through observations, interviews and documents. Interview technique, in particular, dominates social science research (Arksey & Knight, 1999), is one of the most important sources of case study information (Yin, 2003), and is
probably the most common form of data collection in qualitative studies in education (Merriam, 1998) that has been around for a long time and still evolving (Fontana & Frey, 2003). It is an essential data-collection strategy in case studies, since most case studies are about people and their activities (Burns, 1994). Seidman (2006) further asserts that observing research participants will indeed provide access to their behaviours; however, interviewing them will allow qualitative researchers to put those behaviours in context and thus provide access to understanding their actions. It is clearly a necessary technique in obtaining the data, particularly when qualitative researchers cannot observe behaviours, feelings or how research participants interpret the world around them (Merriam, 1998). Furthermore, the interview is, according to Rossman and Rallis (1998), the hallmark of qualitative research. If the ultimate goal of educational qualitative research is to better understand the meaning people involved in education make of their experience, then the interview method does provide a crucial and sufficient means of investigation (Seidman, 2006).

As a qualitative data-gathering method, interviewing includes a wide variety of forms, practices and uses (e.g. Fontana & Frey, 2003; Merriam, 1998; Seidman, 2006). Generally, there are the so-called structured interviews with standardised and preset closed questions, semi-structured interviews with less structured questions, and unstructured or informal interviews with open-ended questions, which are much more flexible. Social researchers often refer the unstructured interview to the in-depth interview (e.g. Legard, Keegan, & Ward, 2003; Seidman, 2006), which has the following characteristics: (1) it is intended to combine structure and flexibility; (2) it is interactive in nature; (3) researchers use a range of techniques to obtain depth in the informants'
answers in terms of penetration, exploration and explanation; (4) it is generative in the
sense that new knowledge or thoughts are produced; (5) it is conducted face-to-face
(Legard et al., 2003); and (6) the role of the participant is more like an informant than a
respondent (Burns, 1994). However, other researchers argue that the term ‘in-depth
interview’ is often not consistently used and does not necessarily refer to unstructured
type of interview. What some describe as semi-structured interviews may be described by
others as unstructured and in-depth, and thus it is not surprising to find interview
approaches that combine standardised questioning with non-standardised questioning

This current study mainly used the semi-structured interview method, which
consisted of a predetermined set of questions (see Appendix). However, it did allow some
free responses in the breadth of relevance (Freebody, 2003). The question items used in
this research project included open-ended, closed-ended, and partially closed-ended
questions. Closed questions asked, for instance, respondents’ general backgrounds,
teaching experiences, ranks and years of service, whereas open questions expected
respondents’ extended comments, opinions or views on their professionalism and their
lives and experiences as policy implementers at the grassroots level. Open questions are
considered important because they allow the respondents to say what they think and say it
with greater richness and spontaneity (Oppenheim, 1992), although it might be
problematic when it comes to analysis as they can be inconsistent in length and content
across respondents (Bell, 1999; Johnson & Christensen, 2000; Neuman, 2003; Wiersma,
1995).
Besides expected problems that might arise during analysis, use of the interview method in obtaining qualitative data may pose other problems and difficulties. For example, the role of interviewers is not easy since they have to build a good relationship with the participants yet at the same time have to remain objective and neutral (Neuman, 2003). Interviewing, as argued by some social researchers (e.g. Denzin & Lincoln, 2003), is not a neutral tool for gathering qualitative data as it is influenced by personal characteristics (of both the interviewer and the interviewees), such as race, class, ethnicity and gender. Another limitation of interview research is that it takes a great deal of time (both before and after doing interviews) and even money (e.g. Seidman, 2006).

For example, researchers have to establish an access to the sites, make personal contacts with the potential participants, interview them, listen and re-listen to the materials, transcribe the data, and then further analyse the materials. These activities do need a lot of time, energy and financial resources.

During the study, the researcher did experience some of the problems as discussed previously. The issue of bias and neutrality did occur at some stages of the interviews, particularly because of the differences in backgrounds between the interviewer (who is female, Protestant, and from ethnic Chinese) and the participants (who are mostly Moslems and from ethnic Javanese). It is, however, not the aim of this thesis to further explore these issues. What is more important in this thesis is the response that the participants gave, regardless of their gender, religious or ethnic backgrounds. In addition, time was another problem occurred during the data-gathering process. As many of the interviewees were busy teachers and principals, it was often difficult for them to keep
their appointments. Postponement, cancellation and rescheduling often happened during the fieldwork. These, as a result, led to a longer time in conducting it.

4.6.1. Interviews: the stages in the research site

All interviews in this study were carried out face-to-face and were audiotaped. Question items for interviews were written in Indonesian. Those who were willing to participate in the study were given the question items at least a week prior to the interview. The interviews were mainly conducted in Indonesian. However, participants sometimes replied in mixed languages, i.e. Indonesian, English, and Javanese. Before interviewing the participants, the researcher visited the site to ask for permission, give detailed information about the project, and decide time and venue for further appointments. Each interview normally lasted between 20–70 minutes. Before the real project began, the researcher also allowed a period of time to consult with more experienced researchers at Satya Wacana Christian University in Salatiga (i.e. the researcher’s colleagues) to discuss the study. They made critical yet constructive comments with regard to the whole research project and the question items in particular.

The questions were then piloted on a small number of participants. According to Seidman (2006), a pilot study is crucial, because through pilot study social researchers can come to grips with practical aspects of establishing access, making contact and conducting the interview. Those are important factors in the real interview in later stages of the research project. In addition, a pilot study can improve reliability of the project and clarity of the question items. Through piloting, interview questions will go through many
drafts before the final version (e.g. Neuman, 2003). In this study, piloting was undertaken not only for the advantages mentioned by Seidman (2006) and Neuman (2003) but also for the following reasons:

- to find out the approximate time for each interview
- to establish familiarity with the questions
- to reword or paraphrase questions which appear confusing for the participants, disregard irrelevant questions, and consider which questions seem to be redundant
- to generate more insightful, critical and crucial questions related to the research topic, which have not been included in the question drafts
- to re-visit the questions and refine them.

The next step after the whole interview process finished was data transcription. All the data were first transcribed as they were. This means that the researcher transcribed the exact wording that the participants used during the interviews, including word, utterances, or idiomatic expressions in languages other than Indonesian. When the data were finally imported to NVivo software for further analysis, the language was then refined into standard Indonesian. Thus the interview data used in NVivo were in standard Indonesian. English translation was then used for any interviews included in the thesis. The researcher acknowledged limitations of these chosen steps; some expressions and concepts might have got lost in translation. However, when consulting an expert in NVivo software regarding this problem, she strongly recommended that the researcher process the data in one language and that language should be that of the standard Indonesian. This was done so in order to make the subsequent coding process easier. The
NVivo expert suggested codes should remain in the original language. Then once the researcher wanted to include the coded interview data in the thesis to present her arguments, English translation could then be used. Chapter 5 of this thesis details the data analysis of this study by using NVivo software.

The table below is the summary of the stages of the interview in this study:

Table 3: Interview stages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STAGE</th>
<th>ACTIVITY</th>
<th>DETAILS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Consultation and discussion</td>
<td>Discuss research project and interview questions with supervisor at Sydney University and more experienced researchers (both in Sydney and Salatiga)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Examination of interview questions</td>
<td>Examine and refine questions based on other researchers’ suggestions/inputs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Pilot Study in two elementary schools: two principals and five English teachers</td>
<td>Select participants for pilot study; make contact with potential participants (through school principals); inform participants about the study; set up time and venue for interview; conduct interview based on appointments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Post Pilot Study</td>
<td>Listen to pilot interviews; make notes; re-visit interview questions, revise and refine questions based on pilot interviews.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Interview: seventeen principals, forty-six English teachers, six university staff members, one officer at the District Education Office, and one representative from the Teachers’ Association</td>
<td>Visit schools and other offices and see principals and officers to ask permission informally; deliver formal letter and other necessary information about the study (including participant information sheet and consent form); make contact with participants; inform participants about the study; set up time and venue for interviews; conduct interviews; leave the schools and thank participants; return to schools if necessary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Post interview</td>
<td>Write necessary notes; listen to interviews; make general comments and notes about each interview before further in-depth analysis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Apart from interviewing, document analysis is another data-gathering method used in this research project. The documents examined were mostly on the education system and policies in Indonesia. The following section presents discussions on the examination of documents.
4.7. Examination of relevant documents

Although interview was the main data-gathering method, the study also examined and analysed relevant documents. The use of multiple methods in this study (i.e. interview method and document analysis), multiple sources of data (i.e. interview transcripts and relevant documents), and multiple resources or participants (i.e. teachers, principals, university staff members, local education board and union representative) aims to confirm the emerging findings (Merriam, 1998). Triangulation approach (e.g. Singleton, Straits & Straits, 1993) enabled the researcher to compare and examine data gained from semi-structured interviews with data obtained from examination of relevant documents, as well as to examine data obtained from different types of participants about the same broad topic, teacher professionalism. Triangulation itself can be defined as a qualitative cross-validation that assesses the sufficiency of the data according to the convergence of multiple data source or multiple data-collection procedures (e.g. Wiersma, 2000). In other words, it has often been described as a strategy of validation (e.g. Neuman, 2003). As this is a qualitative study, triangulation was more like a tool to consider multiple perceptions from the research participants than that of validation. However, issues of validation and reliability will still be addressed in the later section of this chapter.

This research project saw the need and importance to examine relevant documents; they were considered crucial to strengthen evidence derived from other sources and for the purpose of triangulation. In a qualitative inquiry, documents are often used as the source of data because they are stable, unobtrusive, exact, have a broad
coverage (Yin, 2003), are easily accessible, ready-made sources of information that have the advantage of not being produced specifically for research purpose, and are objective (Merriam, 1998). Document analysis involves the study of existing documents in order to ‘understand their substantive content or to illuminate deeper meanings which may be revealed by their style and coverage’ (Ritchie, 2003, p. 35). Documents that are likely to be used by a case study researcher include: (1) personal documents like letters, diaries or photographs; (2) procedural documents like agenda, minutes, administrative reports, files, school budgets and financial reports; as well as (3) public documents such as media reports and government policy papers and reports available publicly (e.g. Burns, 1994; Ritchie, 2003). Nevertheless, as by Burns (1994) reminds us, some documents might not be accurate, they might be written for a specific purpose with a specific audience in mind, and many of them might have been deliberately edited. Still, they are important to strengthen evidence derived from other sources and for triangulation purposes. It is therefore the researcher’s duty to critically examine those documents and see the links and relevance (or irrelevance) between them and other sources of data.

While documents used in this study may not specifically address the research questions, they were considered valuable because they were the products of the educational or organisational contexts being examined. Documents examined in this study include the following:

- recent legislation on Indonesia’s national education system, i.e. Law 20/2003, published by the Ministry of Education (Depdiknas, 2003)
• new legislation on teachers' professionalism and certification, i.e. Law 14/2005 (Pengurus Besar PGRI, 2006)
• documents about the teachers' union and their professional association (Pengurus Besar PGRI, 2003; Pengurus Besar PGRI, 2006)
• document on teachers' performance evaluation (copy document of Government Regulation Number 10/1979).

Those documents provided a larger context for understanding the Indonesian education system in general and its teaching force in particular, as well as the stipulated teacher professionalism. How those documents were analysed will be presented in the next chapter.

The section following discusses issues related to generalisability, validity and reliability of a qualitative inquiry and this research project.

4.8. Generalisability, validity, reliability

One of the most common criticisms of case study research involves issues surrounding generalisability, representativeness or external validity – that is, whether it is possible to generalise from a single case (e.g. Merriam, 1998; Punch, 2005). Such criticism is generally understood to have stemmed from the concept of representational generalisation derived from quantitative research – namely, the extent to which research findings can be generalised to the population from which the statistically-based sample is drawn (Lewis & Ritchie, 2003). Like other qualitative researchers, Silverman (2006)
argues that statistical sampling procedures are not available in qualitative inquiry as data are likely to come from one or more cases which are not selected randomly. Therefore, issues of generalisability in qualitative inquiry cannot be viewed from the perspectives of quantitative research paradigm. Elsewhere, Lewis and Ritchie (2003) believe that findings of qualitative research can be generalised; however, the framework within with such generalisations can occur needs more careful and greater clarification.

This study is framed within the belief that the cases and participants were selected because they give meaningful insights to local practices in education and because, as Merriam (1998) has stated, ‘in a qualitative research, a single case or small non-random sample is selected precisely because the researcher wishes to understand the particular in depth, not to find out what is generally true to many.’ (p. 208). In other words, particularity in this study is considered more meaningful than generalisability. The study investigated teacher professionalism as defined and practiced by some teachers in the Salatiga Municipality in Indonesia. It is not the aim of the study – and it is hardly possible – to make generalisation of all teachers in Salatiga or in Indonesia. Rather, the study wishes to find the unique and specific insights about teacher professionalism and its practice from the point of views of those teachers and other educational practitioners interviewed in the study. By examining the uniqueness and particularity, it is hoped that a specific theory about professionalism can begin to emerge.

Although the concepts of validity and reliability were developed in the natural sciences and thus mathematical measures are inappropriate to determine the validity and reliability of qualitative investigation (Lewis & Ritchie, 2003), it is still important to consider how validity and reliability can be understood in this type of research. Freebody
(2003), for instance, has suggested that before doing a study, a qualitative researcher has to ensure the clarity and accuracy of (1) the context of the research, (2) the statement of the problems to be investigated, (3) the ways in which the researcher obtain the data, and (4) the understandings about his/her role as a researcher. Another strategy to enhance external validity is suggested by Merriam (1998): by providing description so rich and thick that those who read or will use the findings can determine how closely their situations match the research situation. Conceptualising and developing propositions are other ways to improve external validity. Conceptualising here means that a qualitative researcher, after doing an in-depth analysis of the case, can develop one or more new concepts to further explain some aspects of what has been investigated, while developing propositions concerned with putting forward one or more propositions that link concepts or factors within the case, based on the case(s) studied (Punch, 2005).

External validity can actually be more strengthened by visiting the research sites (schools) and interviewing the subjects (principals and English teachers) more than once (Wiersma, 2000). However, it is in itself another limitation due to time constraint and therefore was not possible in this study. As with interviews, validity can be enhanced by asking questions that fully cover the issues raised in the research questions, by not asking irrelevant questions, and by having ample time for the respondents to answer the questions (Arksey & Knight, 1999). In this study, such was done by distributing the questions to principals and teachers at least a week before the interview. In addition, content validity of the interview questions can be achieved by consulting more experienced researchers or colleagues to give judgments or insightful comments on the question items (e.g. Aldridge & Levine, 2001; Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh & Sorensen, 2006).
Beside issues concerning generalisability and validity, qualitative research approach has also been criticised for lacking reliability or, borrowing Merriam's (1998) definition, the extent to which research findings can be replicated (p. 205). She argues that achieving reliability in the traditional sense for social research in education is quite impossible because what is being studied is assumed to be ‘flux, multifaceted, and highly contextual’ (Merriams, 1998, p. 206). Similarly, Arksey and Knight (1999) admit that complete reliability for social research which uses interviews is not attainable. However, reliability can be maximised by making sure that all informants are asked exactly the same questions and given the same clarification. The issues on reliability in the study were addressed by carefully and clearly designing the question items, by asking the same questions to all interviewees, as well as by carrying out pilot studies (e.g. Ary et al., 2006; Neuman, 2003). The question items were piloted before the real project began. In addition, participants in this research projects were all given time to be familiar with the questions and given some time to ask the researcher should they need some clarification. They were also asked exactly the same questions.

The following section discusses population and sampling chosen in this study and justification why they were selected.

4.9. Sampling

Unlike quantitative researchers, qualitative researchers normally work with small samples, which are ‘nested in their context and studied in-depth’ (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In this study, the strategy applied for choosing the samples from the population is
non-probabilistic strategy, which refers to processes of case selection other than random selection (Singleton, Straits, & Straits, 1993). With such a strategy, a social researcher believes that the cases’ relevance of the research topic is more important than their representativeness (Neuman, 2003). The sample is never intended to be statistically representative and sample units are selected in purpose in order to reflect particular features in the sampled population (Ritchie, Lewis, & Elam, 2003). Burns (1997) adds that in a case study, the focus of attention is on the case in its idiosyncratic complexity instead of on the whole population of cases – it is not something to be represented by an array of scores.

The study in particular used so-called ‘purposeful’ sampling. Punch (2005) has stated that purposive sampling allows social researchers to choose a case because it illustrates some features or processes that qualitative researchers are interested in. The logic behind purposeful sampling, according to Wiersma (2000), is that selected samples are believed to be information-rich cases. In other words, samples do not have to be statistically representative of the population. Certain cases are selected because they serve the real purpose and objectives of the researcher to discover and gain insights into a particularly chosen phenomenon (Burns, 1997). Likewise, Maykut and Morehouse (1994) assert that qualitative researchers aim at gaining deep understanding of phenomena experienced by a group of people as well as acknowledging the complexity that characterises those phenomena. Thus the samples are chosen carefully and with a purpose, and there is no intention to generalise the findings for the whole population.

The site of the study was a town in Central Java, Indonesia, called Salatiga. Salatiga was chosen for the following reasons as are outlined in the points below:
Although a small town, schooling in Salatiga depicts the variety of schooling in Indonesia in general. There are public schools, Islamic schools, faith-based private schools (Islamic, Protestant and Catholic), secular private schools, boarding schools, vocational schools and the so-called non-formal or alternative school. Higher education is also available in town, and one university, in particular, has been conducting professional development programs for all English teachers in Salatiga.

The access to schools in Salatiga would be relatively easy for the researcher because as a local she was already familiar with the town and has known some of the English teachers in the schools that she would be visiting.

The cost of conducting research in Salatiga was feasible for the researcher.

Since decentralisation policy took place in 2001, each region became autonomous and was responsible for its own education matter. As a local, it made more sense for the researcher to focus her study in her hometown; the results of which could hopefully give contribution for the betterment of education in the region.

The population of the study comprised secondary English teachers and principals in the Salatiga Municipality. Primary schools were excluded because, unlike secondary schools, English is not a compulsory subject at a primary level in Indonesia and thus not all primary schools have English teachers. However, two primary schools were deliberately and conveniently selected in this study as the sites for the pilot study. The selection was mainly based on the easy access granted by the schools and the willingness of the principals and English teachers in those primary schools to cooperate. There were two principals and six English teachers who were involved in the pilot study. Each of
them was interviewed individually by the researcher and each interview lasted between 20 to 70 minutes.

This study did not include vocational schools. Such a form of schooling was not included in the study because the English curriculum is different from that of an ordinary school. It was assumed that since the expectations of the two types of curricula were different, a separate study to investigate professionalism of vocational school teachers would be needed – hence, the study did not include vocational schools.

The researcher’s first intention was to visit 16 schools, consisting of eight schools for each level. For each level, the initial plan was to visit three public schools (*sekolah negeri*), one Protestant private school, one Catholic private school, one Islamic private school, one secular private school (*sekolah swasta*), and one Islamic school (*Madrasah*). However, it turned out that the only secular junior high school in town was closed down the year before due to low intake. Because of this, the researcher opted for a different type of school: a newly-founded Islamic boarding school whose students are mainly refugees (male and orphaned) from troubled areas in Indonesia, such as Poso, Timor and Maluku.

In addition to those 16 schools, the researcher also decided to visit the so-called alternative school (*sekolah alternatif*). Visiting such a school was actually not planned in the first place. The decision was made because there were so many stories about the ways this particular school had made significant contribution to education in the area and how it became famous nationwide, and even worldwide. An alternative school is basically a non-formal school recognised by the state education system. This school is run based on the home schooling system of education, whose major aim is to provide life-skills
education for students who mostly come from a low economic background, and whose curriculum is so student-centred teachers are merely learning partners and appreciators. This type of school is still a rarity in Indonesia and apparently the one established in Salatiga is the pioneer of such schooling.

The decision of choosing the sampling in this study follows the so-called heterogeneous samples as summed up by Ritchie et al. (2003). The inclusion of all types of schooling is ‘a deliberate strategy to include phenomena which vary widely from each other’ (p. 79). Furthermore, the decision to add a pesantren-like boarding school and an alternative schooling system in this research project could perhaps serve the need of an ‘extreme case’ or ‘deviant sampling’, in which a case is chosen because it is unusual and special and thus potentially enlightening (Ritchie et al., 2003).

This research project involved 17 secondary schools in total (nine junior schools and eight senior schools). The researchers interviewed 17 principals and 46 English teachers. In general, the researcher did not encounter any significant difficulties in obtaining the principals’ permission and willingness to participate in the project. Teachers were asked to participate in the study with the assistance of the principals. However, it does not mean that the principals were involved in the process of selecting who should or should not be interviewed. The principals simply passed on the information about the research project to the English teachers and asked them to volunteer. At the same time they also gave a list of English teachers to the researcher and asked the researcher to contact the teachers personally. The principals never gave any guarantee that all teachers would be willing to be interviewed, nor did they force any teachers to participate in the study.
Ideally, it would have enriched the research data if all teachers from the schools visited could be interviewed. Unfortunately, not all teachers agreed to participate; their objection was mainly due to their tight schedules, particularly for those teachers who were busy in preparing students for the national examination. Nevertheless, those who were willing to participate showed (1) variation in years of experience, (2) variation in backgrounds, status, ranks and position, and (3) variation in engagement in professional development activities.

In addition, the researcher also interviewed six staff members of a university (the Dean of the English Department and five lecturers who had been previously involved in the professional development programs for English teachers in Salatiga). There were four other lecturers who were also involved in the program but were not available at the time of the fieldwork because they were either busy or on study leave. Out of five lecturers being interviewed, four were relatively new (and thus inexperienced) staff members in the department; the reason and motivation for their involvement in the program will be further elaborated in Chapter 6 of this thesis.

An interview with personnel of the District Education Office was also conducted in order to find out about the Office’s roles and approaches in improving teacher professionalism in the Municipality, particularly after the release of Law 14 of 2005.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of school / organisation</th>
<th>Position / Title</th>
<th>Number of participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Public schools – junior secondary</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Public schools – senior secondary</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Private school – junior/Protestant</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Private school – senior/Protestant</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Private school – junior/Catholic</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Private school – senior/Catholic</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Private school – junior/Islamic</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Private school – senior/Islamic</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Private school – senior/Secular</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Boarding school – junior/Islamic</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Islamic school - junior</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Islamic school – senior</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Alternative school – junior</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 Public school – junior secondary</td>
<td>English teacher</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 Public school – senior secondary</td>
<td>English teacher</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 Private school – junior/Protestant</td>
<td>English teacher</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 Private school – senior/Protestant</td>
<td>English teacher</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 Private school – junior/Catholic</td>
<td>English teacher</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 Private school – senior/Catholic</td>
<td>English teacher</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 Private school – junior/Islamic</td>
<td>English teacher</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 Private school – senior/Islamic</td>
<td>English teacher</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 Private school – senior/Secular</td>
<td>English teacher</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 Boarding school – junior/Islamic</td>
<td>English teacher</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 Islamic school – junior</td>
<td>English teacher</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 Islamic school – senior</td>
<td>English teacher</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 Alternative school</td>
<td>English teacher</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 English Department at a local university</td>
<td>The dean</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28 English Department at a local university</td>
<td>Staff member</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29 District Education Office</td>
<td>Administrative officer</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 Local Teachers’ Association</td>
<td>Local chairperson</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TOTAL NUMBER OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS** 71
The interview with the chairperson of the Teachers' Association (PGRI) in Salatiga was not planned in the first place; the decision came after the researcher completed the pilot study. The main purpose of the interview was to investigate what PGRI has done so far in relation to the new Law and how the organisation has provided assistance and advocacy for its members.

In total there were 71 people participated in this study. The participants interviewed can be summed up in Table 4 (preceding page).

4.10. Research procedures

The fieldwork started in February and ended in April 2007. Prior to the fieldwork, the researcher sought ethics approval from the Human Research Ethics Committee of Sydney University. As this current study was a continuation of the fieldwork that the researcher did in 2005 to complete her Master of Philosophy's degree, an ethics modification approval was sought instead (see Appendix).

The question items had been prepared in Australia prior to the researcher's departure to Indonesia. This section details the research procedures of the study:

1. Access to schools for pilot study; the researcher:
   - visited the schools and meet with principals to talk about the study informally and ask for permission
• gave information and explanation about the research (Participation Information Sheet, Consent Form, and question items for interview were attached)

• made appointments for interviews.

2. Pilot Study – interviews with principals and English teachers at two primary schools; the researcher:

• allowed some time for participant to ask questions about the research

• conducted the interview

• thanked the participant.

3. Leaving the sites of pilot study, the researcher:

• thanked the principal for his/her permission to enter the school

• wrote brief journal and reflection about each interview.

4. Talk to more experienced researchers from Satya Wacana University, Salatiga; the researcher:

• discussed the research project in general and sought critical comments.

5. Post pilot study and discussion; the researcher:

• listened to interviews and made necessary notes

• revisited and re-examined interview questions

• revised and reworded questions.
6. Access to schools for main research; the researcher:
   - met the principals to ask for permission
   - informed them and explained the study as well as handed in the Participant Information Sheet, the Consent Form, and interview questions
   - made appointments for interviews.

7. Interviews sessions with participants; the researcher:
   - met participant 10 minutes before interview
   - allowed some time for participant to ask questions
   - thanked participant.

8. Leaving the sites; the researcher:
   - thanked principal for his/her permission and willingness to participate in the study.

9. Interviews with staff members of English Department; the researcher:
   - met the Dean and explained about the research project
   - met staff members who had been previously involved in the professional development programs for English teachers in Salatiga
   - conducted the interviews
   - thanked the Dean and participants.
10. Interview with personnel of the District Education Office; the researcher:

- delivered a formal letter requesting for an interview with personnel from the office (Participant Information Sheet, Consent Form, and interview questions were enclosed in the letter)
- returned to the office to set up appointment
- interviewed the head of the administration of the District Education Office
- thanked him after the interview was completed.

11. Interview with chairperson of Teachers' Association; the researcher:

- met and with the chairperson informally, explaining what the project was all about
- set up time for interview
- thanked him upon completion of interview.

12. Requesting relevant documents; the researcher:

- requested relevant documents from the schools, the District Education Office and the Teachers' Association.

13. Postfieldwork; the researcher:

- listened to interviews
- made necessary notes and comments
- transcribed interviews
- read and re-read transcripts for further analysis.
The fieldwork finished the end of April 2007. In total there were eight participants interviewed for the pilot study and 71 people for the rest of the study. Interviews during the pilot lasted between 40 to 90 minutes. They were longer than interviews conducted during the real study (which lasted between 20 to 70 minutes) because some of the questions used during the pilot study were either redundant or lacking clarity or focus. Interviews were mostly conducted in the participant's office and were digitally audiotaped. The researcher had distributed the questions to participants at least a week prior to the interviews in order to give the participants adequate time to read and study those questions. Unfortunately, due to time and financial constraints, the researcher was unable to return to the interview venues to show participants the transcripts for member checking. This was perhaps one of the limitations of the study.

As the research deals with people directly, the following section details ethical considerations of the study.

4.11. Ethical considerations

Ethical considerations for social research are considered crucial to make sure the interests of research participants are safeguarded (Hollway & Jefferson, 2000). Moreover, the unstructured nature of qualitative research might raise issues that are not anticipated; thus problems related to ethics that might occur during the research need considering (Lewis, 2003). In qualitative studies, ethical dilemmas usually emerge during the data-collection process and dissemination of findings (Merriam, 1998).
In conducting this study, the researcher was therefore committed to making sure that the rights of the participants were safeguarded. Participants have the rights to be informed about the nature and consequences of the research and they must agree to participate voluntarily (e.g. Christians, 2003). In addition, a qualitative researcher has a moral obligation to uphold the confidentiality of the data (e.g. Neuman, 2003), which includes disguising the participants' names in the final report.

Prior to carrying out the fieldwork in Indonesia, ethical approval was sought from the Sydney University’s Human Ethical Review Committee (see Appendix 1). It was clearly stated in the ethics application form that participation was voluntary and participants could withdraw from the study should they wish to. It was also mentioned that participants were guaranteed anonymity. Before the study began, all participants received information about the research project, who the researcher was, on whose behalf the research was conducted, or how the findings would be disseminated. Participants gave their written consent prior to the study. In general, it was relatively easy to get their consent; nobody withdrew from the study nor refused to answer any questions during the interviews. In addition, the researcher assured the participants that pseudonyms would be used in the final report.

During the study, as well as a research student at the University of Sydney, the researcher was also a full-time employee in the English Department of the University of Satya Wacana in Salatiga. Her formal position at the university made it easier for her to get access to schools and other offices in Salatiga. Nevertheless, a formal letter of permission from the university, which was signed by the Dean of the English Department and officially stamped, was still needed when dealing with bureaucracy matters in
Indonesia. This letter, along with other documents from Sydney University, was enclosed when seeking for permission for interviews from related authority.

4.12. Summary

This chapter has detailed the research methodology and design of the study and why such methodology was chosen. It has thoroughly examined the qualitative research approach and its related aspects, including its strengths and limitations. Issues of how data were collected and justification about the sampling have also been presented in this chapter, as well as issues related to ethical considerations and how the researcher addressed these issues. Also detailed in Chapter 4 are the research procedures – that is, what the researcher actually did during the fieldwork.

After discussing the research methodology in this chapter, the next chapter focuses on a detailed account of how data from the study were later managed, organised, coded, analysed and presented.
CHAPTER 5

Data Analysis

5.1. Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the qualitative methodology and design of this study, the justification of why qualitative inquiry was chosen and other issues related to qualitative research, as well as how the study was conducted. Chapter 5 focuses on the analysis of the data, in particular those of interview data. Besides presenting a literature review of qualitative data analysis, this chapter also discusses the procedures and stages of how the data were analysed. In addition, a discussion of qualitative analysis by using computer software is included, as well as a brief introduction of NVivo 7 – the software chosen to assist the researcher for organising, managing and coding the data of the study.

5.2. Qualitative data analysis: an overview

Qualitative researchers, according to Denzin and Lincoln (2005), use a variety of strategies and methods to collect and analyse qualitative data. Such data can take the forms of fieldnotes, interview transcripts, documents, pictures or other graphic representations, and there is no single or most appropriate way of approaching and/or analysing those materials (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996). In fact, Merriam (1998) admits that
it is likely that the process of qualitative data analysis is ‘highly intuitive; a researcher cannot always explain where an insight came from or how relationships among the data were detected’ (p. 156). Nevertheless, a number of qualitative researchers challenge such a view and believe that qualitative data analysis can be procedural, systematic and rigorous (see, for example, the works by Anfara Jr., Brown, & Mangione, 2002; and Wet & Erasmus, 2005).

Qualitative data analysis, in short, is the process of making sense of the data, which includes the actions of consolidating, reducing and interpreting what the research participants say or do (Merriam, 1998). In another discussion Bogdan and Biklen (1992) point out that qualitative data analysis is ‘the process of systematically searching and arranging the interview transcripts, fieldnotes, and other materials’ (p. 153) that a qualitative researcher has accumulated in his/her study in order to increase his/her understanding of those data. Analysis includes working with those qualitative data, organising them, breaking them into manageable units, synthesising them, searching for patterns that emerge, discovering what is crucial, as well as deciding what kind of findings are to be disseminated (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). Many agree that in a qualitative inquiry, the process of analysis is part of the research design and of the data collection (see, for example, Coffey & Atkinson, 1996) – the process of data collection and analysis is, as a matter of fact, ‘recursive and dynamic’ (Merriam, 1998, p. 155).

Although there is probably no single or correct method of analysing qualitative data, LeCompte and Preissle (1993) have reminded researchers that data analysis should begin with a review of the research plan or proposal – that is, by relocating the original research questions. This should be followed by what they refer to as ‘scanning’ (p. 236).
Such scanning involves rereading the data in order to check their completeness and to 'reacquaint the researcher with territory previously covered, this time with the wisdom of hindsight' (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993, p. 236).

Among the most cited comments on qualitative data analysis is that by Miles and Huberman (1994), who define analysis as consisting of three concurrent flows of activity: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification (p. 10). Data reduction here includes the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting and transforming the data that appear in the interview transcripts; it is in this step that data coding is normally done. The next step, data display, refers to the process of displaying the data in the forms of matrices, graphs, charts and networks. During conclusion drawing/verification, the meanings that emerge from the data have to be validated and confirmed.

Another common strategy of qualitative data analysis is the grounded theory originally developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967); it is an approach in which explanations and theorising are formed from the emerging analysis of data. A grounded theory is inductive in its orientation and it consists of categories, properties and hypotheses that are conceptually linked. A common method linked to grounded theory is the constant comparative method, in which a particular incident in the data is compared with another incident either in the same set of data or in another set. These comparisons will result in categories, which are then compared to each other until a theory can be formulated (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; also in Merriam, 1998). The constant comparative method is therefore integral to grounded theory and, in Maykut and Morehouse's view (1994), it serves as a manual and step-by-step data analysis, starting with the category
coding activity of the textual data, refinement of categories, and exploration of relationship and patterns across categories. These processes will eventually lead up to an integration of data or sense-making of the data (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994).

A more recent development of grounded theory by Strauss and Corbin (1998) emphasises on the idea that theory derived from the data is systematically gathered and analysed through the research process. In this case, data collection, analysis and eventual theory stand in close relationship to one another (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 12). From the initial description of grounded theory by Glaser and Strauss (1967) to its development and refinement by Strauss and Corbin (1998), grounded theory is essentially theory generation from the data - grounded theory is concerned with the development of theory out of data.

For some, grounded theory can present a problem of theory testing and theory verification instead of theory generation, particularly if a conceptual framework which is not based on prior examination is absent from the research project (Hilferty, 2004). However, according to Bong (2002), the rigour of data collection (through sampling and triangulation) and analysis (through constant comparative method) in grounded theory approach constitutes good practices in qualitative research; it will contribute to and enhance the study's validity, reliability and generalisability of the findings.

Merriam's (1998) levels of analysis have also been influential in qualitative research, particularly for case study research. Her model of analysis consists of three levels: descriptive account, category construction, and theory building. The most basic level includes thinking through from the data what will be included and what will be left out: 'data are organised chronologically or sometimes topically and presented in a
narrative that is largely descriptive’ (p. 187). The next level of analysis aims at constructing categories (and subcategories) or themes indicated by the data; this is commonly done by constant comparative method of data analysis. The second level is more abstract than the first level of analysis as it involves using concepts to describe phenomena. The last level of analysis involves making inferences, developing models and generating theory (Merriam, 1998).

5.3. Data analysis of the study

What has been discussed in the previous section served as general strategies to guide the analysis of the study. Following LeCompte and Preissle’s (1993) suggestion, the analysis in the current study began with reviewing the original research plan and questions. This is in line with Anfara et al.’s (2002) strategies and suggestions in making the qualitative research process more rigorous and public – that is, by providing detailed explanations of how research questions are related to data sources, how themes and categories are developed, and how triangulation is accomplished. Their step-by-step tabular strategies in documenting the relationship between data sources and the initial research questions, the development of themes and categories, and the triangulation of the findings have proven to be insightful and useful for this study.

The analysis of the data in this project was also influenced by Miles and Huberman’s (1994) data reduction, data display and verification, the constant comparative method in grounded theory, and the three levels of analysis proposed by Merriam (1998). In all the strategies applied in data analysis in this project, one of the
most crucial steps is the coding process. Coffey and Atkinson (1996) believe that qualitative data analysis often begins with the identification of key themes and patterns through the processes of coding data. Coding, as they further explain, refers to ‘condensing the bulks of data sets into analysable units by creating categories with and from the data’ (p. 26). For Merriam (1998), coding is one way of organising and managing qualitative data by simply assigning a form of ‘shorthand designation to various aspects of the data’ (p. 164). Coding in the grounded theory refers to a process by which a researcher ‘takes off’ from the data — in this case, the researcher explores, examines and theorises about emerging ideas (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Thus, one of the aims of coding is it enables the researcher to easily retrieve specific pieces of data (Merriam, 1998).

Coding includes four steps of analytic process: comparing units of meaning across categories for inductive category coding, refining categories, exploring relationships and patterns across categories, and integrating those data to finally write a theory (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994). Elsewhere, Coffey and Atkinson (1996) provide a summary of the roles of coding. They are: (1) to notice relevant phenomena, (2) to collect examples of those phenomena, and (3) to analyse those phenomena in order to find commonalities, differences, patterns and structures. They further believe that nowadays the procedure of code-and-retrieve has been implemented using a number of computer software packages (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996).

Thus, coding is not only part of data analysis but is in itself analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994); it is also paradigmatic of the constant comparative method of the grounded theory and qualitative data analysis (Bong, 2002). The analysis of the data in
this study inevitably involved much coding and code retrieving from interview transcripts. The coding and retrieving processes in this study were done with the assistance of NVivo, computer software especially designed for qualitative research analysis. Thus, the next section of this chapter focuses on the issues surrounding computer-assisted qualitative data analysis (CAQDAS) in general and NVivo in particular.

5.4. Computers in qualitative analysis

Computer-based qualitative analysis gained its popularity in the mid 1980s (e.g. Lee & Fielding, 1991; Richards, 2002) and since then it has made qualitative data analysis quite different (Ozkan, 2004). In fact, Miles and Huberman (1994) admit that the development of new softwares for qualitative analysis has been phenomenal and for the past few years contemporary qualitative researchers have been using those softwares for a number of purposes, such as for entering data, coding, data/code searching and retrieving, making displays or building concepts. Coffey and Atkinson (1996) are even convinced that computing can be a key feature of contemporary qualitative data analysis.

Lee and Fielding (1991) believe that the development of computer technology will bring benefits to qualitative researchers since it can make their work easier, more productive and more thorough, which will further contribute to a more rigorous analysis (Bazeley, 2007). In addition, computer undoubtedly provides a speedy means of recording data as well as permitting it to be retrieved very rapidly; it has unlimited abilities to code texts rapidly and multiply (Richards, 2002). This is particularly useful
when qualitative researchers are faced with a large and very often 'unsystematised' (p. 3) body of field materials (Lee & Fielding, 1991). Merriam (1998) for example mentions that data management is indeed made easier with the help of computer programs. This is crucial as 'data management is no small aspect of analysis' (p. 167) and is the beginning of theory building. She further sums up that data management involves data preparation (e.g. typing notes, transcribing interviews, editing and formulating), data identification (e.g. dividing texts into meaningful segments that can easily be located) and data manipulation (e.g. retrieving and rearranging those meaningful segments). In a similar discussion, Coffey and Atkinson (1996) also observe that computer software used for qualitative data analysis usually implements the code-and-retrieve strategy. They describe the advantage of such a strategy as follows:

At its simplest, this approach recapitulates the tasks of manual coding and searching. On the whole, however, the software allows - even encourages - the analyst to do more with that strategy than manual techniques would support (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996, p. 170).

Despite its advantages, computer softwares for qualitative analysis do present concerns and potential problems. Merriam (1998), for instance, lists those concerns, which include the issue that computers can distance the researcher from the data and that inappropriate application of the technology will result in poor research. Moreover, some fear that computer-assisted analysis might result in a premature theoretical closure and that computer will take over the analysis (Lee & Fielding, 1991). In addition, the 'code and retrieve' methods (e.g. Coffey & Atkinson, 1996) are sometimes seen as dominant methods that exclude other analytic activities and the use of computer softwares is thought to mechanise analysis and support only grounded theory methodology (Bazeley, 2007). In another study, Richards (2002) has also observed that one of the downsides of
 qualitative software concerns with coding — in other words, coding done with the assistance of computer can be much more thorough and so the job is likely to be much more demanding as well.

To use or not to use computer softwares for qualitative analysis is entirely the researcher's decision. Bazeley (2007) states that human factors are still very much involved in qualitative analysis using computer softwares; she believes that computers are useful tools that can support and be used for a variety of research methodological purposes. Earlier, Tesch (1991) also stated that computers cannot make conceptual decisions — the thinking, judging, deciding and interpreting the data are still done by the researcher. Thus, with regard to a decision of whether or not a researcher should use computer programs, perhaps Merriam’s (1998) suggestion should be taken into consideration:

Researchers who plan to use software should identify their criteria for software selection, maintain a critical awareness of the effects of those tools in use, and report their influences, just as study limitations are now reported (Merriam, 1998, p. 175).

The researcher of this study used NVivo to assist in data analysis. The decision to use NVivo over other qualitative softwares was mainly based on a practical consideration; it is because research students at the University of Sydney can get the software licence relatively quickly, easily and free of charge. The following section of this chapter thus provides a brief overview of the software and how NVivo can help a researcher in analysing the research data.
5.5. Qualitative analysis using NVivo: an overview

NVivo is claimed to be the most utilised computer software for contemporary qualitative analysis. Its latest version (which is used in this study) is called NVivo 7 because it is an upgrade path for both NVivo and N6, the current version of the NUD*IST software (Bazeley, 2007; Richards, 2006). As claimed by Bazeley (2007), the use of NVivo is never intended to take the place of the researcher's role in learning from the qualitative data but rather to increase the effectiveness and efficiency of such learning. She further provides a summary of how NVivo can assist and support analysis.

NVivo will help qualitative researchers to:

- manage data (to organise and keep track of the many records of a qualitative project)
- manage ideas (to organise and provide rapid access to conceptual and theoretical knowledge that has been generated earlier in the study)
- query data (to have the program retrieve from its database all relevant information inquired)
- graphically model (to show cases, ideas or concepts being built from the data and the relationship between them)
- report from the data (Bazeley, 2007, pp. 2-3).

Elsewhere Ozkan (2004) has noticed that as qualitative research software, the NVivo program has useful features for researchers, such as features to code data based on characters, features to code while editing, and features to manage multimedia data. NVivo is also a powerful way to perform data coding and it demonstrates very clearly all the data coded and the way they are coded. However, some researchers have expressed
their criticisms of the software, saying that NVivo and its tools are designed to serve the purpose of grounded theory only (Ozkan, 2004).

This research project used NVivo 7 to help the process of analysis, particularly that of data coding. However, given the many features of the software but only limited time for the researcher to master the program, NVivo 7 was mainly used to manage and organise the research data (mostly interview transcripts), to code and retrieve, to link and see the relationship of the coded data, and to later display the data in the forms of tables or matrices. In this study NVivo 7 was purely a tool to help the researcher manage the massive research data in a more organised, efficient and effective way – all the intellectual tasks such as thinking, judging, and interpreting the data were still undertaken by the researcher. The next section of Chapter 5 lists the stages and procedures of how the researcher conducted the analysis.

5.6. Data analysis: the stages

As the process of analysis is part of the research design and data collection (e.g. Coffey & Atkinson, 1996; Merriam, 1998), this section details what the researcher did during and after the data were gathered. The design of the research was based on the theoretical understanding of (Indonesian) teacher professionalism and its related concepts and issues. The main research questions are:

1. How are teaching profession and teacher professionalism defined, constructed and perceived by Indonesian EFL teachers and other related education stakeholders in one case in the Indonesian town of Salatiga?
2. What support is available and perceived important for enhancing Indonesian EFL teacher professionalism?

3. To what extent are professional development activities, which are planned and programmed by various educational stakeholders, perceived crucial in bringing changes on Indonesian EFL teacher learning and professional practices?

4. To what extent does Law 14/2005 impact Indonesian EFL teachers' professionalism?
   a. How do Indonesian EFL teachers, principals and other related stakeholders perceive the imposed changes?
   b. What are the responses, support, professional behaviours and strategies of teachers and principals in particular in coping with the changes?
   c. Are there any different perceptions, beliefs, behaviours, and strategies among different teachers and principals from different types of schools?

Based on the theoretical framework on teacher professionalism and the research questions, the researcher designed interview question items for teachers and principals (see Appendix). The following section thus details the analysis phases after interview questions had been formulated.

5.6.1. Phase 1: early analysis based on pilot study

The first analytical step of the research project involved refinement of interview questions and generation of initial categories based on the pilot study. There were two principals and six English teachers interviewed in the pilot study. After each interview, the researcher listened to the recording and wrote general comments and notes. Once the
pilot study was completed, the researcher listened for a second time to the eight interview recordings and jotted down more detailed notes, which resulted in more refined – sometimes new – ideas, concepts, themes and categories. For example, interviews with the two principals in the pilot study resulted in a new topic on the roles of the teachers’ professional association and/or union. Such a topic was not covered in the early research plan as the researcher was not yet aware of the perhaps significant roles and contributions of the organisation for teaching profession and teacher professionalism.

The notes made during the pilot study also led to the elimination of irrelevant ideas that should not have been covered in the questions, confusing questions, or questions that were later considered to be redundant. For example, based on the responses by six teachers interviewed during the pilot study, three questions about Law 14/2005 were finally merged into one question because they yielded similar and repetitious responses. The questions were as follows:

- To what extent will Law 14/2005 impact your professional plans and career development?
- What will be your plans to cope with the mandated changes stipulated in the Law?
- Are you ready for teacher certification?

The merged, new question became: ‘What are your plans and strategies after the release of Law 14/2005?’

Based on the early analysis of the pilot study, the researcher then revised and reworded the question items. The new version of the question items was then cross-checked against the main research questions to see if there were any unclear, irrelevant or overlapping ideas. Due to time constraints, interviews during the pilot study were not
transcribed. At this early stage of the analysis the researcher did not apply any computer software either; the researcher simply used Microsoft Word to type the comments and notes generated from the interviews and to later revise the questions.

Table 5 (next page) summarises research questions (RQ) in relation to the interview questions.

5.6.2. Phase 2: analysis of the interviews

The analysis process began when the researcher wrote a journal after each interview (see Appendix for summary of journal). She then listened to the interview recordings for the first time. Similar to what she did during the pilot study, the researcher also jotted down general notes and comments after each listening. The transcribing activity took place after all interviews had been conducted. In total there were 71 people interviewed. The length of the interviews ranges from 20 to 70 minutes. As the study did not focus on conversational analysis, the interviews were not transcribed ad verbatim; repetitious and incomplete utterances were not transcribed. However, examples of original utterances can be found in Appendix 13. The interviews were not translated into English either; all remained authentic in Indonesian. In addition, The regional language (Javanese) words and expressions used by some of the participants were translated into standard Indonesian to make the code-and-retrieve processes easier.

The researcher transcribed all the interviews herself. This was done in order to become familiarised with the contents of the data. The transcripts average between 5 to 15 pages of single-spaced texts and were saved as Microsoft Word documents. Before being
imported to NVivo 7 project, these documents were reformatted with styled headings – the questions were formatted as Heading 1 and the answers as Heading 2.

Table 5: Research questions in relation to interview questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESEARCH QUESTIONS IN RELATION TO INTERVIEW QUESTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Research Questions</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. How are teaching profession and teacher professionalism defined, constructed and perceived by Indonesian EFL teachers and other related education stakeholders in one case in the Indonesian town of Salatiga?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. What support is available and perceived important for enhancing Indonesian EFL teacher professionalism?</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. To what extent are professional development activities, which are planned and programmed by various educational stakeholders, perceived crucial in bringing changes on Indonesian EFL teacher learning and professional practices?</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. To what extent does Law 14/2005 impact Indonesian EFL teacher professionalism?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. How do Indonesian EFL teachers, principals, and other related stakeholders perceive the imposed changes?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. What are the responses, support, professional behaviours and strategies of teachers and principals in particular in coping with the changes?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Are there any different perceptions, beliefs, behaviours, and strategies among different teachers and principals from different types of schools?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Key to Table 5:**

QT = Questions for teachers (see Appendix 2)

QP = Questions for principals (see Appendix 3)

QED = Questions for English Department staff members (see Appendix 4)
QDEO = Questions for personnel of District Education Office (see Appendix 5)
QTA = Question for Teachers' Association representative (see Appendix 6)

Pseudonyms were used during this stage. The journals written during the study were typed using Microsoft Word and were later imported to NVivo 7 and saved as memos. These memos were usually linked to specific interview documents, which made it easier for the researcher to later retrieve any ideas or topics written in the journals. In qualitative analysis, memos can be utilised to create a reflective context for further analysis, for anticipating possible trends and themes of the study, and for indicating areas for future discussions (Firestone, Mangin, Martinez & Polovsky, 2005).

Once the transcribing activity had finished, the researcher read and reread the whole documents. Reading those transcripts gave the researcher an opportunity to get closer to, and interact with, the data before the coding process began. Wet and Erasmus (2005) describe close reading of qualitative texts as giving the researcher 'an initial sense of issues arising from the data' and helping the researcher 'remain alert for unexpected responses' (p. 29). Reading the transcripts more than once also assisted the researcher to start recognising phrases that occurred regularly during interviews.

All the interview transcripts were imported to NVivo 7 program and saved in the document sources (i.e. a folder in the NVivo program where the researcher saved and imported interview transcripts) and case node (i.e. a folder where the researcher coded all the material about each interview participant and his/her attributes). Each interview was coded with a pseudonym along with the title/position and the institution/school/ organisation where the interviewee was from. A document titled 'Pr/PrS-S3/Mr.Udik', for instance, means that the document was about Mr. Udik (a pseudonym), a principal from a Private Senior High School Number 3. In addition, a document which has a title
‘Tr1/IS-S/Mr.Adi’ means that the document had all information about a teacher called Mr. Adi, Teacher number 1, who taught at a Senior-level of an Islamic School (hence the code ‘IS-S’). The list of all interviewees and their special codes can be found in Appendix 7.

The responses of the interviews were first coded in the free nodes. Free nodes in NVivo 7 are particularly useful to use at the beginning of the analysis project since they do not assume relationships with any other ideas (e.g. Bazeley, 2007). In this study, interview questions became categories in free nodes. The category called ‘TeacherOtherJob’, for instance, was based on an interview question that asked a teacher about their second job. Under this category, answers from all teachers were coded. This made it easier for the researcher to see if there were patterns emerging within this category or if there were meaningful chunks that could be coded elsewhere or placed under a new category.

After coding all the interview responses in their respective categories in free nodes, the next step of coding activity involved creating new categories in the so-called tree nodes. Tree nodes in NVivo are hierarchically structured, consisting of categories, subcategories and sub-sub-categories. Tree nodes allow researchers to organise categories into conceptual groups and subgroups and aim at establishing conceptual clarity, prompting to code richly, and identifying patterns (e.g. Bazeley, 2007). In tree nodes, the researcher could see more clearly the relationship between and among categories and/or subcategories. For example, under the category of ‘Responses-UUGD’ in tree nodes were five subcategories: (1) Principals, (2) EFL Teacher, (3) Teachers’ Association, (4) District Education Office, and (5) University. These nodes included coded responses of
principals, English teachers, key representative of the Teachers’ Association, personnel of the District Education Office, and university staff members on Law 14/2005. The sample of free nodes and tree nodes are included in Appendix 11 and Appendix 12.

The process of analysis also involved refinement of categories as well as emergence of new categories or themes after the first level of coding had been done. As the researcher reread information coded in the free nodes, new categories began to appear. New themes such as ‘Latest English Curriculum’ and ‘National Examination’ emerged from information under the category of ‘Teacher Needs’; that is, responses from most teachers indicated that they needed more training and knowledge about the latest curriculum – which they considered confusing – so that they could prepare their students to face the standardised national examination. Such standardisation is in contrast with the dimension of ‘teacher autonomy’ (another category) and is not in line with the new Law on teacher professionalism either. This and other issues will be discussed more thoroughly in Chapter 6, the chapter on findings and discussions.

The NVivo 7 program was mostly used to organise, manage and retrieve the large interview transcripts in this study. Free nodes and tree nodes were the main features used in coding activity of this study. Free nodes in this study served as first-level coding, whereas tree nodes served as second-level coding in which the researcher identified clusters and hierarchies of information. The next level of analysis, which involved identification of more complex relationships or patterns and then conclusion drawing, was mostly done by the researcher and not the software. As reminded by Wet and Erasmus (2005): ‘the software does not do the analysis as it does not think for one’ (p. 34). Thus, after the help of NVivo 7 in dealing with managing data and coding, it is then
the researcher’s task to intellectually conduct further analysis, draw conclusion, and develop theory from the data.

From extracts under the category ‘Professional Development Program’ (initially placed in the free nodes of NVivo 7 program), Table 6 below contains an example of the steps taken by the researcher during the coding process.

Table 6: Example of coding process

<table>
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<th>First category: Professional Development Program (PDF)</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>New category emerged from the coded chunks</th>
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<td><strong>Interview extract from ‘Teacher/PS-S2/Ms. Adina’</strong>:</td>
<td>I routinely join a round table discussion organised by the university. One of the advantages of the program for me is I get to meet teachers from other schools. This is important for me besides acquiring new knowledge.</td>
<td>Advantages of PDF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interview extract from ‘Teacher/IS-J/Ms. Indira’</strong>:</td>
<td>I only join such a program once a year. Obviously I gain more knowledge from that program. But more importantly, I meet people with the same profession. We usually share about our problems.</td>
<td>Advantages of PDF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interview extract from ‘Teacher/PS-S3/Mr. Raja’</strong>:</td>
<td>Sometimes I get new things from seminars and workshops but if I don’t, at least I’m reminded of what I learned ages ago at college. It’s like refreshment. But I also get to see other English teachers. I think this is also important for us because we can have some sort of network and communication</td>
<td>Advantages of PDF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interview extract from ‘Teacher/IS-S/Ms. Risa’</strong>:</td>
<td>I usually get something new from seminars or workshops that I join. But sometimes what they give us in the seminars are not applicable and do not suit the condition of this school. It’s hard to implement what I receive from those professional development programs. What they deliver is more suitable for small class, whereas here we have to handle more than 40 students in one class.</td>
<td>Weaknesses of PDF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interview extract from ‘Teacher/PS-J/Mr. Hamid’</strong>:</td>
<td>I rarely join any professional development programs now because I nearly retire. But from my experience, what they give us during those programs is usually too theoretical. When it comes to implementation, there are always obstacles in class. So for me, what I get from such programs is only for my own enrichment and not for the students’.</td>
<td>Weaknesses of PDF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interview extract from ‘Teacher/PS-S3/Ms. Hida’</strong>:</td>
<td>I do get a lot of information from professional development programs. But sometimes materials and topics covered in those programs don’t have anything to do with curriculum or materials used in high schools. In that case it’s not useful for me because I can’t apply what I get.</td>
<td>Weaknesses of PDF</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.6.3. **Phase 3: analysis of related documents**

As the documents analysed in the study were all hard copies, they could not be incorporated in the program. In this case the researcher first read and reread the documents and highlighted manually parts of the documents which were considered important and thus needed to be coded. The next step was to write a memo of each document and if necessary copy and type parts of it. These were saved as regular documents in Microsoft Word and were later imported to NVivo program; the important chunks were then coded in relevant categories or sub-categories. For example, the notion of 'professional teacher' as mentioned in Law 14/2005 was coded in the respective category and was later compared with the ideas of 'professional teacher' as suggested by teachers and principals.

5.7. **Summary**

Chapter 5 has detailed the steps of data analysis in the study. This chapter discusses an overview of qualitative data analysis, general strategies of qualitative analysis that have guided this study, the use of computer softwares in qualitative analysis as well as a brief discussion of NVivo 7, the software chosen to help the researcher manage and organise the massive interview data. Chapter 5 has also provided the explanations, steps and stages of how the researcher conducted the coding—both with the help of NVivo 7 and manually. The chapter that follows will discuss the findings of the research project as well as displaying and presenting the data in a more detailed manner.
CHAPTER 6

Findings and Discussion

6.1. Introduction

Chapter 1 of this thesis outlined the research project and its contextual background, while Chapters 2 and 3 provided the theoretical framework on notions of 'profession', 'professionalism', and 'education system' and the 'teaching force' in Indonesia. Chapter 4 discussed the chosen research design and methods for this study and Chapter 5 explored how the data, obtained from interviews and relevant documents, were analysed.

This chapter presents the major findings of the study — particularly, findings originating from interviews with teachers and principals. The chapter provides detailed and thorough discussions of how teaching profession and teacher professionalism are defined, constructed and perceived by English teachers and other related stakeholders in the Salatiga Municipality, within the context of the national education system. It also addresses the issues surrounding professional development programs and other professional support available for those teachers, and what impacts such programs had on teachers and their professionalism.

In addition, Chapter 6 also presents findings and discussion of whether or not Law Number 14/2005 is perceived to have brought changes for the teaching profession and teacher professionalism, how educational stakeholders (English teachers and school
principals, in particular) in the Municipality perceived the changes as imposed by the Law, and what professional behaviours and strategies they had in order to cope with the mandated changes.

The findings and discussion in this chapter are organised around the Research Questions of the current study. Section 6.2 presents findings in relations with Research Question 1: 'How are teaching profession and teacher professionalism defined, constructed and perceived by Indonesian EFL teachers and other related education stakeholders in one case in the Indonesian town of Salatiga?'

Section 6.3 discusses findings of Research Question 2: 'What support is available and perceived important for enhancing Indonesian EFL teacher professionalism?'

The next section, section 6.4 provides discussion about professional development activities for EFL teachers to answer Research Question 3: ‘To what extent are professional development activities, which are planned and programmed by various educational stakeholders, perceived crucial in bringing changes on Indonesian EFL teacher learning and professional practices?’

The fourth Research Question, ‘To what extent does Law 14/2005 impact Indonesian EFL teacher professionalism’ is elaborated in section 6.5. The sub-questions are also discussed in this section, i.e. ‘How do Indonesian EFL teachers, principals, and other related stakeholders perceive the imposed changes?’; ‘What are the responses, support, professional behaviours and strategies of teachers and principals in particular in coping with the changes?; and ‘Are there any different perceptions, beliefs, behaviours, and strategies among different teachers and principals from different types of schools?'

The section following, section 6.6, is the summary of this chapter.
Table 7: List of Contents of Chapter 6

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6.2. The teaching profession and professionalism defined, constructed and perceived: the case of Indonesian EFL teachers in Salatiga Municipality

Teachers and the teaching profession in Indonesia in general have always been undergoing challenges and problems since the national education system was first established following the country's independence. It has been argued in the previous chapters (Chapters 2 and 3) that 'professionalism' may be perceived differently by Indonesian teachers due to a particular historical context that had shaped the nation's education system and its teaching force, even though the discussion in this thesis cannot be separated from dimensions of profession such as knowledge, autonomy and responsibility as theorised by Western scholars (e.g. Hoyle & John, 1995). What is presented throughout this chapter, however, does enter the area of debate of whether or not teaching should or should not be considered as a profession, although it is shown in the data that some participants did make comparisons between teaching and more recognised professions such as lawyer and doctor.

The fact that the teaching profession in Indonesia is considered underpaid and undervalued as a result of budget constraints (e.g. Jones & Hagul, 2001) has also contributed to a different type of 'teacher professionalism'. Furthermore, some have argued that the teaching profession in Indonesia has not yet been properly recognised, both financially and in terms of status. As a matter of fact, the profession and its salaries only appear attractive to those groups which are located in the lowest income percentiles (Alwasilah, 2000; Nilan, 2003).
Based on the data from the fieldwork, the sections below provide definitions and perceptions of the teaching profession and teacher professionalism by EFL teachers and other related stakeholders in one Indonesian town of Salatiga (Salatiga Municipality). Their perceptions of the profession and teacher professionalism are elaborated in terms of five areas: motives for entering the profession, the society's views about the profession, teaching rewards, teachers' career progression, and the perceptions of teachers and principals on the meaning of professional EFL teachers.

6.2.1. Motives for entering the teaching profession

Reasons for entering the teaching profession may vary; those reasons nevertheless impact on how someone views the profession and how one is committed to the profession (e.g. Cole, 1985). For some, becoming a teacher is a passion. For others, the reasons may include financial burden, influence from families, religious calling, and even the perceived roles and positions of women in the society. In addition, as the data were sourced from English teachers, one of the motives of becoming a teacher appears to be the love of the English language.

As revealed in the data, some teachers did want to enter the profession in the first place because they loved teaching; ten participants expressed their love and passion for teaching even before they entered the profession. For example, Ms. Lesti, a young teacher from Public School 3, was committed to the profession despite the fact that she was only a part-timer (hence low in income) and that the school was not supportive for novice teachers.
In answer to the question about why she wanted to be a teacher, she said:

'I enjoy the profession. I believe that it is a challenging profession but I love it. I've always wanted to be a teacher. That's why I chose to enter the teachers' training college after I finished high school'.

A similar view was expressed by other teachers such as Ms. Rika from Islamic School 1 and Mr. Yato from Public School 3, who said that they have always wanted to be a teacher since they were little and have always enjoyed being a teacher since.

Other teachers, however, admitted that they fell in love with the profession and became committed to it after they entered the profession. In other words, teaching was not their chosen path in the first place. In answering the question on why they entered the teaching profession, two teachers said:

'Teaching was actually not my goal in life; I didn’t intend to become a teacher. But after dealing with students for some time, I must say I fell in love with the profession. Now I always feel satisfied whenever I can make my students understand after I explain things to them or whenever I can apply new methods in class successfully' (Ms. Nana, a senior teacher at Public School 5).

'I didn’t want to be a teacher at first but now I really like it. I love teaching. Moreover, I learn that my future as a teacher isn’t that bad after all - I can live with my salary and I’ll get my pension when I retire' (Mr. Susilo, a young teacher at Public School 6).

What is expressed by Mr. Susilo may be in contrast with the perceived notion of Indonesian teachers as being underpaid. However, Mr. Susilo is young, single and still lives with his parents in a relatively small town; he thus does not need to support anyone else but himself. Interviews with married teachers with children, however, do tell different stories and at some point reflect the condition of teachers as being underpaid. Ms. Nindi, for instance, stated the following when asked about salaries for Indonesian teachers:

'I think teachers' salaries in Indonesia are still low, particularly given the fact that living cost is really high nowadays. Education for our children is also very expensive now. It's ironic if we think about it; teachers are always expected to deliver their best for their students yet at the same time many of them cannot afford the cost of education
of their own children. Often it’s not financially feasible for us to pay for our kids’ education.' (Ms. Nindi, a teacher at Public School 1).

Despite the relatively low financial reward, most of the teachers interviewed did not see it as a motive to leave the profession or change to another profession. Only two teachers in particular, Mr. Sami from Private School 6 and Ms. Mawar from Private School 8, said that they were still open to other career possibilities even though they enjoyed their teaching job at the moment; the former because he had a young family and thus needed more money, and the latter because she was still young and unmarried and hence she loved to try new challenges. Other teachers, however, confirmed that they would stay in the profession. When asked for her future plans for example, Ms. Kasih, a young part-timer who worked at three different schools, mentioned that:

‘I don’t know if I’ll still be teaching here given I’m only a part-timer. But I’ll always be a teacher – here or elsewhere. I love teaching and I don’t think I’m interested in another job other than teaching.’ (Ms. Kasih, a teacher at Private School 5)

The so-referred ‘religious calling or duty’ is another reason why one wants to become a teacher. Teachers teaching at Islamic and Protestant schools usually cited this motive as their reason of entering the profession in the first place. Two teachers had a similar answer when asked why they became a teacher:

‘I believe that by teaching I’m serving Allah. It’s my duty as His follower. I have this satisfaction that I get from teaching – it’s not the financial reward that matters most for me.’ (Ms. Dwi, a teacher at Private School 3).

‘Teaching is part of my ministry duties as Christian to serve and love others, particularly the marginalised. That’s why I took the teaching position in this school. I actually believe that once you decided to choose this teaching path, you must show your total commitment and professionalism. Unfortunately this is one thing that I can’t do nowadays and I feel guilty about it sometimes.’ (Mr. Sami, a teacher at Private School 6).

Mr. Sami, however, expressed his regret for not being able to show the total commitment which he used to have a couple of years ago. This is because he is now a married man
with a baby and, despite his idealism (i.e. financial reward is not important), family must now come first. He thus has to make teaching as his second job and opens his own business. This, as a result, has affected his professionalism as he now has limited time, money and energy to learn or join a professional development activity, for instance.

Obtaining ‘fast money’ due to financial burden is another reason why someone wants to be a teacher, particularly because English teachers are in high demand nowadays since English is one of the subjects included in the national exam. Six teachers frankly cited economic reasons as their initial motive to be English teachers. With regard to such a motive, a teacher at an alternative school was quoted as saying the following:

‘Frankly speaking, even though I enjoy teaching, I became an English teacher mainly because of economic reason. Besides teaching in this school, I can easily give private English tutorial to many other students from different schools.’ (Mr. Hatta, a teacher at Alternative School 1)

Five other teachers who had the same motive came from public schools. They entered the teaching profession as a result of financial burden. One of these teachers stated:

‘To be honest, teaching was never my goal – I’m never really into teaching, even now. I became a teacher because I desperately needed a job at that time. I graduated in 1997 and business was no good due to the monetary crisis so I decided to apply for a position as a public servant; I passed the tests and here I am now. But my interest was more on business than education’ (Mr. Nano, a teacher at Public School 2)

Mr. Nano further admitted that he was often reluctant to improve his knowledge and pedagogical skills because his main interest was not in teaching. In his case, the situation was made worse because he was tired of dealing with the mundane but massive administrative work as a teacher and other education bureaucracies. On top of that, he had to teach students whose motivation to learn a foreign language was relatively low.

A similar situation occurred with Mr. Hamid, a much more senior teacher who has been teaching for more than 30 years. He became a teacher because of financial
burdens and because his parents could not afford to pay education fees anymore. Three decades ago Indonesia was short of teachers; the number of public servant teachers could not meet the high enrolment for primary and secondary schooling (see Chapter 3). To solve the problem, the government opened a one-year teachers’ training program for high school graduates. Answering the question about his initial motive for becoming a teacher, Mr. Hamid said:

‘Actually I never dreamt of being a teacher. When I graduated from high school, going to university was not an option at all—my parents would never be able to afford it. We suffered from severe financial problem. That’s why I decided to enter the program and I chose English. After one year I was qualified to teach English for primary and secondary levels—this solved our financial situation.’ (Mr. Hamid, a teacher at Public School 4)

Mr. Barto, a principal at Public School 3 who is at the same time a senior English teacher, also became a teacher due to financial hardship. His first goal was to join the military but in late 1970s the government offered scholarships for high school graduates who would like to be teachers. Moreover, they would automatically be guaranteed positions as public servants as soon as they finished their studies at the teachers’ training college. Although he had never wanted to be a teacher, Mr. Barto did take the offer because the profession did not only earn him money but also long-term security as a public servant.

Unlike Mr. Nano, Mr. Hamid eventually found his passion in teaching after decades of interacting with children. However, he realised that his ‘quick teacher education’ meant that he was perhaps not professional enough to be an English teacher at present time. Nevertheless, he felt that he was too old to develop or learn more. He further explained why he was reluctant to grow:
"I'm not interested in learning anymore because I'm too old; I'm not as sharp as I used to be. Career wise, I don't have the intention to progress, so what's the point of developing?" (Mr. Hamid, a teacher at Public School 4)

Mr. Hamid, despite his unquestioned commitment and passion to the teaching profession, perhaps reflects one of the most common conditions of the country's teaching force: being underqualified (e.g. Naja, 2006; Prasetyo, 2006).

For some female teachers, the perceived (and expected) role and position of women in the society seemed to be their initial motive of becoming a teacher. Although this study does not include discussions on the anthropological and cultural perspectives of gender in Indonesia, according to some participants Indonesian women are expected to look after their husbands and children. Thus teaching is a convenient job for them should they want to juggle their family and career. Below are three female teachers' comments on answering the interview question about their reasons for becoming a teacher:

'I chose this profession because as a woman I realised that one day I'd get married and have kids. By becoming a teacher, I would have a lot of time for my family. For example, if my kids are on holidays, so am I.' (Ms. Nindi, a teacher at Public School 1).

'Teaching was not my first job. After I graduated from university I worked in an export-import company because I had a degree in English language. But this job was no longer suitable for me once I got married since I found it hard to look after my husband and my baby while at the same time I had to work full time. That's why I decided to become an English teacher because as a teacher I have more free time.' (Ms. Tiara, a teacher at Public School 6)

'I'm not married yet but I think being a teacher is convenient for a married woman. I can imagine myself being able to focus both on my family and my teaching career. This is because I believe I don't have to spend too much time in this profession. For example, I can finish working by 2 pm — it means I'll still have plenty of time for my family.' (Ms. Juli, a teacher at Public School 6)

When it comes to willingness or reluctance to enhance their professionalism as English teachers, gender apparently plays a crucial role. This will be discussed in the section of teacher learning and professional development of this chapter.
While Ms. Juli has anticipated her future life as a married woman who probably needs to juggle her family and career, for two other young teachers the reason behind their intention to enter the teaching profession was simply because they did not want to work in an office. Below are their comments with regard to their reason of why they were interested in the teaching profession:

'As a graduate from an English Department, I think being an English teacher is more enjoyable than working as a secretary in a foreign company, for example. A teacher deals with people, whereas those working in an office mostly deal with non-living beings.' (Ms. Hida, a teacher at Public School 3).

'At this point, I haven't really decided whether or not I'll like the teaching profession — I'm still young and have lots of opportunities. But if I were to choose between working in an office or teaching, I'd choose the latter. I don't think I can stand working all day in an office' (Ms. Mawar, a teacher at Private School 8).

Being English teachers, it is the love of the language that drove some of the participants to be teachers. The sole passion for English language (and not so much for the teaching profession) made those teachers attribute their professionalism to their oral and written skills in the language rather than pedagogical knowledge and skills that a teacher should also possess. Mr Ivan, a novice teacher at Islamic School 2, explicitly stated that professional English teachers are those who can communicate well in English with native speakers and who have good knowledge in English grammar. He admitted that with regard to his speaking skill, he considered himself as being ‘a professional teacher’. Nevertheless, as he further stated, he did not know quite a lot about recent issues in education and was not interested in them. For his further development as a teacher he simply said: ‘... as long as it is related directly to English language, I'm always willing to learn and improve.’

A similar attitude was expressed by Mr. Hamid, a teacher at Public School 4, who implied that he loved the language more than he loved the profession: 'If I did not teach
English, I doubted if I would be interested in teaching at all.' For him, a professional English teacher is someone who should first fall in love with the language, and his idea of enhancing professionalism is ‘... by reading English newspapers or watching English TV shows to enrich your vocabulary.’

Motives or reasons for entering the teaching profession, as acknowledged by Mr. Aman (a principal at Public School 4), does determine one’s professionalism. Those who choose the profession because they love teaching will not hesitate to improve themselves and continue their learning. Unfortunately, based on one principal’s critical observation, many Indonesian teachers, particularly public servants, become teachers because they were sometimes desperate and could not find positions elsewhere. When asked to comment about the reasons why someone wanted to be a teacher, he stated:

‘I believe people become teachers for different reasons. But I’ve noticed that a lot of teachers, particularly those who are public servants, entered the profession for the wrong reason; they became teachers because they were not accepted anywhere else. Such a motive obviously determines their long-term professional work.’ (Mr. Suto, a principal at Private School 6).

For the type of teachers as described by Mr. Suto, their professionalism is linked to their experience: the longer they stay in the job, the more experienced and hence the better teachers they are. This is regardless of their commitment, passion for teaching, professional and pedagogical knowledge and competence, real performance in class, or whether or not they have shown their enthusiasm and willingness to continually learn.

In sum, the notions of the English language teacher professionalism discussed in this section are related to one’s initial motives for entering the teaching profession. These motives include genuine passion for teaching, religious duties, financial hardship, the love for English language, perceived roles of women, or failure to enter other professions. Such motives bring implications to teachers’ professionalism and their further growth. As
discussed earlier in Chapter 2, the concepts of teacher professionalism are closely linked to autonomy, professional judgment, engagement with matters of curriculum and assessment, collaboration with others, power sharing with other stakeholders, and continuous learning (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1998). Someone who becomes an English teacher because of their sole passion for the language, for example, is perhaps not enthusiastic or willing to engage with curriculum and other pedagogical matters. Those who enter the profession in order to serve God and other people regardless of their knowledge or academic qualifications may face problems to exercise their professional judgment. Elsewhere, female teachers, who are usually expected to look after and care for their families at the same time, may feel hesitant or face dilemma to conduct further learning if such learning takes their time off their families.

The next section continues to address the focus of Research Question 1 — how teacher professionalism is defined — and refers to what the society in Indonesia normally views about the teaching profession and how those views affect teacher professionalism.

6.2.2. Teaching profession: views from the wider society

As a sociologist, Freidson (1994) describes ‘profession’ as a folk concept (see Chapter 2), a concept which maintains that one cannot possibly determine what profession is in an absolute sense. Profession in this case depends on ‘how people in a society determine who is professional and who is not, how they ‘make’ or ‘accomplish’ professions by their activities, and what the consequences are for the way in which they see themselves and perform their work’ (Freidson, 1994, p. 20).
Although it is not the aim of this thesis to elaborate the sociological perspectives of profession and professionalism in a more in-depth manner, the teaching profession in Indonesia is more often than not influenced by the views of the society in general. Some of the data obtained from the fieldwork did reflect this perspective. Teachers are believed to occupy a special position in the society, particularly in small communities. This is despite the teachers' real competence and performance in their professional lives. Four teachers, when asked about the place and status of the teaching profession in the society nowadays, stated their perceptions as follows:

'I feel that teachers are valued and respected by the society, especially in villages or small communities. I'm quite respected in my village because of my status as a teacher.' (Mr. Ical, a teacher at Islamic School 1)

'In terms of social status, I believe our society still regards teachers highly. Usually teachers in small communities act as 'public' figures and are expected to set good examples for the society. Often teachers are also appointed as chairpersons or organisers if the society is conducting some community programs. In some respect, teachers do have significant influence in their communities. This shows that society still has trusts on us' (Mr. Toris, a principal and teacher at Public School 5)

'Teachers are still respected in the communities they live in. Teachers are regarded as trustworthy and are often asked by community members to be involved in their programs or to occupy special positions in the community.' (Mr. Isa, a teacher at Public School 1)

'I think in a small town like Salatiga, teachers are still respected and valued by the community. For me this shows that the profession does have a special reward, regardless of how much money we actually earn' (Ms. Adina, a teacher at Private School 2)

In addition, members of small communities (particularly in rural areas in Indonesia) often regard the teaching profession as a more 'feasible', quicker and cheaper profession for their children to enter than other professions. Other professions such as doctors, lawyers or engineers are often considered to be more prestigious, yet at the same time also a lot more expensive. In answering the question about the cost and status of the teaching profession, one teacher made the following comment:
'Being a teacher was actually not my goal in life. I entered the profession because my parents believed that I can get a teaching job easily as soon as I graduate from the college. The cost of sending me to teachers' training college was not that expensive either. My parents could still afford it. Other professions are more costly. Moreover, in a small town like Salatiga, they believe that the teaching profession is still valued.'
(Ms. Ruli, a teacher at Islamic School 1)

The society in Indonesia in general does recognise and respect teaching as a profession and, in small communities or rural areas, the profession is even highly valued. Their recognition and respect are sometimes regardless of the teachers’ real competence, pedagogical knowledge or expertise. Such recognition is perceived crucial by teachers and principals, but it has twofold effects. On the one hand, it shows that the communities still have trust in teachers. On the other hand, teachers may feel burdened by the recognition and, as a result, they may be expected by the members of the community to offer quick cure for educational problems, such as how to reduce the continuously increasing cost of education or how to appropriately supervise students so they can pass the standardised national examination. The latter problem, in particular, is closely linked to today’s teacher professionalism in Indonesia because such standardisation is believed to deny one important dimension of professionalism, teacher autonomy.

How the society perceives teaching as a cheaper and more accessible profession proves a point made earlier by Nilan (2003), that the teaching profession in Indonesia and its salaries only appear attractive to those groups which are located in the lowest income percentiles. This has made the teaching profession to appear like a second-class profession in the society in comparison to other professions like doctors, judges, and lawyers. One of the consequences of the relatively easy access to enter the profession (hence, large number of teachers in the country) is the less reward that Indonesian teachers receive. A principal made the following comment:
Don’t compare teachers with other professions like judges or doctors. We definitely receive much less reward than those two professions. People regard those professions more highly, of course. It’s not surprising. Also, the government rewards them more. We may have the same salary base as public servants but the so-called functional incentives are different from one profession to another, with the teaching profession being at the bottom. If compared to functional incentives for doctors, teachers’ incentives are nothing. Moreover, there are millions of teachers around the country (Mr. Harto, a principal at Public School 3).

To sum up, the society’s views of the teaching profession also contribute to how Indonesian teacher professionalism is defined. Respect and social recognition are what ‘professional teachers’ normally get from their communities, regardless of their actual knowledge and expertise. Respect and recognition, however, do not necessarily translate to appropriate financial reward for the profession. The commonly-known little reward that Indonesian teachers receive does determine their professionalism, particularly in relation to their willingness to continue their learning and professional development. This matter is further elaborated in the subsequent section.

6.2.3. Rewards for teaching: how much is the profession valued?

It has been discussed in Chapter 3 in this thesis that in general, Indonesian teachers are undervalued and underpaid (e.g. Alwasilah, 2000; Naja, 2006; Prasetyo, 2006). The data from the fieldwork suggest that such a condition does exist. Most teachers and principals who participated in the current study admitted that the teaching profession and their professionalism are not yet properly rewarded despite the hard and massive work that they have to perform daily and the high expectations from parents and society that they have to endure. Three teachers and one principal, for instance, expressed their concerns, stating that it is sad that the teaching profession in Indonesia is even less
valued than paramedics, nurses or bank clerks. They made the following comments when asked about the rewards for the teaching profession in Indonesia:

"In general, the reward for the teaching profession in this country is still far from being satisfactory. The salary base for all public servants is actually the same, provided that they belong to the same rank. However, the incentives for teachers are far less than incentives for other professions such as nurses and bank clerks. I can understand if we receive less than doctors yet I can’t understand why nurses or bank clerks are valued more than teachers!" (Mr. Yato, a teacher at Public School 3)

"I think the financial reward that Indonesian teachers receive is still very little. We don’t get much incentive. For example, I’m only paid 1,000 Rupiah (15 cents) per hour for doing personal development and 40,000 Rupiah (AUS$ 5.00) per month for supervising extra curricular activities." (Mr. Tono, a teacher at Public School 5)

"In general, the financial reward is very concerning. But the situation is even worse for a part-timer like me. I have to work hard but am only paid 11,000 Rupiah (AUS$ 1.30) per hour." (Ms. Risa, a teacher at Islamic School 1)

"The government should pay more attention to teachers’ wealth. This is important so that teachers can concentrate on their teaching duties by not taking a second job. It’s commonly known that many Indonesian teachers do have other jobs outside teaching because what they get is not enough to feed the whole family." (Mr. Widyo, a principal at Private School 2)

According to one teacher (Mr. Raja from Public School 3), a public servant with a 3A rank earns between 1.9 to 2.5 million rupiah per month (the numbers equal to AUD$ 250 – AUD$ 330). This excludes other incentives that public-serving teachers normally receive, such as incentives from the local government and the so-called ‘food incentive’. Teachers in Salatiga receive 250 thousand rupiah (AUD$ 33) from the local government and 220 thousand rupiah (AUD$ 29) for the food incentive per month. Mr. Raja further stated that incentives from local governments vary, depending on the local government’s budget and spending for education. Teachers in Jakarta, for example, receive 2.5 million rupiah per month from the local government. As the cost of living in Salatiga is not as high as that of Jakarta or other big cities in Indonesia, most public servants who participated in this study said that they could afford a modest lifestyle in Salatiga with
their salaries; 1.5 million rupiah per month (AUD$ 200) is relatively enough for a family with two children in Salatiga provided that they do not have any mortgage or rent to pay. However, this also means that for many of them it was still hard to save their money for rainy day or to pay for their children’s future educational costs and other unexpected costs.

Elsewhere, others made a comparison between the rewards that Indonesian teachers normally receive and those from neighbouring countries, such as Malaysia, Singapore, Brunei or Japan. For example, when asked to give his opinion about the condition of the teaching force in Indonesia in terms of financial reward, one principal responded:

‘I think our teaching force receive the worst financial reward if compared to neighbouring countries such as Singapore, Malaysia and Brunei. Take Malaysia for example. Primary teachers in Malaysia receive salaries equal to 40 million rupiah per month! Our teachers only receive 1 million rupiah per month. With that amount of money it is obvious that Malaysian teachers do not need to take a second job. They can focus on their teaching duties and as a result, their professionalism is guaranteed.’ (Mr. Semi, a principal at Public School 1)

However, there were also principals and teachers who believed that, while not extremely a lot, the salaries and incentives that Indonesian teachers get have already met the standard. In other words, Indonesian teachers have been appropriately rewarded. With regard to this issue, one principal and one teacher expressed their opinions as follows:

‘I think Indonesian teachers already get what they deserve. The salaries that we get are enough for us to live decent lives. Of course teachers can’t have luxurious lifestyles, but in general, the financial rewards are already appropriate.’ (Mr. Harto, a principal at Public School 3)

‘What I’m getting is enough given the fact that my performance is not that good. I consider myself as a ‘lazy’ teacher so I’m happy enough with the salary and other incentives that I get every month.’ (Ms. Atun, a teacher at Public School 6)

A number of those interviewed, however, felt that financial reward should not be an issue for a teacher. Regardless of the reward, teachers should always be professional.
Financial rewards for teaching profession, according to some of the participants, are 'relative' – it is enough if one thinks it is enough, but is always insufficient if one is never satisfied. Two teachers from private schools made the comments about their salaries:

'I think the key is being thankful for whatever we get. Of course we'll always think Indonesia teachers are not properly rewarded if we keep comparing ourselves with teachers from other countries, such as Japan and Malaysia. Instead, we have to compare what we are getting now and what teachers in the past received. I believe that if we keep comparing with other countries or other professions, we will feel that our rewards are too little. The fact is, it is enough if we think it's enough.' (Ms. Adina, a teacher at Private School 2)

'Although some people think that teachers only receive very little salary, I believe as teachers we shouldn't think about money. The bottom line is we must love the profession no matter how much we are awarded. I personally see teaching as my hobby and as a Christian, it is also my act to serve others. I have been in the profession for more than 30 years and have always been thankful for what I get even though I'm only a part-timer and work at a marginalised school. I'm sure what is more important is the reward that you'll eventually get in heaven, not on earth.' (Mr. Dewa, a teacher at Private School 1)

Moreover, more rewards do not automatically guarantee one's professionalism, as observed by one principal when asked about the relation between increased reward and increased professionalism:

'I don't think more financial reward means better performance or more professional. It all depends on the teachers' personal characters – that is, whether or not they are willing to improve themselves...' (Mr. Suto, principal at Private School 6)

Based on the interviews during the fieldwork, the condition of Indonesian teachers as being poorly paid (see Chapter 3) is fairly evident. It is understandable why teachers complained and expressed their concerns, particularly because these days they are expected to work twice as hard in order to prepare their students to face the standardised national examination. Two teachers at Islamic School 2, for example, said that often they had to stay longer at school because they had to drill their third-grade students with grammar exercises to prepare them for the national examination.
Due to the low salary, the phenomenon of Indonesian teachers taking a second job seems to be a common practice. More than half of the teachers interviewed admitted that they had a second job. The job they mentioned was mainly doing/providing private tutorials outside school hours for students from other schools. This is because English lessons are in high demand (among high school students) as it is one of the compulsory subjects included in the national examination. Usually those teachers conduct their private tutorials in the afternoon. In addition, part-time teachers who are still seeking permanent appointment usually teach at two or three different schools or institutions at the same time. One part-time teacher at Islamic School 1 (Mr. Adi) admitted that he taught at three different schools in one week and had had more than 30 teaching hours as a result. Such a condition obviously affects teacher professionalism as they can no longer concentrate fully on their main duties at school, let alone participate in professional development programs or other learning opportunities. In Mr. Adi’s case, he could no longer join the discussion forum for English teachers in the Municipality held every Tuesday because he had to teach on that day.

At the same time, however, a number of teachers and principals interviewed also believed that a condition of poor pay should not be a reason for a teacher to act ‘unprofessionally’; improving students’ learning outcomes should be the priority and thus teachers should enhance their professionalism regardless of the financial rewards. It is nevertheless a worrying picture for the country’s long-term teaching force if teachers often have to bear all the cost in order to be professional, or if they are not sufficiently rewarded. The new law on teacher professionalism did include promising improvements to the reward and incentive systems for teachers (this issue will be further elaborated later
in this chapter). The paradox is that improving the reward systems usually means increased and more rigorous systems of monitoring teachers' performance. This is obviously against the dimension of autonomy in teacher professionalism.

In sum, receiving a relatively low financial reward in the Indonesian teaching service does affect teachers' day-to-day teaching duties. This will in turn have implications on their professionalism, particularly if those teachers have to take a second job or teach many hours per day or per week. As a result of such a condition, for instance, teachers will have restricted time and energy to have professional discussions with their colleagues or conduct their own learning for their professional growth.

The next section of this chapter continues to address Research Question 1 and focuses on the notions of professionalism in terms of teachers' rank and promotion.

6.2.4. Climbing the career ladder: a case of pseudo professionalism?

In Indonesia, high school teachers are considered suitably qualified if they have a bachelor's degree in teachers' training from recognised universities. With such a degree, once they enter the teaching force as permanent full-time teachers, they will be automatically rewarded the so-called 3A rank. Within the next three or four years, they can usually apply for a promotion (e.g. from 3A to 3B or from 3B to 3C) by collecting 'credit points'. Those credit points can be collected from the teacher's years of service, teaching hours, completing administrative work (e.g. lesson plans, syllabus, teaching aids, attendance), participation in professional development programs (e.g. training, seminars or workshops), publication or presentation (if any), participation in community
service, and written and formal evaluation from the principals. Criteria for such an evaluation include, among other things, teachers’ discipline, honesty and collaboration, as well as their obedience and loyalty to *Pancasila* (the nation’s five pillars) and the country’s 1945 Constitution (*Peraturan Pemerintah RI*, 1979). The evaluation, unfortunately, does not cover assessment on teachers’ improvement on pedagogical knowledge and skills. Moreover, it is commonly known that the evaluation is arbitrary; it is subject to the principals’ personal judgment without any supported evidence why they give a certain teacher certain marks.

A key figure from the Teachers’ Association (PGRI) in Salatiga Municipality expressed his concern with regard to this matter:

‘I think teacher’s evaluation is never done seriously and can easily be manipulated. For example, a principal gives a mark of ‘80’ without any bases whatsoever. What is worse is the fossilised paradigm that most civil servants have – they expect the principal to give them higher marks every time they are being assessed. Also, there is this perceived belief that senior teachers should get higher marks than novice teachers. Teacher’s evaluation must be based on one’s performance and productivity and should disregard seniority. I remember when I was a principal, one teacher got so angry with me because I gave him lower marks than his previous evaluation.’ (Mr. Ubud, a PGRI key person)

Mr. Aman, a principal at a junior public school, had a similar view. When asked about his opinion on teachers’ evaluation and assessment system, he expressed his dilemma as follows:

‘Teacher’s evaluation is mainly about being obedient to *Pancasila*. I think it is a kind of formal evaluation but not a serious one. I never had a gut to fill in the evaluation form honestly because it is about a teacher’s promotion, which means a raise for that particular teacher. Because I’m also a public servant, I know that a salary raise means a lot. That’s why I always give good marks for my teachers even though it means I have to lie sometimes.’ (Mr. Aman, principal at Public School 4)

More senior teachers (e.g. Mr. Harto from Public School 3, Mr. Hamid from Public School 4 and Ms. Atun from Public School 6) entered the teaching force with only a one-year or two-year diploma degree. This is because, a few decades back, Indonesia
icked trained teachers and the shortcut to boost the numbers of teachers was for the govemergency to encourage and facilitate teachers’ training institutions and universities to pen a two-year program (equivalent to diploma program) for would-be teachers and civil servants. Once they completed their studies, they would secure a position as civil servants posted at junior high schools around the country and would be awarded a 2B rank. A few number senior public-serving teachers who participated in the study started their career with a 2B rank. Some of them, despite their steady career climb, still hold a diploma’s degree instead of a bachelor’s degree as mandated by the new Law. Ms. Atun, a senior teacher at a public school who started with a 2B rank and who is now in her 4A, strongly stated that she did not have the intention to pursue her bachelor’s degree even though according to the new Law she should. She stated:

‘I’ve been teaching for 24 years. I climbed from 2B to 4A. Yes, I know that I should finish my bachelor’s degree to be a more professional teacher but I now have children who are going to university. I’d prefer to use my money for their education rather than for my own degree.’ (Ms. Atun, a teacher at Public School 6)

Apparently, many teachers cited financial burden as the major reason why they did not want to do further studies despite what is required by the new Law. Similar to Ms. Atun, Mr. Hamid, a nearly-retired teacher who started his career with a one-year diploma program, did not intend to pursue his bachelor’s degree either. He did not see the need for him to fulfil the requirement because he has already achieved a relatively high rank as a public servant (4A) even though his qualification is regarded as ‘very minimal’. Moreover, he is quite old now and thus he believed that his focus should be more on his children’s education instead of his.

One of Mr. Hamid’s colleagues, however, decided to do part-time study to finish her bachelor’s degree. She did so after the release of Law 14/2005, which required
teachers to have at least a bachelor’s degree to be qualified to join the certification program and to be rewarded with incentives. She made the following comment when asked why she wanted to pursue her study:

‘At the moment I’m in the middle of finishing my bachelor’s degree. Actually I don’t really want to continue my study because I feel that with my present degree, I’m competent enough to teach junior high school students. But in Indonesia, you still need a bachelor’s degree certificate as valid evidence of your professionalism. Moreover, you need a bachelor’s degree to be eligible for teacher certification as required by Law 14/2005.’ (Ms. Aliya, a teacher at Public School 4)

Another common phenomenon among high school teachers is that many teachers are stuck in their 4A rank. This is because, to get to 4B, those teachers have to either publish or do action research. For most teachers who participated in the current study, this is a lot of work with very little rewards. One teacher, Mr. Atun from Public School 6, said that they will only get 50,000 rupiah raise per month once they climb from 4A to 4B (this is despite the energy and time that they have to put to do action research or to write). A sum that only equals to $AUS6.00. It is therefore understandable why many teachers, such as Ms. Atun, are reluctant to climb their career ladder to 4B. It is also worth mentioning here that in Ms. Atun’s case, she would probably never get her 4B rank because in order to do that, she had to finish her Bachelor’s Degree first. Ms. Atun only holds a two-year diploma degree and she was promoted to 4A before the issuance of the standards of professionalism. If she wants to reach her 4B rank, apart from doing action research and writing academic papers, the first step is to get her Bachelor’s Degree. This, according to Ms. Atun, is of no use and is hardly possible because she is about to retire.

Another common problem is there is no sufficient training, guidance or information from the government or other related stakeholders for those teachers on how to write a piece of academic writing or how to do action research correctly. In this study,
there were eight teachers (all public servants) who were stuck in their 4A rank and who were either not interested in pursuing 4B or believed it was hardly possible for them to achieve 4B. With regard to this issue, three teachers gave the following responses:

'I'm in the process of acquiring my 3D rank. After that I'll definitely apply for 4A. But I'm not going any further after 4A because it's extremely hard to jump from 4A to 4B. We have to produce a piece of academic writing.' (Mr. Dipa, a teacher at Public School 4)

'I've been in my 4A rank for 6 years. Of course I've always wanted to go further than 4A but I don't think I'm competent enough to conduct action research or write a paper.' (Mr. Isa, a teacher at Public School 1)

'I'm in my 4A now and I believe I'll remain so until I retire. There's no point of applying for a further rank. For me it's useless and a waste of time and energy. I don't think I have the ability to write or conduct research' (Mr. Tono, a teacher at Public School 5)

One teacher (Ms. Ria from Public School 1), however, expressed her disappointment of the promotion system from 4A to 4B. Having achieved her 4A and being the most qualified English teacher in the school, with a Master's degree from a university in England, she has always had the intention for a further promotion. However, she felt sceptical with the present assessment system. The following is her comment regarding her failure to achieve a 4B rank:

'I've been trying to submit my academic papers for my promotion but I don't know why the authority never accepted them. I noticed that papers which are accepted by the assessor are usually the type of writing suitable for being published in magazines or newspapers. My papers are purely academic and theoretical; in my papers I try to propose new methods and approaches for ELT. But the assessor is often suspicious and thinks that I copy and paste from somewhere else. So now I don't really think about my promotion from 4A to 4B.' (Ms. Ria, a teacher at Public School 1)

Despite her scepticism, Ms. Ria did not stop her professional development activities. At the time of the interview, she just won an award to conduct action research. She was also in the middle of writing her paper to be presented in an international conference in language teaching in Jakarta, the capital of Indonesia, in December 2007.
The professional development and learning activities that Ms. Ria has been conducting so far, she further admitted, were not aimed for her career progression or promotion. Instead, such activities were for her personal learning and ambition to enhance her professionalism and be a more professional English teacher.

Although there were teachers who were no longer interested in ranks or promotion, more than half of the 46 teachers interviewed did express their intention for further promotion. Those who were not interested had their own reasons. Mr. Tono from Public School 5, for example, cited old age as his main reason why he did not intend to apply for another promotion. Moreover, he would retire in a few years’ time and thus he was satisfied with his present 4A rank. Another teacher, Mr. Dipa from Public School 4, said that his reluctance to climb from 4A to 4B was mainly because he did not feel confident that he could conduct action research or write academic writing, even though he was still young and far from retirement age. His comment regarding his reluctance is as follows:

'I'm quite happy with my present 4A rank. To jump to 4B I have to write some academic paper. The procedures are very complicated. Moreover, I don't think I'm competent to produce a high-quality paper. I've never been trained before - I don't know how to do it.' (Mr. Dipa, a teacher at Public School 4)

Elsewhere, part-time teachers (there were 12 in the current study) usually have not yet thought about promotion; instead, their priority was to apply for permanent positions. Part-timers teaching at public schools usually want to be public servants one day and by working at public schools as part-time teachers they hope they get priority once the government opens new applications for public servants. Their uncertain status sometimes becomes an obstacle for their professionalism. Two part-time teachers gave their replies below when asked about their future plans for promotion:
'I'm still waiting for my permanent status. At the moment I'm still a part-timer here and I think I'm on the waiting list to be a public servant even though I don't know exactly when I'll be appointed. Because of my status, there's no point for me to be too keen to improve or develop. Even though I'm active and diligent, it won't affect my status as a part-timer and won't accelerate my appointment as a public servant. So if people think I'm not a professional teacher it's not because I'm lazy or not potential but because of my uncertain status.' (Mr. Susilo, a part-timer at Public School 6)

'I don't have any long-term plans because I'm still a part-timer. Once my status is more certain, I'll start thinking about my teaching profession more seriously. So maybe my next plan is to apply for a permanent position in this school' (Ms. Mara, a part-timer at Private School 4)

Career progression for teachers may be linked to their professionalism. For public servants in particular, a climb from one rank to a higher rank is usually one indication of a teacher being 'professional'. This is regardless of the teachers' real competence and performance in class, their willingness to continually improve, or their continually revised skills and pedagogical knowledge. Moreover, as long as the evaluation system and its criteria for Indonesian teachers remain the same, and as long as the system can be easily manipulated and abused, it would be difficult to determine real professionalism. It would result in pseudo-professionalism instead.

If teacher professionalism were to be defined by teachers' ranks, the logic would be that those with 4A rank are more professional than those with 3A rank, or part-timers with no certain status were less professional than full-time and long-serving teachers. Based on the interviews during the fieldwork, such was not always the case. Professionalism is not determined by career progression only; there are other factors that make a teacher 'professional' despite his/her low ranks or status. A teacher like Mr. Dewa from Private School 1, for example, would never meet the standards of professionalism set up by the government. This is because he never completed his degree and had no chance to be a full-time teacher, let alone obtaining a 4A rank. However, the
fact that Mr. Dewa has been dedicating his life to a marginalised school with difficult and low-achieving students for three decades and that he only receives very little salary is sometimes overlooked by the policymakers who set up the standards for teacher professionalism. With regard to this issue, one teacher made the comment below that perhaps best sums up the notion of pseudo-professionalism discussed in this section, which is common among Indonesian teachers, particularly among public-serving teachers:

'Good career progression does not guarantee one's professionalism. It is true that professionalism can help boost one's career, but someone who can climb the career ladder fast or who's at the top of the career ladder doesn't always mean that he/she is professional.' (Mr. leal, a teacher at Islamic School 2)

The section following, adding further answers to Research Question 1, discusses the fifth aspect of Indonesian EFL teacher professionalism by examining how principals and English teachers perceive the notions of 'professional English teachers'.

6.2.5. Professional English teachers: what it means for those at the grassroots level

McCullough et al. (2000) provide a summary statement about the real essence of teaching profession by posing a question: 'If, by and large, teachers do not feel fulfilled in their work, trusted, and valued; if they do not feel professional, then can teaching really be seen as a profession?' (p. 118). Such a question implies that how teachers feel about their profession is crucial, and that their professionalism cannot be quantified, measured or simply assessed by others. It is thus interesting to examine how teachers in this study perceive their profession and professionalism.
This section provides findings on what attributes English teachers commonly refer to when discussing their professionalism. It also elaborates how principals view and define their teachers' professionalism in relation to their teaching job as English teachers and their willingness to learn and develop. In addition, the section discusses the kind of assistance and environment that English teachers need so that they feel fulfilled, trusted and valued in their work — that is, so that they feel 'professional'.

6.2.5.1. Professional English teachers: voices from practicing teachers

While literature on teacher professionalism may list characteristics that professional teachers should possess, stories from the teachers themselves may strengthen one of the arguments of this thesis that the teaching profession and teacher professionalism are specific to time and place (see Chapter 2). For instance, what is considered as professional by Western standards is perhaps not applicable for Indonesian teaching force because of the difference and complexity of the context under which Indonesian teachers are working. Likewise, the dimensions of knowledge, teacher autonomy, and responsibility are perhaps perceived differently by Indonesian teachers.

Interviews with 46 English teachers in the Salatiga Municipality show that English teachers attribute their sense of professionalism to various aspects of their work — for example, experience, responsibilities, commitment and love for the profession, teaching performance and administrative duties, fluency in the target language, qualification and academic backgrounds, continuous learning or confidence. Some other teachers, instead of mentioning relevant attributes to professionalism, stated a number of
reasons why they could not perform their teaching duties in a totally professional manner. Those reasons, among other things, include old age, time constraints, family (particularly for female teachers), or inadequate facilities and support from the principals or the school communities.

Although experienced teachers do not necessarily mean professional teachers, experience was perceived as one important factor to grow in the profession. Ms. Ina, a new public-serving teacher, stated that experience was important for an English teacher to be considered ‘professional’. This is because according to her:

‘...experienced English teachers know how to deal with unpredictable questions that may come up in class because they’ve been in the job for many years. As a young teacher, this is one thing that I haven’t got and so I don’t think I consider myself as professional. Even though I never come to class unprepared, I’m still not confident when students surprise me with critical questions for example.’ (Ms. Ina, a teacher at Public School 1)

Another young teacher had a similar point of view when asked about his opinion on what it takes to be a professional English teacher. He made the following comment:

‘I still have a lot of weaknesses and still have a lot to learn. Experienced teachers will know how to handle students in class. Maybe I speak fluent English, but when it comes to class management or broad issues on education, I think experience still plays an important role.’ (Mr. Ivan, a teacher at Islamic School 2)

While pedagogical knowledge is obviously a crucial dimension of the teaching profession, not many teachers were aware of the importance of such knowledge. Instead, a number of teachers evidently felt that fulfilling administrative duties, being a disciplined and responsible teacher, or being confident in speaking English were more important. Below are responses by four teachers in replying an interview question about what it takes to be considered professional English teachers:

‘For me a professional teacher is the one whose teaching administration is complete and well documented. He/she has to have detailed lesson plans and evaluation system.’ (Ms. Risa, a teacher at Islamic School 1)
'A professional has to be discipline. For example, he/she has to be on time or never leaves class unattended. He/she must also give feedback to students' work and then return the work to them.' (Ms. Dwi, a teacher at Private School 3)

'I consider myself professional because I teach many hours. The logic is, if I'm not professional, the school won't put a trust on me to handle many classes.' (Ms. Adina, a teacher at Private School 2)

'In terms of speaking English in class, I feel very confident. I always use English all the time. So I think that's an indication that I'm professional.' (Ms. Dian, a teacher at Private School 2)

With regard to this issue, one teacher in particular (Mr. Isa, a teacher from Public School I) observed that he was not professional in the sense that he still needed to improve his pedagogical knowledge and skills due to the rapid changes in information technology. However, he further stated that in terms of his love and commitment to the profession, he would confidently consider himself as 'professional'. He said:

'I think there are two crucial factors if someone wants to be called a professional English teacher. The first factor is teaching competence. The second factor is the love for the job. I really love my job as a teacher so I consider myself professional in that sense. But if you ask me about my teaching competence, I feel that I still need to learn a lot so maybe I'm not that professional. I need to upgrade my knowledge, particularly pedagogical knowledge and IT.'

Likewise, another teacher, Mr. Raja from Public School 3, believed that a professional English teacher must have good understanding and knowledge of the language as well as skills on how to transfer that knowledge to students. In addition, in order to cope with the rapid changes, an English teacher must continually revise and add to his/her teaching repertoire. Mr. Raja was quoted as saying:

'A good English teacher must have good knowledge about English. In addition, he has to be able to transfer the knowledge to his students. If you ask me whether or not I'm professional, I'll say that I always try to be professional. At least I have good understandings of the materials that I teach. Now there are a lot of changes, particularly in the curriculum. For example, I had no idea what genre approach was. But now I sort of know what it is after doing a lot of studies myself. This is what good English teachers have to do. I mean, they have to try to keep up with the changes.'
While some teachers provided characteristics of what it means to be a professional teacher, a number of teachers interviewed in the current study stated various reasons why they could not be 'professional' or could not perform their duties professionally. A part-time teacher, for instance, expressed how her effort to be a professional English teacher was hindered by the insufficient facilities and lack of support from the school (i.e. Ms. Hida from Public School 3). Ms. Hida said that the absence of a proper language lab and the principal’s reluctance to pay more attention to part-time teachers have made her unable to perform her teaching duties at her best. Another part-timer at the same school also expressed a similar concern regarding the lack of technical and administrative support from the school:

'Actually there’s a multimedia room that can be used as a language lab. However, no one is in charge of the key to the room so whenever I want to have a listening session with my students, I have to spend 10 minutes or so trying to find the key. We have lodged our complaint about this matter but the principal never responded. Listening is part of the national examination and students need to practise a lot. Professional English teachers are expected to train and drill students to pass the exam but if we are lacking support, it would be hard for us to fulfil the expectation.' (Ms. Nara, a part-time teacher at Public School 3)

Issues related to support and facilities will be explored further in section 6.3 of this chapter. Those issues are dealt with in relation to Research Question 2.

Other teachers said that the massive administrative work outside their real teaching duties has physically and emotionally exhausted them and, as a result, they felt they did not have any more time and energy for further learning or professional development which was necessary for enhancing one’s professionalism. Other obstacles, such as big classes and limited teaching hours, made a teacher unable to improve his/her performance as a professional English teacher. With regard to such obstacles, one teacher stated the following comment:
‘I think one important characteristic of a professional English teacher is if he/she can make the lesson enjoyable, particularly because many Indonesian students still find the language hard to learn. Unfortunately I can’t do that because there are too many students in my class. How can I be a good and creative teacher if I have to manage 40 students at once in 90 minutes?’ (Ms. Lesti, a part-time teacher at Public School 3).

When discussing about what qualities professional English teachers should have, the 46 teachers interviewed in this study mostly reflected the realities of their day-to-day teaching work, their experience and their expectations, as well as their cynicisms. Nevertheless, most of those teachers have always wanted to perform their best in the profession despite the obstacles that they sometimes encountered.

The next part of this section elaborates the principals’ views, criticisms and expectations of what it means to be professional English teachers.

6.2.5.2. Professional English teachers: voices of principals

The principals participated in this study seem to view their English teachers’ professionalism from ‘a distance’. That is, most of them could easily list qualities of what professional teachers in general should have, but sometimes were not aware of the real problems that teachers of English in Indonesia have to face. Such a view is perhaps understandable, given the fact that among the 17 principals interviewed, only two of them have backgrounds in English language.

Nevertheless, most principals agreed that pedagogical knowledge, competence and skills in English language teaching were the first requirements to enter the profession. Thus, ideally, English teachers should have at least a bachelor’s degree in Teaching English as a Foreign Language from recognised universities. Conditions at the school level, however, are sometimes far from being ideal. For one thing, as admitted by
at least one principal from a public school (Mr. Semi from Public School 1), different teachers’ training colleges and universities often produce different quality of graduates—some are better than others. This has led to English teachers in Indonesia having unequal professionalism. For another thing, there are many small and marginalised schools, which sometimes do not have sufficient budget to hire full-time English teachers, let alone have the privilege to selectively recruit those teachers.

Ms. Atik, a principal of a poor private school with only 14 students in total, stated that is was hardly possible for her school to employ a fully qualified English teacher on a full-time basis. The school has been employing the same teacher for more than two decades on a part-time basis mainly due to budget constraints and limited teaching hours. Moreover, she felt that no fresh graduates would apply for a teaching position in her school because of the bad condition and reputation of the school and because they might not see a future there. In replying a question about an ideal professional English teacher, she made the following observation:

‘Ideally, a professional teacher should possess a bachelor’s degree and a teacher certificate. My English teacher has neither; he is only someone who loves teaching English so money is not important for him. I can’t advertise a new vacancy because I can’t promise a full-time position or a good career in this school. We only have 14 students so one part-time teacher is more than enough.’ (Ms. Atik, principal at Private School 1)

In a school like Ms. Atik’s, a professional teacher is thus defined differently. She attributed the teacher professionalism to aspects other than his formal qualification and educational backgrounds. She further said:

‘For me Mr. Dewa is professional even though he doesn’t have a degree. I see his professionalism in terms of his discipline, diligence, dedication and enthusiasm. Moreover, because of his hard work, most of our final-year students could pass the minimum marks required in the national examination. This is good enough considering our students are low achievers with low motivation to learn.’ (Ms. Atik, principal at Private School 1)
Another, less privileged school led by Mr. Suto faced a similar situation. The school, whose students are either not accepted elsewhere or expelled from other schools because of behavioural problems, has only one part-time English teacher. When asked about professional English teachers, he replied as follows:

'Of course academic qualification is important for a professional teacher. But who wants to work in our school? We are lucky enough to have someone who is committed to serving our troubled students with very little financial reward. For me, that is professional. I think we have to relate one's professionalism with the conditions of the students and the school.' (Mr. Suto, principal at Private School 6)

Perhaps Ms. Atik and Mr. Suto (as well as Mr. Budi, a principal at Private School 7) were describing such types of teacher professionalism as being relative. It was not professionalism in an absolute sense as defined, constructed or expected from the professionalism literature because of the limitations that the schools experienced. In such schools, it was often the teachers' dedication, commitment and passion to serving the marginalised that defined their professionalism.

For most principals interviewed in the study, it was evident that the professionalism of their English teachers was closely linked to the students' achievement in the standardised national examination. The results of the examination are published openly. Obviously, better results means more positive publicity for particular schools, which in turn means more student intakes for those schools – hence, more funding and resources for their future development programs, including staff development.

Mr. Semi, principal at Public School 1, explicitly expressed his praise and satisfaction of the professionalism of English teachers in his school. He stated:

'I think professionalism, particularly for English teachers, is directly linked to students' learning outcomes. The outcomes, in this case, are good marks that student get in the national examination. For the past examination, our students' average score was 74 out of 100. This was way past the standard set up by the government. If our teachers were
not professional, I don’t think we could have achieved such excellent results.’ (Mr. Semi, principal at Public School 1)

Mr. Semi, however, neglected to mention the fact that his school had the privilege to choose the best students in the Municipality; students who enrolled at his school were already top students from their previous junior high schools – hence, their already high motivation and excellent academic performance no matter who the teachers are. In fact, one teacher at another public school with similar conditions to Mr. Semi’s school bluntly stated that:

‘... I’m lucky that my students are mostly high achievers, motivated and collaborative so I don’t have to work hard. Sometimes I simply give them rough guidelines for their assignments and the next day they’ll come to me with the finished assignments.’ (Mr. Raja, a teacher at Public School 3).

In such a case, it is perhaps not appropriate to attribute teacher professionalism to the results that students get in the national examination. If achieving good results in national examination is the only norm for one’s professionalism, it is equally unfair to compare teachers at Mr. Semi’s school with those at Ms. Atik or Mr. Suto’s schools; that is, it is unfair to label one teacher is more professional than the other without taking into account factors such as the quality of the student intakes and existing facilities. In some schools, unfortunately, principals did relate their English teacher professionalism to the national examination: those teachers considered to be ‘more professional’ were asked to teach final-graders who were about to face the national examination, and those who were not ‘professional’ enough would be assigned to teach the first- or second-graders. How and by what parameter the principals assessed their English teachers was, of course, unclear. One principal even went to quite an extraordinary length by stating:

‘If a particular teacher is not ‘professional’, what I normally do is not assigning him/her to teach final-graders at all because I don’t want our students to get bad results in the national examination. This serves as a kind of sanction for that particular teacher. By
doing so, that teacher will understand that he/she should improve and be more professional.' (Mr. Farid, principal at Islamic School 2)

Elsewhere, Mr. Udi, principal at an alternative school, gave his strong and perhaps extreme criticism with regard to the national examination and the teaching profession. He made the following comment:

'I disagree with the standardised examination. In fact, I give freedom to my students here to take or not to take the exam. It’s entirely up to them. So obviously I never link my teachers’ professionalism to the exam scores. My concept of professionalism is simply one’s willingness to learn. I also believe that there isn’t such a thing as ‘teaching profession’ because the term puts emphasis more on teaching than it does on learning. I don’t care about teacher’s qualification and competence, either. My principle is, as long as they are willing to learn and grow with our students and as long as they can facilitate the students’ creativity and imagination, they are professional – as simple as that.'

Apart from the extreme view by Mr. Udi, the rest of the principals who participated in this study mostly did not distinguish between professional English teachers and professional teachers in general. Ideal professional teachers, according to them, should have the following characteristics:

- suitable academic qualifications
- a range of pedagogical, social and personal skills
- willingness to continually learn and grow
- willingness to conduct self-reflection and evaluation on their teaching performance
- willingness to keep up with development of technology
- ability to serve diversity in students’ learning needs
- good, complete and organised teaching administration
- good classroom management
- skills and ability to transfer knowledge to students
- responsibility, dedication and commitment.
Two principals whose backgrounds happened to be English language did mention aspects related to the target language, such as teacher's ability to deliver the lesson in English and his/her reasonably good mastery of the four language skills.

Despite being able to list the ideal aspects and characteristics of what a professional teacher (or English teacher) should have or acquire, a number of the principals in this study did admit that they have not considered their English teachers as being professional, or that the English teachers still needed to learn more to be professional. Some others felt that the English teachers were professional in a 'standard' manner. One of the principals who believed so responded as follows:

'I think in general, English teachers in high schools have met the standards of what it means to be professional in this country. For example, they usually have a bachelor's degree and certificate. That is enough for them to be considered professional in Indonesia. I can't talk too highly about them nor should I underestimate them. For me, they are just 'standard'—nothing special about them.' (Mr. Harto, principal at Public School 3)

Interviews with teachers and principals with regard to what it meant to be 'professional' showed another interesting and surprising phenomenon: some principals did not trust their teachers, and vice versa. This issue of trust and how it affects teacher professionalism will be further elaborated in another section (6.3.3) of this chapter.

6.2.6. Summary

This section has elaborated the notions of Indonesian teacher professionalism in terms of five aspects: (1) different motives or reasons for teachers entering the teaching profession in the first place, (2) common views from the wider society towards the profession, (3) the types of rewards that the profession receive, (4) the rank and
promotion systems for Indonesian teachers, and (5) the meaning of ‘professional English teachers’ from the perspectives of principals and practicing EFL teachers. Although there are other factors that might contribute to teacher professionalism, the data of this study suggest that EFL teacher professionalism in Indonesia is shaped and influenced by at least the five aspects elaborated earlier. Teachers entering the profession because of financial motive, for instance, may perceive ‘professionalism’ differently from those who became teachers because of their passion and love of teaching and the English language. Likewise, how the wider society views the profession results in different types of professionalism. A common view that the teaching profession is a respected profession in the communities, particularly in rural areas and villages, may result in teachers being recognised and trusted. Elsewhere, teachers’ attitudes towards rewards also bring consequences on their professionalism: those who perceive the teaching rewards as being too little may take a second job and lose focus on their actual teaching duties. Section 7.2 in the final chapter of this thesis provides a summary of the five aspects of Indonesian EFL teacher professionalism discussed in relation to answers to Research Question 1.

The next section in this chapter presents discussion related to Research Question 2 — the existing support for, and needed by, EFL teachers in relation to their professionalism.
6.3. Support needed for English teacher professionals

Perhaps what has been observed by McCullough et al. (2000) is relevant to Indonesian teachers – valuing teachers' work is important in order for them to feel professional. While imposed changes in education at the national level, such as changes in English curriculum or regulation on teachers' certification, may disadvantage and deprofessionalise teachers, it is actually at the school level that teachers should first feel their work being valued and appreciated. Most teachers who participated in the study did mention that support from the school communities was crucial for their work; such support included existing facilities and other resources, administrative support, collegial and management support. Such support would not only help teachers' daily work but would also make teachers feel less deprofessionalised.

This section presents findings in relation to Research Question 2, issues about support available for, and needed by, EFL teachers. There are three aspects discussed in this section: the types of support for those teachers, how support can assist teacher professionalism, and trust and collaboration as intangible support crucial for English teachers. The second aspect, in particular, also includes elaboration of the link between support and the notions of professionalisation, deprofessionalisation and reprofessionalisation for EFL teachers.
As discussed earlier, for many Indonesian teachers today, their professionalism is almost always linked to the good results that their students may achieve in the standardised English examination. With regard to this matter, a number of teachers saw the necessity of better and more up-to-date English materials, reasonable language laboratories, and more teachers’ resources and references to support their teaching duties.

When questioned about the facilities and resources that they needed to help their work, two teachers gave their responses as follows:

'I feel that our library needs improvement. There are only old English magazines and newspapers there. Our students need better English materials.' (Ms. Ina, a teacher at Public School 1).

'We definitely need a proper language lab for our listening class. This is important because listening is part of the national examination. So far we've been using a tape recorder. But this is not good because the sound is often not too clear. Moreover, using a tape recorder disturbs other classes nearby. English teachers get complaints because of that.' (Ms. Nara, a teacher at Public School 3)

Elsewhere, there were teachers who mentioned the need of more resources and reference for themselves, particularly for teachers who were eager to write academic papers as a requirement to climb to the 4B rank. Ms. Cahya, for example, stated such a need when being asked about the support for English teachers in her school:

'I hope our school can add more books and references for teachers. This is important if they encourage us to write and publish. How can we conduct action research, write and publish if we don't have adequate resources? Books are expensive and I don't think many teachers can afford to buy them with their own money.' (Ms. Cahya, a teacher at Public School 1)

While facilities are important to assist English teachers’ work, administrative support is another crucial aspect cited by at least half of the teachers interviewed. The latest competency-based curriculum requires English teachers to give a written and
detailed report for each student's language skills. This is such a huge task for teachers because they normally have to teach two to four classes, with 40 students in each class. Among the 17 schools visited during the fieldwork, only one school (Private School 2) had very good administrative support and system; the school provided special computer software for the students' reports so teachers could concentrate on their teaching instead of the huge administrative duties. However, other schools were not so lucky and the teachers found administrative work so overwhelming they did not have time and energy to improve as professionals. One teacher, for instance, made the following comment on his school's administrative support:

'So far I don't think I've had enough assistance from the school administration. For example, I have to type my own materials or tests. Also, the new competency-based curriculum requires us to provide visual aids for students. Often I have to spend much of my time doing this without any support from the school. How can I have enough time to improve as a professional if I'm burdened with a lot of administrative work instead?' (Mr. Tono, a teacher at Public School 5)

Other teachers, however, felt that administrative support was not as important as support from the principals and other colleagues. With regard to this matter, one teacher stated:

'I understand that as a small school, administrative support is very minimal here. Sometimes even the principal himself has to help the administrative staff. But I don't really mind. What I actually need is someone with whom I can share my problems as an English teacher. I badly need a sharing partner to learn, particularly because I'm not qualified as an English teacher.' (Mr. Sami, a part-time teacher at Private School 6)

Strong collegial support was also seen as an important aspect for some other teachers. Ms. Dian, Ms. Rini, and Ms. Adina, for instance, are English teachers at Private School 2 who said they were lucky to have strong and solid support from each other. Whenever one of them was assigned to join a seminar or conference, the other two teachers would willingly be substitutes even though it meant more work for them. In another school, Public School 3, collegial support was also seen important among novice
teachers, particularly among part-timers. Four young teachers at the public school expressed their appreciation to each other; they always discussed their problems and shared materials. This was crucial for them to grow as professional English teachers because they felt they did not have adequate management and administrative support from the school, or support from other teachers. Support from the principal, unfortunately, was also absent and even worse, the young teachers felt they were discriminated because they were considered 'junior' and not yet public servants. Below are the comments made by two part-time teachers at Public School 3 when asked about the support they needed:

'Administrative support is very minimal here. Most of the time teachers still have to be busy with unnecessary administrative duties outside teaching, such as typing and photocopying. Management needs improvement, too. The response from the leader is really slow. For example, if we propose to buy resource books or other facilities, we have to wait for ages. Often I have to buy them myself because I just can't wait. Fortunately, English teachers here are very supportive to each other. We have very good collaboration.' (Ms. Iyah, a part-timer at Public School 3)

'Actually I don't mind teaching here because I like the students and I like my colleagues. We are very supportive to each other and we always discuss our problems related to teaching and our materials. But I don't see the support from the principal. He always discriminates between part-timers and those who are public servants. A teacher like me is not really appreciated here.' (Ms. Hida, a part-timer at Public School 3)

Adequate support in terms of facilities, administration, management and collegiality are crucial for teachers to feel valued and appreciated; it is also important for teachers to grow as professionals. The school where Ms. Hida and Ms. Iyah work is one of the most favourite schools in town with selective students and relatively good facilities. However, based on the interviews with six English teachers in the school, English teachers felt that they were not yet fulfilled and valued as professionals.
In contrast, Mr. Dewa, who works for a small and poor school, was satisfied with the support he got from the principal despite the lack of facilities and other resources. He said that the principal was very collaborative and supportive:

‘I realise that our school budget is very limited. But the principal is very collaborative and supportive when it comes to English language programs; she always tries hard to provide facilities needed. For example, she’ll buy whatever books I propose even though we don’t have much money. And more importantly, she doesn’t treat us like employees. She treats us like equal friends. This kind of support is important for me and it’s one of the reasons why I like my teaching job here even though it’s only a small school with troubled students.’ (Mr. Dewa, a part-time teacher at Private School 1)

For teachers to feel fulfilled, appreciated and valued as professionals, sufficient supports are undoubtedly necessary. In addition, interviews with English teachers and principals from 17 schools in the Salatiga Municipality indicated that other aspects of professionalism such as collaboration and trust should be present if teachers are to grow and improve as professional. The absence of those two aspects may lead to, among other things, teachers feeling deprofessionalised. The next section continues to provide answers to Research Question 2 and discusses whether Indonesian EFL teachers are being professionalised, deprofessionalised or reprofessionalised as a result of the recent changes and reforms in education laws and policies.

6.3.2. Indonesian teachers: professionalised, deprofessionalised, or reprofessionalised?

With regard to teachers being deprofessionalised, it is shown in the data that many teachers – who implement policy at the grassroots level – felt they were caught in a condition at the school level where adequate support was sometimes absent, and in which their autonomy and their sense of professionalism ceased due to some pressures from
outside agents, the government or policymakers (e.g. Hoyle & John, 1995). One of the examples of pressure discussed in this thesis was the national examination. The examination was considered a burden for schools which did not have sufficient support for their English teachers. In addition, such an examination is believed to have stripped off teacher's autonomy; it is standardised nationally despite differences in student intakes, facilities and resources. One teacher made the following observation when asked about her opinion about the standardised examination:

‘One of the problems that we’re now facing is the national examination. How can we have standardised examination if the new curriculum requires us to be creative and grants teachers’ autonomy? I think it is contradictory’ (Ms. Dian, a teacher at Private School 2)

Another pressure that deprofessionalised English teachers was new demands set by the new competency-based curriculum. The new curriculum has resulted in English teachers being forced to work more but sometimes with less support and obviously less rewards. English teachers, for instance, now have to assess each student’s four language skills in detail. Two teachers, for example, expressed their concerns with regard to the requirements of the new English curriculum and the lack of support in their schools:

‘The new curriculum requires us to work more because now we have to teach and assess the 4 skills; now I have to spend more time to prepare materials and give feedback. Writing is the hardest part because I have to give feedback to 40 students. I have to do everything by myself, of course. I even have to do all the typing myself.’ (Mr. Isa, a teacher at Public School 1)

‘According to the new curriculum, we have to have a lot of discussions in English. This is hard to do because we don’t have a special room for that. If we have discussions, we’ll be too noisy and disturb other classes. We don’t have a decent language lab either so we have to bring a tape recorder to class. Apparently this is also too noisy for other classes and we get complaints from other teachers. So how can we fulfil the requirement of the curriculum if the school’s learning environment is not supportive?’ (Ms. Hida, a teacher at Public School 3)

Moreover, teachers were to follow the broad and ambiguous guidelines of the curriculum, which included the so-called ‘genre approach’ for teaching English. All
teachers who participated in the current study said they were not familiar with such an approach. They were not taught the approach at university and the training provided during the dissemination of the new curriculum was often considered insufficient. Many teachers interviewed expressed their confusion as they sometimes had different interpretations of the approach. Two teachers, for example, gave the following responses when questioned about the changes in the new English curriculum:

'I think there’re still different perceptions and interpretation about the new curriculum among regions in Indonesia. Even in this school teachers are still confused about genre approach. We have different interpretations about this approach and we don’t know which one is the correct interpretation as we lack information and training. It’s like a blind person leading another blind person. How can we prepare our students for the national exam then?' (Ms. Iyah, a teacher at Public School 3)

'So far there is not enough information about the new approach. The least that we can do is to try to find as many books and materials as possible about genre approach. We also try to discuss it with our colleagues. But often we don’t know which book is the most reliable, for example. Also, we don’t know if we are discussing the right thing because no one is an expert in this school.' (Ms. Rika, a teacher Islamic School 2)

The implementation of the new curriculum indeed provides a lot of opportunities for teachers to improvise. The curriculum also requires English teachers to be more creative and innovative. On the one hand, such spacious room given for teachers for curriculum interpretation indicates that teachers’ autonomy is being granted. On the other hand, without adequate training, information, facilities, resources and other necessary support, the implementation only results in teachers’ confusion because they have different perceptions and do not know which interpretation or perception is the most correct one. This will obviously affect their classroom performance and students’ learning outcomes.

English teachers in the Salatiga Municipality have actually sought assistance at an English Department in the most prestigious university in town. Through the English
Teachers' Association (MGMP), teachers channelled their need to the department for more information about the genre approach for teaching English. Unfortunately, none of the lecturers in the department was an expert in the genre approach despite their effort and willingness to help. This issue is discussed in detail in section 6.4, which is about professional development programs for English teachers in Salatiga.

Conditions that contribute to deprofessionalisation of teachers' work as a result of curriculum changes, according to a number of principals and teachers, could actually be dealt with if there had been enough support, assistance and good will from the District Education Office. The Office, for instance, could have shown their support by giving more continuous, comprehensive and in-depth information and training about the new curriculum. Mr. Toar, a principle from a public school, gave his harsh criticism with regard to the role of the Office. He said:

'The Education Office in Salatiga does not show good commitments for schools and teachers. They are committed – or seem to be committed – only if there's a project from the central or provincial government. For example, the Office didn't seem to care with the dissemination of the new curriculum. It was the Municipal's Principals' Forum that had to work extremely hard to find as much information as possible about the curriculum so that teachers could be sufficiently prepared for implementation. The Office did almost nothing even though it was actually part of their job.' (Mr. Toar, principal at Publis School 6)

Mr. Semi, the principal of Public School 1, expressed a similar view, stating that the Office had not yet shown their adequate support in assisting schools and teachers' deprofessionalised conditions as a result of policy changes in education. With regard to the role of the District Education Office, he observed the following:

'For me, the roles and positions of the Education Office are merely about politics. It's all bureaucratic. The Office never gets involved directly with what really happens at the school level; they only send us letters should there be any new information from the central. Who occupies what position in the Office depends on who gets elected in the local election. That's why the Office is not so committed to us or the schools – they show more commitment to the leader of the Municipality.' (Mr. Semi, principal at Public School 1)
While a number of teachers felt they often became ‘victims’ of policy and curriculum changes, which resulted in their increased job loads and role uncertainty and ambiguity, there were teachers who felt that the changes brought positive effects despite the absence or lack of assistance and support from related stakeholders. In other words, instead of being deprofessionalised, some teachers felt that they were actually being reprofessionalised. This is because the new changes and reforms have instead created conditions that foster teacher learning, and hence their increased professionalism. Such reprofessionalisation means that teachers become more professional as new skills must be required, a more extensive knowledge-base has to be mastered, a wider range of pedagogical skills must be displayed, and more complex decisions have to be made (McCullogh et al., 2000). In addition, teachers are becoming reprofessionalised because the increasing complexity of their work demands more sophisticated judgment and collective forms of decision-making (Hargreaves & Goodson, 1996).

Some teachers did see the other side of their deprofessionalised conditions as an opportunity to acquire new knowledge and improve themselves. Two teachers who commented on the changes and their opportunities to learn more said:

‘I think changes in English curriculum make us learn more. Now I’m kind of forced to learn about genre approach and to share and have meaningful discussions with other English teachers in Salatiga through the English teacher’ network — I probably wouldn’t do so if there had not been any changes in the curriculum. So this is a good thing for us; we learn a more complex skill and at the same time we also develop more collaboration with other English teachers in Salatiga.’ (Mr. Raja, a teacher at Public School 3)

‘As a teacher I think we should be ready for any changes. It’s inevitable. The changes in curriculum make us learn new things. For example, I have to learn how to develop text-based materials for my students. Even though this is new for me, I begin to develop more skills as an English teacher. So I guess I should look at the bright side of the changes in the English curriculum instead of complaining.’ (Ms. Adina, a teacher at Private School 2)
Education policy and curriculum changes may result in teachers' work being deprofessionalised, particularly when available support is missing or lacking. Some of the data obtained in this study indicated so. Nevertheless, this should not be a reason for teachers to act unprofessionally in their daily work and long-term professional development plans. A number of participants in this study expressed their concerns regarding some teachers who, they considered, were not professional. One of the reasons, according to one of the principals interviewed, was not due to the lack of support but more due to their initial motive of becoming a teacher and their low academic achievement. Ms. Atik, a principal at a small private school, made the following observation about the reason why some teachers were not 'professional':

'I think many who enter teachers' training colleges are not academically excellent. They became teachers or public servants because they needed a quick position. It is sad but some enrol at teachers' training college because they are not accepted elsewhere. Can you imagine that even my students are offered a place and scholarship to be a teacher? I'm too scared to imagine the quality of the students if the quality of the teachers are themselves low.' (Ms. Atik, principal at Private School 1)

A senior teacher at a public high school also had a similar point of view, stating:

'Many teachers nowadays are not genius. They are not academically excellent either. Those bright students would prefer to become doctors or engineers rather than teachers. Teaching profession, as a result, consists of 'so-so' teachers, sometimes even with low academic qualifications. So I guess the most important thing is how to encourage those 'so-so' teachers to continually improve themselves. But it's not that easy, I'm afraid.' (Ms. Ria, a Public School 1)

With regard to Indonesian teachers being 'unprofessional', a key person from PGRI also gave his strong criticism. He believed that inadequate support and facilities should not contribute to teachers acting unprofessionally. Asked about his opinion about the general condition of the teaching force, he commented:

'Support is not the key issue here. I think Indonesian teachers have been staying too long in their comfort zone. One of the weaknesses in our system is there are no sanctions for teachers who do not perform well; there are only rewards. Evaluation done by principals can easily be manipulated because it only assesses teachers' loyalty
and obedience to ‘Pancasila’ (the national five pillars) and not their pedagogic skills. Moreover, Indonesian teachers are trained to be ‘professional liars’. They design and write some sort of scenario of what to teach and how to teach it but believe me, many of them never apply it in class. That’s why I think it’s about time the government released the new Law on teacher professionalism because a lot of Indonesian teachers are not yet professional.’ (Mr. Ubud, a key member of the Teachers’ Association)

Mr. Ubud’s criticism perhaps describes a condition of professionalism common among Indonesian public-serving teachers. His view also reflects the ongoing dilemma of the nation’s education system and its teaching force. On the one hand, many teachers feel their profession is not appreciated, valued and appropriately rewarded because higher standards, demands and expectations are being set up by the society and other outside agents. This has led to teachers’ work being deprofessionalised because they often have to work more but with less, little or no support. On the other hand, many teachers themselves are not yet professional and sometimes do not act in a professional manner—hence, a law is needed to ‘force’ and enhance their professionalism. Examples from the field include teachers leaving the school early for their second jobs, teachers being reluctant to participate in professional development programs, or teachers relying on their colleagues most of the time. One teacher who happened to be a treasurer of the English teachers’ association even presented a sad example of how unprofessional some teachers could be. She stated:

‘We have an association for English teachers in this town and we are supposed to meet regularly as part of our professional development program. It is funded by our local government. But some teachers just show up to take the ‘transport money’. They’ll leave as soon as they sign up and won’t stay for the program. I know this because I happen to be the treasurer of the association.’ (Ms. Tiara, a teacher at Public School 6)

It may be hard (and for some cases, unfair) to decide whether Indonesian teachers are being professionalised, deprofessionalised or reprofessionalised. This is due to the fact that the teaching force in Indonesia is only a small part of a complex yet fragile national education system. An important issue is perhaps for teachers to always look
forward and be ready with any changes or reforms in education, which are often inevitable in contemporary education. In addition, teachers should be willing to continually learn and improve themselves despite the little support available and the small reward they may receive. After all, the teaching profession is not only about teaching. As described in the literature and as shown in the data from the field, the profession is also about continuously learning and caring for others. Issues on teacher learning through professional development program are elaborated in section 6.4 of this chapter.

Another key aspect of support and Indonesian teacher professionalism that needs addressing is that of trust and collaboration among teachers, principals, academics, authority and other related stakeholders. This is discussed in the section following.

6.3.3. How much do teachers, principals, and other related stakeholders collaborate and trust each other?

Some may argue that contemporary Indonesian teachers are always under pressure and face a bleak future. Conditions of teachers being deprofessionalised are also evident. There are always ways and means for teachers to be more valued and appreciated as professionals. Such ways, according to McCullogh et al. (2000), could result in challenge and a prospect of change in their professionalism. However, this cannot be done in isolation. In other words, trust and collaboration must exist should local educational actors – teachers in particular – want to feel valued and increase their professionalism despite the hard conditions that they face.
6.3.3.1. Issues of collaboration

It is obvious from the interview data that collaboration is the intangible support needed for improving teacher professionalism. Such collaboration usually starts from the smallest groups – among English teachers within the same schools. As discussed earlier in this chapter, collegial support is considered as crucial support by many teachers for their professional growth, particularly when other types of support are missing or lacking. The interviews also revealed that collaboration within the school communities is just as important and thus good relationships among teachers, between teachers and the principal, or between teachers and administrative staff, should be sustained in order to create conducive and supportive environment. Such an environment will in turn lead to teachers' willingness to learn, develop and improve as professionals. One teacher at a Protestant high school highlighted one of the benefits of having good collaboration and relationships with other members of the school community in relation to her professional development. She said:

'I think sharing and collaboration is important in this school. It's a kind of give and take for us. English teachers, particularly, are very solid. We have very good collaboration and we always discuss things related to our teaching duties. But we also have good relationships with other staff members in this school. For example, if English teachers have to attend a seminar or conference outside school, other teachers are willing to swap their timetable or even supervise our classes. We will do the same thing for them as well.' (Ms. Rini, a teacher at Private School 2)

Elsewhere, another teacher complained about the situation in her school which made her reluctant to develop. As a young part-timer, she felt that there was a gap between senior and novice teachers, and that collaboration only existed among English teachers, but not with teachers teaching different subjects. She was not helped by the
administrative staff members either. What made it even worse was the attitude of the principal and his often non-collaborative way in dealing with part-time teachers. In reply to a question about the principal’s leadership, she was quoted as saying:

‘The principal in this school leads in an authoritarian way. He treats us like a bunch of employees instead of equal partners. He doesn’t hesitate to threaten us if he thinks he needs to. He also said that part-time teachers should say things and behave carefully, or else he wouldn’t give us recommendation to apply for permanent position. I’m very upset by what he said and it did influence my performance at work. His attitude also makes me reluctant to develop.’ (Ms. Hida, a part-time teacher at Public School 3).

In general, however, most teachers and principals saw the importance of collaboration within the school communities and valued the good relationships in the school communities. Such collaboration is equally important outside school. For English teachers, the collaboration is in the form of English teachers’ network or association (MGMP) within the Salatiga Municipality. Another type of professional collaboration and support is between English teachers in Salatiga and the biggest university in town. More detailed discussions of the teachers’ network and collaboration with the university are presented in the section on professional development programs in this chapter.

Interview data also indicate that although collaboration was perceived as crucial for enhancing English teacher professionalism by related stakeholders, there was a lack of communication and networking among them. Mr. Sudi, personnel from the District Education Office, hoped that the local university could provide more assistance and opportunities for professional development programs for English teachers in Salatiga. At the time of the interview, he was unaware that the university, through its English Department, had been conducting such programs for the past few years. When asked whether or not he had either spoken informally to personnel of the English Department or written a formal letter to the university, he said he never did so.
Elsewhere, the representative from PGRI expressed a similar concern and expected that the university played a more important role in assisting English teachers in the Municipality. Like Mr. Sudi, however, he too was not aware of the existence of such programs. At the same time, members of the English Department of the university admitted that they hardly communicated with the District Education Office or other stakeholders regarding their professional development programs for English teachers. They only informed the schools about the programs they were organising but they did not see the importance of communicating and building a network with stakeholders such as the District Education Office or PGRI.

6.3.3.2. Issues of trust

Beside collaboration, trust is another intangible support crucial for Indonesian EFL teacher professionalism. Although the issue of ‘trust’ was not considered as crucial support for enhancing professionalism in the first place, and thus such an issue was not explicitly asked by the researcher during the data gathering process, responses from many participants indicated that educational stakeholders in Salatiga did not really trust each other. The data further indicated that should stakeholders trust each other, negative attitude such as suspicion, reluctance, indifference or scepticism would not have occurred.

It appears that trust among teachers, between teachers and principals, between teachers and the teachers’ union, between schools and the District Education Office or other relevant stakeholders is a necessity to enhance professionalism. In many cases, such
trust was absent. In fact, instead of trusting each other, some teachers were suspicious towards each other. Interviews with teachers showed that those working in private schools sometimes did not show trust towards teachers from public schools. One teacher in particular made the following comment:

'As much as possible we try to share and discuss problems and materials with other teachers. We are always open to them. But I notice that there are teachers at a particular school who are reluctant to share - I mean teachers at particular public schools. I have a feeling that they are afraid to share their tips because they come from a favourite public school. They probably don't want others to be as successful.' (Ms. Dian, a teacher at Private School 2)

Elsewhere, trust was sometimes absent between teachers and principals. A number of teachers expressed their lack of trust and disappointment towards their principal's leadership. One example was Mr. Hamid, a senior teacher at a public school. When asked about the principal's support for English teachers, he expressed his distrust and disappointment as follows:

'When it comes to non-living matters such as leaking roof or broken chairs, the principal is always supportive and he will respond quickly - they'll be fixed a.s.a.p. But he's not that responsive when it comes to problems faced by teachers; I think he rarely helps solve our personal and academic problems. He never really checks what the teachers are doing. Maybe he's ignorant - I don't really know. But I don't really want to communicate or deal with our principal because I don't see the point to do so. I will just do my job as a teacher but don't want to have anything to do with him because I think he is being unsupportive.' (Mr. Hamid, a teacher at Public School 4)

Among the 17 principals interviewed, only one explicitly expressed his dissatisfaction of the performance of his English teachers. Mr. Antok, a principal at Public School 2, said that most of the English teachers in his school were reluctant to change or follow the changes that the new curriculum expected. Although not an English teacher himself, Mr. Antok complained that his teachers 'still use conventional teaching methods even though there are new innovations in language teaching.' Interestingly, at
the same time, one of the teachers at Public School 2 showed a negative opinion about Mr. Antok. He stated:

‘Our principal is like Mr. Know-All when it comes to language teaching even though he is obviously not an English teacher. Often he makes decisions about English programs without consulting the English teachers first – his decisions are merely based on what he wants us to do and not based on what is good or useful for student learning.’ (Mr. Nano, a teacher at Public School 2)

Apart from Mr. Antok, most of the principals interviewed indeed appreciated their teachers’ commitment and dedication, particularly principals from relatively small private schools. Most of them put trust in the teachers and valued their work even though some of those teachers were perhaps underqualified and not considered as ‘professional’. Mr. Udi, the principal of Alternative School 1, trusted his teachers so much he did not see the need to monitor or evaluate their performance. Asked about his responses on trust issues, he made the following statement. When asked about his responses on types of supervision and evaluation support available for his English teachers, he explicitly expressed his trust and made the following statement:

‘There’s no such thing as teacher evaluation. I trust my teachers 100%. They don’t need to do anything like preparing lesson plans, assessment system, etc. I trust them with all my heart and will always appreciate whatever they do, even if what they do is not successful.’ (Mr. Udi, principal of Alternative School 1)

With regard to the roles of the District Education Office in supporting teacher professionalism, a number of principals did express their scepticism, stating that the Office has always been bureaucratic in nature, and its direct roles and long-term commitments in enhancing teacher professionalism were still in question. One principal in particular lost his trust and patience and was quoted as saying:

‘The Education Office does not respect us and often thinks they are above us. For example, with the release of the new competency-based curriculum, the principal forum in Salatiga kept pushing the Office to conduct a session for disseminating the new curriculum to teachers. They never did it. So we had to arrange the session with our own funding. To show our respects, we invited personnel from the Office. Many did
not turn up and those who did, arrived very late. But when it comes to national examination, the Office demands that schools in Salatiga be in the top rank at the provincial level. Who are they to give such an order to us? They do little for schools but demand a lot from us.’ (Mr. Toar, principal at Public School 6)

Ms. Cahya, a teacher at Public School 1, had the same opinion as Mr. Toar. She compared Salatiga’s District Education Office with those from other regions, which, according to her, were able to successfully secure more funding from the local government’s annual budget for its teacher development activities and other school-related programs

Elsewhere, Mr. Sudi, a staff member of the Education Office, believed that the Office has done its best for schools and teachers in the Municipality in terms of providing support. The Office’s basic duty was to act as a mediator between the policymakers and the schools; it was not a money-generating body. He further stated that the Office put trust in, and gave as much freedom as possible to, the schools – for example, in terms of professional development programs and curriculum implementation and assessment. He made the following comment:

‘We don’t tell them what to do. We trust them and give them full autonomy. For example, for the try out prior to the national examination, principals and teachers in Salatiga had the initiative to visit some schools in other regions to find out more on how those schools conducted their try out and what sort of assessment was being used there. Also, if schools want to conduct some kind of seminar or workshop, we’ll leave everything to them. They can choose their own topic or resource person. We won’t interfere.’ (Mr. Sudi, key person at the District Education Office)

Mr. Sudi also mentioned how the Office had done a lot for supporting teachers’ development programs by ‘allocating a fantastic budget to install modern language laboratories in many more schools so that students in Salatiga can get good results in the national examination’. How exactly the provision of language laboratories could help enhance teacher professionalism was never explained. Moreover, interviews with some
principals revealed that the Office only provided the equipment for such laboratories but not the teaching materials or technicians capable of maintaining the labs, or adequate training on how to operate the labs. At a small private school led by Mr. Suto, for example, the language lab was never used because they did not have enough funding to purchase listening materials and no-one in the school was capable of operating the equipment.

For many principals and teachers interviewed, what the Office regards as 'giving full autonomy and putting trust' or 'not interfering' simply means shifting the burden, responsibilities, and sometimes cost, to schools. Most principals and teachers further believed that structurally, the Office did not have the authority over schools to 'give them autonomy' but it acted as if it did. Interestingly, teachers and principals from private schools felt that the Office actually did a better job than a few years back and that it trusted private schools more nowadays. Asked about the role and support that the Office has provided so far, one private school teacher replied:

'I think the District Education Office now trusts us more. For example, two of the English teachers in this school were chosen to represent Salatiga for the selection of teacher exchange program to Brisbane. In the past, only teachers from public schools were chosen for such a big program.' (Ms. Dian, a teacher at Private School 2)

Another issue related to support of trust concerns the role that the Indonesian Teachers' Association (PGRI) plays in assisting teachers and in attempting to increase the status of the teaching profession. Despite being the most recognised teachers' association and despite what PGRI has contributed to the profession in general, Mr. Ubud has observed that the members of the organisation mainly came from primary schools. According to Mr. Ubud, there were still many high school teachers who have not fully
trusted the organisation or acknowledged the organisation’s support for teacher professionalism. Mr. Ubud gave his response as follows:

‘PGRI is commonly known as a primary teachers’ organisation. This is not true. Anyone who’s involved in education can actually be a member of PGRI. But I think many high school teachers still think that this organisation only wants their monthly fee without doing anything for them. They don’t realise that it was the organisation which advocated the government to release a special law to protect teachers and the teaching profession. Law 14/2005 came out because of years of struggling and negotiating between PGRI and the policymakers. What I often find more annoying is that many teachers only come to us whenever they need a stamp and signature for their promotion paper or whenever they seek some legal advice.’ (Mr. Ubud, a key figure of the organisation in the Municipality)

In fact, among 17 principals and 46 teachers interviewed, only one principal (Mr. Budi from Private School 7) and one teacher (Ms. Nana from Public School 5) showed their genuine appreciation towards the Teachers’ Association, particularly what the association did after the release of Law 14 of 2005. The rest of the teachers who participated in the study, even though they did not express their distrust, had not yet acknowledged the hard work, support and effort that the Teachers’ Association had done for them. Young teachers, in particular, knew almost nothing about the existence of PGRI and its role and support for their professionalism.

In sum, the findings of this study indicate that collaboration and trust are two important types of intangible but much sought after support for EFL teacher professionalism in Salatiga Municipality. The absence of trust and collaboration may result in teachers not being valued or appreciated in their profession, which in turn may lead to teachers’ reluctance to grow anything but their scepticism. Further recommendations regarding this issue are discussed in Chapter 7 of this thesis.
This section has presented discussion in relation to Research Question 2, issues surrounding the availability or absence of support for EFL teachers in the Salatiga Municipality. The discussion centres around three interrelated aspects of such support. The first aspect is on the types of available support for, and needed by, EFL teachers in the region. Facilities such as language laboratories, computers, multimedia, resources and reference books are perceived as being crucial because such facilities would make English teachers' work easier, particularly in preparing their students for the national examination as well as for facilitating teachers' own professional learning. The second aspect deals with how support could contribute to English teachers' work being professionalised, deprofessionalised, or even reprofessionalised. Intangible support necessary for EFL teachers is the third aspect presented in this section. Collaboration and trust among teachers, between teachers and school principals, and with other members of the school communities were important and necessary supports to help enhance English teacher professionalism.

The next section focuses on findings related to Research Question 3, perceptions of the importance of English teachers' professional development programs in the Salatiga Municipality.
6.4. Professional development programs for EFL teachers

Much literature in professional development has highlighted the significance of high-quality professional development to improve student performance and education (e.g. Guskey, 2000). As the teaching profession is always changing (e.g. Grundy & Robinson, 2004) and is characterised by uncertainty (Munthe, 2003), teachers are required to recognise the need to continually update their knowledge and their pedagogical skills (e.g. Bredeson, 2000; Day, 2000). In addition, they are often expected to exercise their pedagogical judgment (Day, 2000) under uncertain conditions (Eraut, 1994) – hence, the importance of professional development program.

This section provides answers to Research Question 3 and details findings related to English teachers’ professional development activities in the Salatiga Municipality. Discussions in this section include types of professional development programs available for English teachers in Salatiga, common problems and obstacles, expected changes after teachers participate in such programs, types of training and knowledge that English teachers need, and learning culture within the school communities that may foster and sustain teacher learning and their development.

6.4.1. Types of professional development programs

The lowest level of a professional development program for English teachers is at the school level, through the school’s English teachers’ association. Here, the teachers are supposed to meet and have discussions every Tuesday morning, and thus they are freed
from any teaching duties on that day. However, as revealed from the data in the study, not all teachers made the best use of this association as an opportunity for them to grow and improve. This issue is presented in detail in the section about common problems and obstacles of teachers' professional development programs. At least one principal believed that, despite existing problems of such associations at the school level, trusting teachers is the key issue. He commented:

'I admit that the English teachers' association in this school is far from perfect or being effective because not all teachers use that day as an opportunity to discuss and solve their problems. But I still put trust on my teachers – as long as our students are served well and can get good results in their exams, I'm satisfied.' (Mr. Sami, principal at Public School I)

At a higher level, all English teachers in Salatiga are automatically members of the subject teachers' self-learning association (MGMP), an association facilitated by the District Education Office with the funding from the local government. In replying to a question about the role of the Office for English teachers in Salatiga, the Office's representative stated:

'The Office has allocated budget for MGMP even though I admit it's not much. Unfortunately our Office cannot fund all activities proposed by the association.' (Mr. Sudi, a key figure from the District Education Office)

Mr. Sudi further admitted that the Office only provided the funding but not technical assistance or provision of other related matters, believing that in the present era of democracy and decentralisation, such matters were devolved to schools and should be handled entirely by principals and the teachers. He further said:

'We let the MGMP organisation decide who will be the coordinator or what sort of programs they are going to have. The Office doesn't want to interfere. I think this is a good example of democracy and decentralization in education – it's up to the schools and teachers to decide what they want to do with the funding we give them.'

However, as has been discussed in the previous section, such devolution from the Office often means shifting the responsibilities to schools, and eventually to teachers. This may
also mean that teachers are the ones who should be most responsible for their professional growth even though their main responsibility is to educate the children of the nation.

It is through this English teachers’ association that English teachers in the Municipality are supposed to gather and have professional discussions with others at least once every two weeks. Occasionally, if there is enough funding, the association also conducts workshops or seminars and invites experts to give talks. Based on the interview data, school principals and English teachers in general had positive attitudes and hopes for the professional development programs organised by the association. There were a number of teachers who expressed their disappointment or scepticism nonetheless. Examples of responses from those who saw the association as a vehicle for them to grow as professionals are:

‘With MGMP we hope that the quality of English teachers will improve because there are a lot of positive programs. Through MGMP, English teachers in Salatiga can share and have meaningful discussions, as well as designing syllabus together. Recently, the association invited the expert of genre approach to give a seminar. They also invited a lecturer from the English Department whose major was in Computer Assisted Language Learning. This is very useful for English teachers.’ (Mr. Harto, principal at Public School 3)

‘I find MGMP very useful for me because there I can share my problems related to new curriculum with other English teachers. I can learn from other teachers. I can also get a sample of syllabus. This is important because I’m still confused with what is required by the new curriculum.’ (Ms. Ruli, a teacher at Islamic School 1)

Comments from those who did not see MGMP as a place to learn and grow were associated with how the association was not properly run as an organisation. Two teachers gave their responses when asked about the role of MGMP for English teachers:

‘I don’t join the association any more because the people in charge are like some sort of syndicate. They are never transparent. That’s why I feel reluctant to join their activities. I used to be very active – but not now.’ (Ms. Ria, a teacher at Public School 1)
'Actually MGMP provides us with opportunities to grow. But I don’t really like how the organisation is run – sometimes the people in charge don’t really know what to do. Instead of sharing our problems for example, we often end up discussing trivial matters such as where to go for a picnic. Many of the members are never on time either. This is really annoying for me because I have to teach in the afternoon. If they are late, it means I have to miss my class, which is not good for my students.’ (Mr. Frans, a teacher at Private School 8)

Elsewhere, almost all principals and teachers at small and less privileged private schools agreed that the association at the Municipal level was very beneficial for them. This was due to the fact that the association was the only place for their English teachers to learn, grow and upgrade their skills for free. It is commonly known that small private schools often suffer from financial constraints to finance quality staff development programs; MGMP at the Municipal level provides free-of-charge professional development opportunities for English teachers and thus such opportunities should be maximised. However, one teacher from a small Protestant school (Mr. Sami from Private School 6) said that he was never invited to attend meetings organised by MGMP and thus he never knew what was happening outside his school nor did he have opportunities to have professional discussions with other teachers. The fact that he was the only English teacher in his school (and underqualified) made his situation even worse; he did not know, for instance, how to develop an English syllabus based on the genre approach correctly. In his case, he was not qualified to make any pedagogical judgment; he did not know if what he did was right or wrong and had no-one to consult. He was even more isolated from other professional learning activities because invitations to those activities were usually disseminated during the MGMP meetings.

Round Table Discussion (RTD) is another free-of-charge professional development program available for English teachers in Salatiga. RTD is routinely hosted, organised and financed by the English Department of the biggest university in the
Municipality once every three months. For the Department, RTD is part of their community service programs. Such programs must be present within the structural organisations of faculties or departments in all Indonesian universities for accreditation and promotion purposes. Permanent staff members of universities around the country must perform three tasks: (1) educating and distributing knowledge, (2) conducting academic research, and (3) conducting community service. The professional development programs that the English Department organises are indeed to fulfil the last requirement.

According to the Dean of the English Department, the main aim of RTD is to provide a sharing forum, both between English Department staff members and English teachers in Salatiga and among English teachers themselves. One staff member who was once in charge of the forum was quoted as stating:

'RTD is useful for both the department and teachers. For our department, it is useful because we know the realities that happen in schools. We are preparing our students to be English teachers, so we need to give them information about what's really going on in schools. With the RTD forum, our department can see the connection between theories in language teaching and realities in school. And for English teachers in Salatiga, RTD is beneficial because it's a place where they can share their problems and find professional assistance should they need to.' (Ms. Kristy, a lecturer at the English Department)

In general, principals and EFL teachers in Salatiga were delighted with the professional development opportunities provided by the English Department. Most of them saw such a forum as a positive contribution from the university to schools in Salatiga, particularly for enhancing English teacher professionalism. A number of teachers, in particular, expressed their appreciation of the knowledge and new skills that they received on language teaching and information technology during RTD sessions. Not only were such knowledge and skills necessary for today's English teachers, they
were also unaffordable for many teachers should they have to pay for themselves. Two teachers gave her positive feedback about the forum by saying:

'We learn a lot about internet through RTD and how to use the internet for our teaching. For example, I can now incorporate a popular website 'Friendster' in my teaching. I asked my students to join Friendster and communicate to each other through Friendster.' (Ms. Nindi, a teacher at Public School 1)

'I learn a lot from RTD, particularly about the use of computer and internet in language teaching. This is very useful.' (Ms. Rini, a teacher at Private School 2)

In addition, many teachers believed that RTD was a good place to communicate and network with other English teachers, as well as experts in language teaching from the university. Based on the interviews, teachers felt the need to have more professional communication and discussions with the latter because changes in policy and curriculum often left them in confusion. As a result, many of them were incapable of making professional judgment and needed assistance from the experts. Thus RTD was perceived as being useful and helpful for those teachers.

Nevertheless, the professional forum through RTD was not a panacea and those who were regarded as 'experts' by many teachers might not be as good as they thought they were. Interviews with staff members of the English Department revealed a few hidden facts about the forum. First of all, RTD was formed because some lecturers needed credit points in the community service sector for their further promotion. Although not explicitly stated, the motive for establishing the RTD forum in the first place was never altruistic; it was formed because some teachers badly needed points for their promotion, and not necessarily because they were concerned with changes in the English curriculum, for example. Their promotion will in turn bring benefits for the Department for accreditation purposes; the Department needs as many teachers with high
ranks as possible in order to obtain good marks from the assessors in the accreditation body.

Such a motive for establishing the forum has resulted in the choice of who would be the resource person or 'expert' for the forum. Although on a number of occasions the English Department provided the right person for the right topic for the forum, most of the time novice lecturers who needed credit points for their promotion were often chosen to chair the forum. This was admitted by at least two staff members of the Department. They commented as follow:

‘Our department chose who’d be the next speaker for RTD based on who needed credit points for the community service. And usually it’s the new lecturers who need it most.’ (Ms. Dinar, a lecturer at the English Department).

‘As much as possible we try to match the topic in the RTD with the expertise that our lecturers have. The priority so far is to give opportunities for those lecturers who need credit points for their community service. That’s why we never invited a guest speaker from outside the department even though he/she might be the right person or an expert in the area.’ (Ms. Ani, a lecturer at the English Department)

Even though discussions during RTD sessions were perceived as fruitful and useful by many participants, the topics covered during the forum were either too unrealistic or not applicable. This is because many of the topics were generated by the lecturers; the emphasis was more on what those lecturers thought English teachers should do in their class instead of what English teachers mostly needed. A topic about teaching English through drama performance and videotaping the performance, for instance, was unrealistic. For one thing, most schools did not have the technology and equipment to videotape the performance. For another thing, incorporating English drama in Indonesian classrooms was hard to do, due to the big number of student in one class and the limited teaching hours. In addition, teachers were already burdened in preparing students for their national examination, let alone directing a drama performance. Other topics on teaching
fun English and multiple intelligences, for example, were perhaps not too applicable for Indonesian English teachers at high school level. On the other hand, the Department could not provide an expert in genre approach even though this was an area that teachers badly needed tuition in. Asked about what type of knowledge English teachers would need, two teachers replied:

'Actually we need more information about genre approach. We have channelled our need to the English Department, hoping that in the next meeting they could present us with the topic. We need more information about the types of genre and the terminology. But they couldn't do it because they couldn't find anyone who's an expert in genre approach.' (Ms. Ina, a teacher at Public School 1)

'I appreciate what the university has done for us through RTD. However, sometimes the topics presented in the forum do not match with our need. Sometimes the topic is exclusive for experts only and it's very hard for us to apply it in class. We need more discussions about the new curriculum.' (Mr. Santo, a teacher at Islamic School 1)

Other types of professional development that English teachers in Salatiga can participate in include seminars, workshops or conferences organised by nearby universities or the District Education Office. In most cases, such programs are quite expensive and not all teachers/schools could participate. Those organised by the Office are usually free of charge, yet their priority is public school teachers; the Office set up a quota for private school teachers or teachers from Madrasah.

Problems and obstacles related to the MGMP activities, Round Table Discussion and other professional development programs are further addressed in the following section, continuing to answer Research Question 3 about the perceived importance of English teachers’ professional development activities.
6.4.2. Professional development programs: problems and obstacles

Although opportunities for English teachers in Salatiga to participate in professional development programs are relatively adequate, problems and obstacles are still present. These problems are usually related to time and financial constraints, particularly when it comes to programs such as national or international seminars and conferences. However, even at the school level where such professional development opportunities are supposed to be cost-free and where teachers are released from any teaching duties on a particular day, not all teachers are willing to participate. As admitted by a number of principals and teachers, instead of joining the school-level MGMP program held every Tuesday, some teachers simply use the opportunity to leave school early on that day or do their second job. One of the teachers who participated in the study said that MGMP meetings were not compulsory and there were no penalties for those who chose not to come. She stated:

'We don’t really have to have a regular meeting every Tuesday with other English teachers, either at the school level or at the Municipal level. Most of us now have mobile phones so we can always send text messages if we want to discuss something. Moreover, the meetings are not compulsory so we don’t have the obligation to attend all the time.' (Ms. Aliya, a teacher at Public School 4).

One principal expressed his concern because none of English teachers in his school used the time to actually sit together with other teachers and discuss their problems. However, at the same time he could understand why they did so:

'Actually English teachers are supposed to meet every Tuesday. That’s why they are released from any teaching duties on that day. But all of them use that day to leave early, usually to do their second job to give private tutorial somewhere else. I know it’s not professional but I can’t do anything about that. As a public servant myself, I know how important a second job is. That’s why I don’t force them to meet every Tuesday. If they want to leave early, they can do so.' (Mr. Aman, a principal at Public School 4)
A number of other teachers stated that they did not have to meet every Tuesday because English teachers were usually seated close to each other and therefore they could have discussions anytime and could use Tuesday as their day off. Staff rooms in Indonesian public schools are usually laid out like ordinary classrooms where the desks face the front of the room. Each teacher occupies his or her own fixed desk and the desks are arranged according to what they teach. Therefore, English teachers are usually seated close to each other (and so are Maths teachers or Science teachers for instance).

At the Municipal level, MGMP activities could run smoothly and frequently as long as there was enough funding from the local government. Unfortunately, if the funding ran out, the activities became less and less frequent. With regard to this matter, one principal and one teacher commented:

'I noticed that last semester there were quite a lot of activities organised by the MGMP. This is because there was some funding from the government. They used the funding to sit together and design syllabus. This is good.' (Mr. Widyo, principal at Private School 2)

'We got some funding to 'revitalise' MGMP programs. The funding was like a stimulus for further professional development activities, with the hope that English teachers could continue their professional activities within the MGMP organisation even though the funding is no longer there. We had a lot of programs last semester but as soon as we ran out of money, the MGMP meetings at the Municipal level became less and less frequent.' (Mr. Nano, a teacher at Public School 2)

Financial constraints also seem to be an obstacle for schools to send their English teachers to participate in bigger professional development events, such as national and international seminars or conferences. Such events are usually quite costly and are sometimes held out of town, which means the schools have to allocate some extra money for transport and accommodation. In this case, it is usually the task of the principals to wisely allocate time and money for such opportunities, as well as balancing the needs of the school and those of individual teachers. Considering the budget constraints, not all
teachers can participate in the programs no matter how important they are for teachers’ further professional development. When participation in professional development programs is hindered by financial problems, the important thing for principals is to send the right person and then make sure that he/she shares the new knowledge and skills with other teachers upon his/her return to school.

Apart from financial constraints, time is another common problem that sometimes makes teachers unable to join any professional development activities. This problem is closely linked to the national examination. Based on the interviews, it was evident that schools were busy preparing students for their national examinations – for example, by having extra English lessons outside school hours and by conducting trial exams. As a result, most teachers focused more on the preparation for the examination than on their own professional growth. This was one of the most cited reasons why, for example, teachers could not participate in learning opportunities organised by the English Department or other organisations. A staff member of the English Department gave the following reply in answering a question about teachers who participated in the forum:

‘Our first RTD session had a very low participation. Only around 10 teachers showed up despite our regular correspondence with the schools. We soon found out that teachers were busy with examination tryout – that’s why they could not come. After our experience with the first RTD, we tried to adjust the meeting session around teachers’ timetable. But it’s still not easy as teachers are always busy with national examination.’ (Ms. Fani, a lecturer at the English Department)

Apparently, lack of communication and networking is another common problem of professional development programs organised for teachers. The RDT professional forum is an obvious example: the English Department designs the programs without any prior communication with the schools or the District Education Office. The Department decides the topics, time and venue of the program without conducting any research
beforehand or anticipating problems that might occur during implementation. No communication with the District Education Office has also resulted in smaller schools being left out or uninvited to the program because the Department is not aware that the schools actually 'exist'. Teachers from three small private schools in Salatiga (Mr. Dewa of Private School 1, Ms. Kasih of Private School 5, and Mr. Sami of Private School 6) said that they never attended the RTD sessions because they were either not invited or the invitation arrived after the program had finished.

The section following, still addressing answers to Research Question 3, highlights what changes expected to occur after English teachers participate in professional development programs.

6.4.3. Professional development programs: expected changes

After participating in professional development activities, it is always expected that teachers perform better, which in turn will result in improving student performance. Both principals and teachers generally agreed that, as much as possible, learning opportunities through professional development activities for teachers should lead to the betterment of education and enhance teachers' professionalism. Through their upgraded skills and knowledge, teachers are expected to perform better in class and be more creative and innovative. In addition, as expressed by a number of principals, teachers should at least have new perspectives with regard to their skills and knowledge in language teaching. In addition, changes in teachers' attitudes are equally important. With regard to this issue, one principal was quoted as saying:
"I think what is more important after participation in professional development program is changes in attitudes. Not only that teachers obtain more skills and perform better in class, they should be able to have better attitudes and more improved communication and collaboration with other staff members. Schools have spent money to send them here and there to join those programs – of course they have to show changes." (Mr. Semi, principal at Public School 1; also Mr. Udik, principal at Private School 3)

However, realities in schools can often make expected changes hard to apply. Conditions such as unconducive learning environment and culture in the school communities, lack of collaboration among members of school communities, lack of facilities and resources, and teachers' own reluctance to change sometimes make it difficult to produce changes as expected. Another problem is related to students' motivation in general, particularly in schools whose students are mostly under-achievers.

Two teachers working at schools with low-motivating students commented:

'Of course after joining some professional development activity I want to apply what I get in class so that students' performance and marks can also improve. For example, I want to be more creative in class by incorporating games, etc. But in this school, the problem is not the teachers – it's the students. We want to change but our students are hard to change or don't want to collaborate because their motivation to learn English is very low. At the end of the day, I can only forget what I get from those professional development activities. I just go back to my chalk and talk teaching method.' (Ms. Ruli, a teacher at Islamic School 1)

'Perspective-wise, of course I change after joining some kind of a seminar or conference because I enjoy learning. Unfortunately, I cannot apply what I get from the seminar to my class because my students are not collaborative. I have to be strict all the time and treat them like primary school children, otherwise they won't learn.' (Ms. Dwi, a teacher at Private School 3)

A similar view was also expressed by other teachers who mostly dealt with low-achieving students in a big class, stating that 'being creative and innovative is hard in a class with 40 students who mostly do not want to learn'. Most of them stated that the benefits of professional development programs were mainly for the teachers, and not for the students. What made it even more difficult for them to change was the standardised...
national examination. Such an examination, apparently, did not give them any room for changes despite new ideas, skills and knowledge that they got after their participation in seminars, conferences, workshops or other learning opportunities. Realities usually strike as soon as teachers return to their schools; despite their enthusiasm following their participation in a professional development activity, in most cases, teachers cannot apply new ideas and skills in their classes. One principal made a careful observation regarding this matter:

'What I've seen so far is that teachers are usually so full of ideas and energy after returning from a seminar or conference. They are so enthusiastic to share their ideas with their colleagues and to apply them in class. But after a week or so, they kind of lose their enthusiasm, particularly when faced with realities at school and when they are forced to go back to their conventional teaching methods for the sake of national examination. There is a saying in Javanese which describes this situation - their enthusiasm is 'as warm as chicken manures'. Chicken manures' warmth usually goes away so fast, just like teachers' enthusiasm.' (Ms. Atik, principal at Private School 1)

What has been described by most principals and teachers reflects a situation in which professional development programs do not necessarily bring changes to teachers' performance in class and students' learning or outcomes, even though they may bring new pedagogical knowledge and skills as well as broadening teachers' perspectives. There are a number of tangled obstacles as to why such a situation occurs - the most obvious ones are the condition of the students and the mandated national examination. To solve the problems, unfortunately, is not an easy task. Interviews with teachers and principals in the current study may illustrate the complexity of the problem. A teacher at a private school, for instance, has proposed to the principal to reduce the number of students in one class. Another teacher in a different private school has demanded that the school be more selective in taking future students. These are not possible because private schools normally depend greatly on their student intakes; the more students they accept,
the more money they will get to run the schools and the better the chance to get more funding from the government. However, nowadays high schools have to compete with vocational schools. The latter type of school has been mushrooming in Indonesia at the expense of a reduced number of students enrolling at general type of schooling, particularly private schools. At least two principals expressed their concerns regarding this matter:

'We've lost a lot of students because the government opens more and more vocational schools. We can no longer select our students – we'll accept whoever enrols here even though their academic performance is probably very low.' (Mr. Udik, principal at Private School 3)

'The present education policy does not advantage private schools, particularly small private schools like ours. The government allows more private sectors to open vocational schools. In Salatiga, there are more than enough high schools for junior secondary school graduates so I don't think we need more schools. For example, last years' graduates were 3500 students, whereas the capacity of high schools in town was 4250. So you can imagine there'll be plenty of empty seats in private schools. That's why we have to accept whoever enrols here.' (Ms. Atik, principal at Private School 1)

The condition illustrated above has resulted in high schools (private schools and Madrasahs in particular) taking as many students as possible without careful selection. This will in turn affect teachers' attitudes towards long-term professional development programs and expected changes. Teachers working at schools with low-motivated students, for instance, will perhaps not see the point of growing as professionals and become sceptical. Their immediate goal would be to merely help their students gain the minimal marks required by the standardised national examination and nothing else. In this era of globalisation, such is the worrying picture of education in Indonesia.

Apart from the problems related to expected changes after participation in professional development programs, what teachers really need for their professional growth is sometimes overlooked, either by the District Education Office or by related
stakeholders. The next part of this section presents discussions of what English teachers really need in their professional learning according to the key stakeholders – the teachers themselves.

6.4.4. What do English teachers really need?

As has been discussed previously, topics in professional learning for English teachers in seminars, forums, workshops or conferences sometimes do not meet the real needs of those teachers. The Round Table Discussion forum, for instance, was established without thorough empirical research or need analysis; the absence of those two elements made the forum become too theory-oriented and less relevant. Elsewhere, talks organised by MGMP may be applicable to the teachers’ needs. However, often the discussions are not in-depth and too broad. The resource person may not be the right person or an expert in the area either. A number of teachers said that what they got from workshops and training conducted through MGMP or the District Education Office was sometimes unclear. Asked for his opinion on workshops conducted by the Office, one teacher explained:

'Last semester I participated in a workshop about the new competence-based curriculum. It was a free program coordinated by the District Education Office. After the program, I became more confused than I was before. The instructor was confused, too. He couldn't answer our questions. This is because he was not an expert in the new curriculum himself. He was someone who's given a one-shot training at the provincial level and was then supposed to train us.' (Ms. Susilo, a teacher at Public School 6)

Moreover, with decentralisation in education, different regions and local governments seem to have different curriculum training and information for their teachers despite the same examination at the end of the academic year. Richer regions
and regions closer to the central government would normally have better and more accessible professional development programs and learning opportunities for schools and teachers in their areas. Several teachers have observed this phenomenon and one of them said:

'We are quite lucky because we are in Salatiga in Central Java. Information about new policies or curriculum changes are usually disseminated pretty fast and quite accessible. For example, teachers in this region already received information about types of texts to be taught in class. Other regions, particularly those far from the central government, are probably not that lucky. I can't imagine what will happen to them in the national examination.' (Ms. Iyah, a teacher at Public School 3)

With new changes in English curriculum and assessment system, education policymakers and academicians should conduct a thorough study on what type of professional knowledge and skills are mostly needed by English teachers at high school level, as well as ways in which they can provide accessible assistance when necessary. Interviews with English teachers revealed that different teachers had different needs, depending on the conditions of the schools and the students. For favourite public schools and rich private schools with selective students, for example, the English teachers said they always wanted to catch up with the progress in information technology. How to incorporate computers, the internet, new learning software and other multimedia into their classroom was what those teachers needed. Such a need was due to the fact that their students were themselves good users of the technology.

For most teachers, however, uniformity of curriculum interpretation seems to be crucial because the curriculum guidelines are considered confusing and ambiguous by many. Again, this is closely linked to the standardised examination. Apparently, many English teachers still have different interpretations and judgments of the curriculum and no-one knows exactly which implementation is the most correct one – they need an
expert on whom they can rely and whom they can consult. Almost all teachers expressed similar opinions in regard to this matter. An example of their opinions was:

'I think we are still lacking in information and training about the application of the new curriculum, particularly information about different types of texts. No one told us what to do so we can only have discussions with our colleagues. But still we don’t know if we are on the right track or not. This sort of information is needed for our professional development. We need an expert to tell us if what we do is right.' (Ms. Nara, a teacher at Public School 3)

A number of other teachers saw the importance of skills and knowledge which are relevant to the common realities in schools in Indonesia – big class sizes. One teacher who had to handle more than 40 students in one class, was quoted as saying:

'What I got so far from training or seminar was usually new and creative methods and techniques for teaching English for small class. They are hardly applicable here. I need more teaching techniques and innovation for dealing with more than 40 students within 90 minutes of lesson.' (Ms. Risa, a teacher at Islamic School 1)

In addition, some novice and inexperienced teachers believed that they needed more knowledge on how to motivate low-achieving students to learn a foreign language and how to manage differences of student levels, backgrounds and psychological types. They further admitted that they were not adequately equipped with such knowledge prior to their entry to the teaching profession; instead, it was something that they learned on the job, normally from more senior teachers.

Interestingly, junior high school teachers and teachers at Madrasahs mentioned the urgent need for them to have more training and practice of the four language skills, particularly speaking and writing skills. Most junior high school teachers felt their language skills had been declining since they began their teaching career at junior high schools. This was because they had to use the Indonesian language most of the time, or if they used English, they had to make it as simple as possible. In reply to a question about what English teachers needed, one teacher made the following comment:
I think I need more training and refreshment in language skills. I'm no longer a good user of the language. I can't speak the language fluently. I'm worse now than I was few years ago. I can't believe that after more than 10 years teaching, my TOEFL score is now below 400. My score was much higher when I graduated from university. This is because I'm dealing with junior high school students whose English is still limited so I have to use Indonesian most of the time.' (Ms. Tiara, a teacher at Public School 6).

Other teachers believed that they badly needed what they referred to as 'sparring partners' in speaking to improve their speaking skill (e.g. Mr. Dipa from Public School 4, Mr. Dewa from Private School 1, and Mr. Sami from Private School 6).

For teachers at Madrasahs, it was quite a different story. They felt that they needed more training in language skills because most of them were graduates from Islamic studies, with teaching English as their minor subject. One of those teachers, for instance, gave the following reply:

'Actually I'm not confident with my English skills even though I'm an English teacher. I may know the language structure but I can't speak it well. This is because at Islamic university like the one I attended, we studied more about religious matters than English.' (Ms. Ruli, a teacher at Islamic School 1)

Depending on which schools they are teaching and at which level, and where they did their teachers' training, different teachers may have different learning needs. The needs range from pedagogical knowledge about curriculum, classroom management and students, to simply practical knowledge on language skills. It is indeed hard to accommodate all the needs. Nevertheless, good, conducive learning opportunities and professional academic culture within the school communities may be one of the answers, not only to accommodate different learning needs but also to sustain teachers' learning. This issue is detailed in the section following and allows further answers to Research Question 3 to be presented.
As far as learning and professional academic culture is concerned, reading, having professional discussions with colleagues and participating in professional development programs are the most common ones. For a number of teachers, what they regard as ‘reading culture’ for their professional growth is sometimes merely reading English newspapers or magazines for vocabulary enrichment. One senior teacher said that he liked reading *The Jakarta Post*, a prominent English newspaper in the country, because he could add more new English words for himself and for his students. Likewise, a young teacher at an Islamic school with a great passion of the language believed that reading English stories, magazines or newspapers was sufficient to increase his professionalism. However, he admitted that he was not interested in improving his pedagogical knowledge or other educational issues through reading, and although he had a good chance to do his further study, he was not too keen on the idea either. He made the following comment:

'I don’t think I want to do a further study even though I got some scholarship offers. I don’t think I’m ready to commit myself to reading heavy stuff about education and to write academic papers. I like English and I like speaking the language with native speakers, but I don’t like studying heavy stuff about the language.' (Mr. Ivan, a teacher at Islamic School 2)

For some teachers who were aware of the importance of reading culture, either for professional growth or for keeping up with the latest development in English language teaching, reading seemed to be too costly sometimes. One of those teachers, for example, stated:

'I admit that reading academic stuff is still lacking here. But it’s not because we are lazy; it’s because resource books for English teachers are very expensive. Our school doesn’t have good collection of English textbooks, journals or other books for teachers because they are really expensive – mostly in dollars. We only have old English magazines for students.' (Ms. Cahya, a teacher at Public School 1)
Ms. Cahya further stated that limited reading resources also made it quite difficult for teachers to do other professional development activities, such as conducting research and writing academic papers.

When it comes to resources for teacher learning, many teachers faced the same problem as Ms. Cahya. Some of them were lucky enough to get access to the internet and were able to find and download free articles or English materials. Others who were less fortunate usually went to the internet café and used their own money to browse the internet – it was still a lot cheaper than buying books. Thus, it came as no surprise that many of those English teachers relied heavily on the internet. Asked about their learning opportunities and the internet, two teachers made the following replies:

'We are lucky to have internet here. English teachers really make the best use of the internet. We read a lot of stuff from the internet. So when the power is off or when the server is down, we are in a big trouble and don't know what to do.' (Ms. Dian, a teacher at Private School 2)

'I always visit the internet café every Saturday and Sunday because our school doesn't have the internet facilities. This is a must for me because I can read a lot of things from the internet even though now I have to allocate some extra money. Moreover, I can download materials from the internet for my lesson.' (Mr. Santo, a teacher at Islamic School 1)

While the internet may provide a solution for a cheaper 'reading culture' than buying imported English textbooks, it was apparent that teachers were at the euphoria stage of using it and, as a result, they believed that whatever came from the net was always reliable and good and could be used in their class. Often they could not judge if the reading materials or articles that they took from the internet were of good quality or not, because many of them were not peer-reviewed. To get reliable sources from peer-reviewed and recognised journals was hardly possible as they would have to pay the access fee in foreign currency, which would have been too expensive.
Other types of professional learning, such as carrying out action research and publishing, although encouraged, were not popular among teachers. Among 46 teachers interviewed, only one teacher had some experience in conducting action research and only a small number of teachers expressed their interest in action research and publication, yet did not see themselves doing it in a foreseeable future. The rest of them were mostly reluctant, unmotivated and uninterested. Such reluctance was actually understandable since teachers would only receive little reward despite the hard work they had to do and the extra money and time they would have to spend (see section 6.2 on pseudo-professionalism). Two teachers who were not too eager on the idea of publication and research said the following:

‘I know that as professional teachers we are supposed to do research and publish. I admit that such culture is still lacking among Indonesian teachers. But this is understandable. Take myself for example. I’m busy with my activities to provide necessities for my family. This is somehow more important than my learning need. If only we got paid much more for conducting our professional learning, many more would probably do it.’ (Mr. Isa, a teacher at Public School 1)

‘Earning much faster and much more money by giving private English tutorial or writing academic paper for almost nothing? Of course many teachers would choose the first one. So I don’t think teachers should be blamed for low professional academic culture in school communities – often it’s not worth the reward and time and energy spent.’ (Ms. Cahya, a teacher at Public School 1)

Interviews with the principals suggested that learning and professional academic culture should be fostered and sustained within the school communities. They nevertheless admitted that learning culture was normally limited to reading, discussions and participation in professional development activities. To further promote and enhance such a culture, some principals believed that they should first take simple steps by, for example, setting up wall magazine program, renovating the library and adding more books in the library. Some other principals, particularly those at favourite public schools,
tried to promote professional learning culture by setting good examples for their teaching staff members, by conducting research, writing textbooks, publishing in the media and pursuing their postgraduate studies. One principal in particular, Mr. Sami, was even trusted by the government to give training on the latest curriculum for other principals and teachers outside Java.

For much smaller and less advantaged schools, fostering learning and professional academic culture is not an easy task. Despite their constant support and encouragement for their staff members, principal at such schools understood why many of their teachers did not show interest and motivation to conduct further professional learning or why it was sometimes impossible to create a conducive environment for teachers to grow and develop within the school communities. Mr. Pakali, a principal at a small boarding school, was pessimistic at the prospect of teachers in his schools to develop as professional teachers. At the same time, he was also aware of the fact that he could not force them to learn because those teachers would probably never be permanently employed by his school. He made the following comment:

‘All teachers in my school are part-timers. They come here only when they teach and will leave as soon as they finish teaching. They rarely meet and don’t really know each other. So it’s really hard to create a learning environment that could enhance their professionalism, such as sharing, collaborating and discussing. How can they share if they never physically meet? And of course I can’t force them to do this and that because of their status as part-timers. We are lucky enough to have them to teach here.’

(Mr. Pakali, principal at Private School 5)

Elsewhere, Mr. Suto, also the principal at Private School 6, also admitted that learning awareness and professional academic culture among his staff members were very low. However, he did not entirely blame the teachers because he himself did not see the point of why teachers should continually develop in a school like his, where the
students were mainly low achievers and unmotivated. He made the following observation:

'A sharing culture is very low here - let alone conducting action research and writing academic paper. It's hardly possible. But I realise that our teachers are serving students whose academic performance is very low. Teachers in this school are not challenged to further improve themselves because with their present competence, it's more than enough to serve our students. There's no point for them to waste their time and energy to learn.' (Mr. Suto, principal at Private School 6)

The situation at Mr. Suto's school was further complicated with the tight money policy of the foundation, which did not want to invest on staff development program. The foundation mostly employed retired, nearly-retired and part-time teachers who, of course, did not see the benefits of pursuing further learning or enhancing their professionalism in the school. As long as the foundation ran the school with such a policy, Mr. Suto believed that teacher professional learning and development would be in jeopardy.

While those participating in the study mostly agreed that learning culture within school communities should be promoted for the sake of enhancing teacher professionalism, many also cited problems why it was sometimes not feasible to create such a culture, or why some teachers were pessimistic and sceptical to learn and grow.

The data from the fieldwork suggest that fostering learning and professional academic culture often becomes the sole responsibility of the schools. Support, facilities, resources, professional training and assistance from the government, the foundations, or other related stakeholders are either lacking or absent. The demand for teachers to publish, for example, is not supported with adequate and reliable references or books. In addition, there is no in-depth training on how to write academic papers or conduct action research despite the constant call for teachers to do so. It is thus unfair to label those teachers as being 'unprofessional' for not being willing to conduct further professional learning.
Factors behind their reluctance should be taken into account by policymakers and other related stakeholders; they should then provide necessary support.

6.4.6. **Summary**

This section has detailed matters related to types of professional development programs available for English teachers in Salatiga, common problems and obstacles of such programs, expected changes after teachers participate in professional development programs, types of training and knowledge that English teachers in Indonesia mostly need at the present time, and learning and professional academic culture within the school communities.

The next section of this chapter presents discussion on Law 14 of 2005. The discussion provides answers to Research Question 4 of the current study.

6.5. **Law 14 of 2005**

This section focuses on issues surrounding the aftermath of the release of Law 14/2005. Discussed initially is how teacher professionalism is defined and mandated by the Law. How principals, teachers and other related stakeholders perceived the imposed changes through this Law is also presented in this section. In addition, this section elaborates responses, professional behaviours and strategies of those teachers and principals in coping with the requirements of teacher certification and professionalism as
stipulated by the Law. Different perceptions of teachers from different types of school about the Law are also included.

6.5.1. Law 14/2005: professionalism as defined by the authority

The origin of the Law dates back in 1998, when during its 18th conference the Indonesian Teachers’ Association demanded that teachers and the teaching profession be protected by a special law because, unlike other professions, the teaching profession had not yet received proper status, rewards and law protection. The hard work and effort by the Teachers’ Association paid off; after years of advocating, lobbying and negotiating processes by the Association, a law on teachers and the teaching profession was finally approved by the Parliament on 6 December, 2005 (Pengurus Besar PGRI, 2006).

An interview with a prominent figure of the Association in the Salatiga Municipality later revealed that the release of the Law did not mean the struggle to eventually improve the status and conditions of the teaching profession has come to an end. In fact, it was the beginning of a new kind of professionalism for Indonesian teachers. Before the Law was released, for instance, teachers’ high dedication and commitment alone might be sufficient for them to be called ‘professional’. Given the history of the nation’s unstable education system and its fragile teaching force (see Chapter 3), such a condition was understandable. With the new Law, however, those two aspects alone are not enough; teachers’ continually upgraded knowledge, skills and other relevant competences are equally important.
According to chapter 1, verse 1 of Law 14/2005, a teacher is defined as 'a professional educator whose main jobs are to educate, teach, supervise, direct, train, assess, and evaluate students at elementary and secondary levels of formal schooling.' (Depdiknas, 2005). The Law further describes that a professional teacher should possess pedagogical competence, personality competence, social competence and professional competence; in addition, a teacher's professionalism is acknowledged only if the teacher obtains the teacher’s certificate from a recognised teachers’ training institution. Components of professionalism such as autonomy, responsibility, knowledge, commitment, idealism, passion, suitable academic qualifications and opportunities for professional growth are also included in the Law. Such components have been widely discussed in the professionalism literature (see Chapter 2) and were as well repeatedly quoted during the interviews.

Based on a thorough study of the literature and empirical data from the fieldwork, Law 14/2005 has actually captured the general notion and concept of teacher professionalism for English teachers in Indonesia. What seems to be mandated via the Law is not a novelty for the teaching profession and professional teachers. Principals and teachers did state the importance of the quoted components in their profession. However, whether or not teachers practice ‘professionalism’ is another matter. Law 14/2005, therefore, was merely the legalising of what has been commonly known in the teaching profession concerning teacher professionalism. It does state the rights and obligations of professional teachers – rights and obligations which are now bound by the law. Furthermore, it does give a clear legal protection for teachers should the authority,
policymakers and other stakeholders deny or abuse the teachers’ rights. Such was either absent or not clearly stated prior to the release of the Law.

What is new (and perhaps expected) in the Law is the reward and incentive system once a teacher is certified and thus qualified to be called a ‘professional’. It is stated in articles 15 and 16 of chapter 4 that a professional teacher who has obtained a teacher’s certificate is entitled to receive the so-called ‘profession’ incentive. Such an incentive is equal to a month’s salary. Therefore, a certified teacher will earn twice as much salary once he/she fulfils all the conditions set up by the Law. It is the responsibility of the government to allocate funding for the incentives.

The new incentive system introduced by Law 14/2005 has received both positive and negative feedback from educational stakeholders and members of the public. Data from the fieldwork suggest that principals, teachers, the District Education Office, the Teachers’ Association and university staff members expressed mixed responses. Some were hopeful and optimistic, while others were sceptical, ignorant and indifferent. Some others questioned the capability and the goodwill of the government to pay the cost of the teachers’ certification and the new incentive system due to the fact that the teaching force consists of millions of teachers (see also Chapter 3). Moreover, since the release of the Law, only few government regulations that provide technical instructions for its implementation were issued. In other words, the Law is still too immature and too ambiguous to be applied and thus the promising new incentive systems are merely a dream for many teachers.

Despite its controversies, Law 14/2005 had indeed brought in new meanings of ‘professionalism’ for the teaching profession in Indonesia. Since it was released only
three years ago, only time will tell whether or not this Law will professionalise, depprofessionalise or reprofessionalise Indonesian teachers of English. However, it is still worthwhile to examine the attitudes and perspectives of local educational actors at the grassroots level in regard to this matter. Their perspectives will hopefully contribute to more critical debates about the implementation of the Law and its consequences for teacher professionalism. The section following discusses the responses of principals, teachers and other relevant stakeholders about Law 14/2005.

6.5.2. Law 14/2005: responses from the grassroots level

Before and after the Law was approved by the Parliament in 2005, there had always been controversies and mixed responses by education practitioners and members of the public. Whatever the responses were, it was high time that a special law for the teaching profession was established. As a representative of the Teachers' Association whose duty is, among other things, to provide criticisms for both the government and teachers, Mr. Ubud believed that Law 14/2005 was indeed crucial. Despite its weaknesses, the Law at least has shown the government's willingness to pay more attention to teachers' status, rewards and professionalism. However, more importantly, Mr. Ubud further said that the Law would direct teachers' professionalism in a more positive way. He was quoted as saying:

'I don't want to criticise teachers too much. But as far as I'm concerned, Indonesian teachers have so far been spoilt with the common practice and system. I mean, there are only rewards but there are never penalties for teachers who act unprofessionally. This Law will make teachers become more professional and will hopefully encourage them to continually develop. Also, I know a lot of teachers whose main job is not teaching because they badly need money. If this Law is implemented properly, teachers will only focus on their teaching duties - hence more professional. That's why I hope the
Law can bring positive impact on teacher professionalism.' (Mr. Ubud, a key member of the Teachers' Association)

Mr. Sudi, personnel officer from the District Education Office, was also convinced that a special law for teacher certification was necessary and inevitable. He also understood if some were pessimistic or even resistant when it came to new changes, but he encouraged teachers to show their patience because it took time for the Law to be fully and perfectly implemented. Below is his comment regarding this issue:

'I know that there may be weaknesses of the Law and that the implementation is probably still far from perfect because the more specific regulations regarding such implementation are not yet finalised. I also understand if teachers are not yet optimistic. But at least they have to see the release of the Law as a progress—a step forward and a good intention from the government. So I think teachers should be patient. This is a big change and it will influence millions of teachers—implementation is definitely a huge task.' (Mr. Sudi, personnel officer from the District Education Office)

In terms of knowledge and awareness of Law 14/2005, it came as no surprise that principals were more well-informed and had more in-depth understandings of the impacts of such a law than teachers. A number of principals who participated in this study had a similar attitude to Mr. Ubud's. Some others approached it with a more critical, sometimes pessimistic, attitude. Most of them, nevertheless, agreed that substance-wise, the Law was quite promising and accommodative towards teachers' needs. It was the implementation of the Law that was still put into question. A long-serving principal and teacher who had experienced changes and reforms during his career stated that:

'Personally, I'm quite happy with the substance of the Law. It does show that the government still cares for teachers. However, sometimes I'm still pessimistic when it comes to implementation. This is because I've been in this profession for decades and since 1967, teachers have been promised better conditions and salaries. I've been waiting for the realisation for 40 years but no significant changes had happened. So I'm just hoping that this Law will definitely bring positive changes for teachers.' (Mr. Aman, principal at Public School 4).

Another principal, despite having the same opinion as Mr. Aman with regard to implementation, mentioned the importance of the Law in terms of providing a clear
parameter for professionalism. In the past, there was no parameter of what was regarded as a professional teacher. At the same time, however, he was also convinced that the changes mandated by the Law and the new incentive system would not necessarily enhance one’s professionalism even though it would increase teachers’ status. Asked about his opinion about the Law, he gave his response as follow:

‘The ideas behind the establishment of Law 14/2005 were good. It lists characteristics of what is meant by professional teachers and once a teacher is considered professional, he/she will be rewarded some money. But I don’t believe that increased salary will automatically mean increased professionalism and teacher’s quality. The status of the teaching profession might increase, but not necessarily the attitudes of the teachers.’ (Mr. Semi, principal at Public School 1).

Some other principals also expressed the same concern, stating that a teacher’s professionalism was not guaranteed even though he/she received more rewards. Yet they agreed that the so-called ‘profession incentive’, if fully realised, would at least make teachers concentrate on their profession and would decrease the likelihood of teachers taking a second job.

Those principals who were more sceptical about the Law usually linked the capability of the government to finance teachers’ certification and the new incentive system; they doubted if the Law could soon be fully implemented because they believed the national and regional budget might not be enough. In addition, they doubted if teachers could comply with the massive administrative requirements of the Law before they could actually participate in the certification process.

Elsewhere, another principal disagreed with the content of the Law because it did not reflect the government’s trust towards the teachers’ training institution. He said:

‘Before entering the teaching profession, teachers already attended some training and were given certificates. So I don’t understand why they should be certified again. This shows that the government doesn’t trust such institutions.’ (Mr. Udik, principal at Private School 3)
Two principals in particular critically questioned the good intentions of the Law and observed the inconsistencies between what was required by the Law and the consequences of the new curriculum and realities at the school level. One of them was quoted as saying:

'I don't think the Law sincerely aims at improving teachers' status. First, it shows the government's distrust towards teachers' training colleges. Second, there are still inconsistencies that might hinder teachers to fulfil the requirements of certification. According to the Law, teachers are required to teach at least 24 hours per week if they want to participate in the certification. However, changes in the curriculum actually cut teachers' hours. Many of my teachers, because of the new curriculum, are lucky enough to teach 20 hours per week. Does that mean my staff members are not qualified for the certification program because they cannot teach 24 hours a week? It's unfair.'
(Mr. Toris, principal at Public School 5)

What has been described by Mr. Toris could lead to further implications that either advantage or disadvantage certain teachers, depending on the subjects they are teaching. For English, Mathematics and Science teachers, for example, teaching 24 hours per week is still possible because those three subjects are included in the nationally assessed subjects, hence, many teaching hours. For other teachers (for example, History and Religion teachers), the prospect of participating in the certification program to receive more incentives looks obscure. It is very unlikely for these teachers to be able to teach 24 hours per week. This situation could later widen the gap between 'national examination' teachers and 'non national examination' teachers, with the former considered to be more 'professional' and able to get extra incentives than the latter because they teach more hours. Such professionalism is, of course, contested as it overlooks teachers' real performance and other professional qualities.

It is exactly this sort of problem that the Teachers' Association tries to help resolve. According to Mr. Ubud, the Teachers Association has approached the District
Education Office to discuss matters related to the minimum required teaching hours before teachers could join the certification program. The Teachers' Association has advised the Office that it is hardly possible for many teachers to fulfil the requirement; the Association has tried to convince the authority and policymakers that teacher professionalism should not be determined by teaching hours – there are many other important qualities and components to be looked at and assessed. That is why, as Mr.Ubud further stated, teachers should put more trust on the Association and believe that their voices and complaints could be channelled through the Association. Members of the Teachers Association should be made more aware that the role of the organisation, among other things, is to lobby the government to amend some of the chapters in the Law which are either not realistic or contradictory with other policies. The following section sheds further light on perceptions about Law 14/2005.

6.5.3. What do teachers think about the Law?

As has been discussed previously, principals were more informed about the existence and role of Law 14/2005 and were more aware of its implications. Many teachers admitted they knew little about the content of the Law except the part about the new reward system. Like the principals, teachers also showed mixed responses towards the Law. Some teachers, particularly senior public servant teachers, seemed to be more aware of the Law than other types of teachers, such as part-time, novice or private school teachers. Those who were new in the job were either confused or ignorant. Interestingly, one novice teacher, despite not yet being qualified to join the certification program, has
observed that the Law may bring positive impacts for novice teachers but not senior or nearly-retired teachers because, she believed:

‘... as a young teacher, I still have plenty of time and opportunities to change. If there’s a new change or reform, I can always adjust myself. So I’m not too worried about Law 14/2005. But I feel sorry for my seniors. I wonder if they have enough time to meet all the requirements for the certification and receive the extra incentives.’ (Ms. Ina, a teacher at Public School 1)

Other young teachers, particularly part-timers, were not as observant. This is because part-time teachers were more concerned about their future to obtain permanent positions than about the implications of the Law. According to most of them, Law 14/2005 was still too distant to be taken into account to; securing a permanent position would be their priority.

Another interesting phenomenon among teachers was the general attitudes of teachers working at private institutions and Madrasah. Based on the Law document and as admitted by public servants, the District Education Office or the Teachers’ Association, Law 14/2005 would impact public school teachers first. The priority for the certification program was given to teachers who were public servants and were under the Ministry of Education. Consequently, non public servants and Madrasah teachers (who were under the Ministry of Religious Affairs) had to wait longer, meaning they would also have to wait longer to receive the incentives. However, interviews with these types of teachers mostly suggested that they were not interested in the incentives because they believed that teacher professionalism could not be measured with money; increased salary does not automatically mean increased professionalism and teaching performance. Two teachers made the following responses when asked about the impact of the promised incentives on their professionalism:
'I think it is useless if teachers get their certification and receive a salary raise but their performance in class does not change significantly. As soon as they are certified, they might return to their old habits. Many teachers forget that the essence of teaching is to serve our students, and not to get more incentives.' (Ms. Tiya, a teacher at Private School 4)

'In general, the Law is perhaps good because I believe policymakers had done some thorough investigation before releasing a new policy. We might have to wait. But I don't really believe that teacher's professionalism will improve once he/she gets salary increase.' (Mr. Ical, a teacher at Islamic School 2)

Private school teachers mostly agreed that Law 14/2005 was fair for public-serving teachers because these teachers have long been staying in their comfort zone, receiving rewards for doing nothing. One teacher, for instance, made the following comment:

'... so far many public servants didn't see the need to improve or grow because whether or not they were willing to grow as professionals, the reward they'd receive would be the same. I notice that many of those public servants were in their comfort zone - what's the point of spending time and energy if they wouldn't receive anything in return? But with the new incentive system, I think it's fairer because unlike what happened in the past, teachers who want to develop professionally will also get more...' (Ms. Dian, a teacher at Private School 2)

Elsewhere, there were also teachers who expressed their scepticism and pessimism about the Law, particularly when it came to implementation. One teacher, for example, labelled the Law as a 'joke'. She said:

'I think the Law is a joke and doesn't show a good intention from the government to improve teachers' lives and status. It's so hard to get the certification. Take the requirement to teach 24 hours, for instance. Based on that requirement only, none of the teachers in this school qualifies to be certified because none of us teachers up to 24 hours a week.' (Ms. Atun, a teacher at Public School 6)

One teacher in particular, Mr. Adi from Islamic School 1, criticised the Law harshly and stated that it was just another product by policymakers; he feared that again teachers would be the victims of policy, as so far had always been the case. Instead he believed that teachers should do their jobs and obligations first before demanding their
rights; in other words, teachers should not pay too much attention to the Law or the extra salary it promised. Interestingly, when asked if he had studied the product of Law 14/2005 thoroughly, he said he had not and did not see the point of doing so. Another teacher, a senior and highly qualified teacher working at the best high school in town, had a similar attitude to Mr. Adi’s, stating that she would refuse to do the certification even though she was more than qualified. Teacher certification, according to her, should be done during teachers’ training and not when they had already secured a full-time position. Nevertheless, she still believed that basically, the Law aimed at improving the lives and status of teachers — it was the implementation that should be done in a careful manner as it dealt with millions of teachers.

There were, of course, teachers who looked at the bright side of Law 14/2005 for at least two reasons: (1) the release of the Law showed that teaching was now considered a profession, and (2) the Law would motivate teachers to learn and develop more as professionals. Below are comments from two teachers who expressed their optimism after the release of the Law:

‘I see the release of the Law as recognition that teaching is a profession — a professional teacher therefore must have competences. This is good. Moreover, teachers will get salary raise.’ (Ms. Adina, a teacher at Private School 2)

‘I agree with Law 14/2005 because it’ll improve the quality of education in general if teachers’ professionalism improves. This Law will definitely motivate a teacher like me to continually learn and grow.’ (Ms. Nalia, a teacher at Private School 7).

Whatever the responses from the teachers were, all (except those who were nearly retired) agreed that the Law would, sooner or later, impact on their profession and on their professionalism, as well as their long-term motivation and commitment to professional growth. At the time when the fieldwork took place, most of them had the
'wait and see' attitude; progress and improvement for the teaching profession as promised by the Law meant nothing for them until they are realised.

Thus, a more important issue was perhaps related to implementation of the Law. Law 14/2005 was only the first step of recognising and valuing the teaching profession. Findings from the field indicated that implementing it was still contested for a number of reasons. First, there were still hundreds of thousands of teachers (including long-serving and nearly-retired teachers) who had not yet obtained their bachelor's degree despite the fact that such a degree was a necessary administrative requirement for them to apply for the certification. There was still confusion in the field as to who or which stakeholders were to finance teachers' further education for a bachelor's degree. Many doubted if the government was able to bear the cost of sending thousands of teachers to do their studies - let alone paying their incentives. Second, as expressed by one teacher, if teacher professionalism were to be assessed and then rewarded, such assessment should be conducted periodically and should be monitored carefully - otherwise, there would be a tendency of teachers acting 'professionally' prior to their assessment and certification but not after the process has ceased or after teachers have received the incentives. Third, if the Law were to be implemented, teacher certification should not merely deal with the bureaucracy of administrative matters. In other words, despite the importance of such administration, teachers' professionalism should not be judged based on documents and letters only; teachers' day-to-day performance in class should also be taken into account. Fourth, there should be mechanisms that do not discriminate between public-serving teachers and non public-serving teachers, and between teachers employed under the Ministry of Education and those employed by the Ministry of Religious Affairs.
The following subsection provides discussion on responses of university staff members about the Law.

6.5.4. Law 14/2005: responses of university staff members

While responses from university staff members (from the English Department) were probably not as significant as responses by teachers and principals, it was still worth discussing what some lecturers thought about the Law. There were six staff members of the English Department who participated in this study. Five of them knew nothing about the Law and only one lecturer vaguely knew of its existence; even the head of the Department was not aware of the Law, let alone had examined it thoroughly. Findings based on interviews with those lecturers suggest that they were indifferent because they felt the Law did not affect them directly, which was actually untrue because the Law is also about the professionalism of university teaching staff members. Yet it is not the aim of this thesis to explore academicians’ professionalism. An example of a comment made by one staff member when asked about the Law is as follows:

‘What Law? I’ve never heard about it before. If you asked me about the Law on traffic, I might know better, but frankly speaking, I don’t know anything about the Law on teacher professionalism and I don’t think I’m interested.’ (Mr. Efa, a new lecturer at the English Department)

Findings originating from interviews with lecturers in that particular English Department, of course, were not aimed at generalising the attitudes of most university staff members in the country. The findings were nevertheless important in this study because staff members of that English Department had been involved with professional development programs for English teachers in the Salatiga Municipality for the past few
years. Should they really want to give professional assistance and advice to those teachers, professional development learning opportunities organised by the Department must take into account any policies that directly bring impacts on the teaching profession and teacher professionalism. This is crucial in order for them to have more coherent and meaningful professional development programs for those teachers. Based on the interviews, it seems that the Department has not yet made their best efforts to meet or fulfil the teachers' needs.

In addition, the English Department provides training, knowledge and skills for future English teachers, who are likely to work at schools at all levels when they graduate. Thus, information about the national education system and its policies changes and reforms, including information about Law 14/2005, would be crucial to prepare them as new generations of the nation's teaching force; it is about time that such information and its implications were incorporated in their teachers' training curriculum.

What follows in the next subsection is elaboration of plans, strategies and preparation by key stakeholders with regard to Law 14/2005.

6.5.5. Law 14/2005: plans, strategies and preparation

With regard to the implementation of the Law, public school principals merely waited for more detailed technical instructions from the District Education Office. Six public school principals who participated in this study agreed that it was not their authority to, for instance, choose or recommend which teacher should be prioritised for the certification program. Until there were clearer instructions from the government, they
would not have any specific plans or preparations. Nevertheless, they expressed the importance of informing teachers about the Law and asking them to start filing their administrative matters and teaching portfolio. Another preparation was the dissemination of sample questions which were likely to appear should teachers have to undergo tests and assessment of their competences. One principal, in particular, warned his teachers not to be too hopeful about the salary increase following their certification as this was still uncertain. He further stated that their immediate plan should be to actively join in any learning opportunities provided by MGMP or other organisations. He was quoted as saying:

‘I don’t think I can do much to prepare teachers for their certification. I can only encourage them to actively join any professional development programs organised by MGMP. But at the same time, I also warn them not to be too hopeful. There are still a lot of unfinished matters when it comes to implementation of the Law.’ (Mr. Toar, principal at Public School 5).

Elsewhere, another principal said that he did not have any specific plans and preparations for his teachers but he did put his trust on the Teachers’ Association with regard to the follow-up of the Law. In reply to a question about his plans and preparation after the release of the Law, he said:

‘So far we don’t have any specific plans to prepare teachers in this school for their certification. I don’t think we have the authority to decide when and what to do. It’s up to the District Education Office. We can only channel our complaints and objections through PGRI because they can do much better work in criticising the government or policymakers.’ (Mr. Aman, principal at Public School 4)

A similar attitude was expressed by principals at private schools and Islamic Schools. They admitted that, apart from informing about the general content of the Law, they had not had any specific plans and strategies to prepare their teachers. They further believed that there was no use having specific preparations anytime soon because public-serving teachers under the Ministry of Education would always be the first priority;
private school teachers and teachers under the Ministry of Religious Affairs might have to wait. Two principals from private schools stated the following:

'I think private schools can only wait what will happen with the implementation of the Law. It's useless to have special plans and strategies if we are not sure of what will happen. Moreover, private schools always come second. Public-serving teachers will definitely be the government's first priority.' (Mr. Udik, principal at Private School 3)

'We don’t have any specific strategies and plans. The government set up quota for public-serving teachers, so teachers working at private schools can only wait.' (Mr. Tio, principal at Private School 4)

For private school principals and teachers, not only they had to wait longer for the implementation of the Law to come to realisation, they also had to realise that the goodwill and hard work of the organisations or foundations to which their schools belonged played a crucial role for their teacher certification program and professionalism. Ms. Mari, a principal at another Catholic private school, could only hope that the foundation under which her school was run would take more proactive actions to respond to Law 14/2005 - for example, by assisting or encouraging teachers who had not yet obtained their bachelor’s degree. Similarly, Mr. Pakali and Mr. Suto from Private School 5 and Private School 6, believed that the foundation’s attention to teachers’ status was much more important than the implementation of the Law; such implementation had still a long way to go for teachers at his school. One of them said:

'Even though I believe the Law is good and may improve teachers’ performance in general, I don’t think it will affect the teachers here. What is more crucial here is actually the foundation’s goodwill to pay more attention to teachers’ status. Many of my teachers are not yet secured permanent positions and it seems the foundation wants to keep it that way because it’s a lot cheaper to pay part-timers than to invest on teachers’ long-term professional development. So there's no point for me to have specific plans and strategies to welcome Law 14/2005 if the foundation is not interested in the teachers' long-term status and professionalism.' (Mr. Suto, principal at Private School 6).

Likewise, Madrasah teachers under the employment of the Ministry of Religious Affairs thought they should wait for further coordination between the two departments in
relation to the implementations of Law 14/2005. This is perhaps another interesting yet a separate study to be conducted: how Madrasah schools respond to the Law and how the Law impacts such type of schooling. It is, however, not covered in this thesis in specific and more detailed discussions. It will suffice to report that the Madrasah principals who participated in this study, although not knowing when exactly the Law would affect Madrasah schools, still encouraged their teachers to at least prepare their administrative matters and teaching portfolio. One principal in particular also supported five staff members to pursue their further studies in order for them to qualify for the certification.

Findings from the fieldwork suggest that teachers’ immediate plans and strategies after the release of the Law were various, even though most teachers (particularly those from private schools) stated that, for the time being, they should merely wait for clearer and more specific technical instructions before they could take further actions. What was more crucial, as a number of teachers believed, was that teachers should keep developing and growing as professionals regardless of the uncertain period of implementation of the Law. Some teachers, however, took real actions to respond to the Law, such as by doing their bachelor’s degree. Ms. Aliya from Public School 4, for example, was in the process of finishing her bachelor’s degree even though she was considered by her principal and other colleagues as being ‘professional’ already. She made the following comment:

‘Actually I don’t believe that one’s professionalism is determined by one’s degree. But our government still believes that a piece of certificate is a valid proof of your professionalism. That’s the only reason why I decided to do my bachelor’s degree – so that I can be qualified to join the certification program later.’ (Ms. Aliya, a teacher at Public School 4)

Some other teachers might not have taken any real actions or strategies to prepare themselves for the certification. Nevertheless they already had short-term and long-term plans, and were motivated to do more professional learning. Ms. Ruli of Islamic School
1, for instance, admitted that the promised salary increased as contained in the Law had motivated her to start compiling her teaching portfolio and other administrative matters. As for her long-term plan, Ms. Ruli aimed at pursuing her Master’s degree in English language education. Other teachers had also had plans and strategies, particularly in relation to their inadequacy in conducting action research and writing academic papers.

Two teachers, for example, mentioned their immediate plans following the release of the Law:

‘For me, the Law does influence my long-term plan and motivation as a professional teacher. Now I’m more motivated to do some action research for my promotion to 4B rank. Before the Law was released, I doubted if I wanted to conduct some research as there was only little reward.’ (Ms. Nana, a teacher at Public School 5)

‘Even though I still don’t know when Law 14/2005 will be fully implemented, I must admit the Law has brought changes in my professional development plans. For a short-term plan, I hope I can join some sort of academic writing course so I know how to write a good paper. For a longer-term plan, I hope I can do my Master’s degree in English language education.’ (Mr. Jcal, a teacher at Islamic School 2)

Elsewhere, interviews with teachers from both public and private schools also suggest that there were teachers who had not yet seen the necessity to have plans and strategies due to the uncertainty of the implementation of the Law. Below are examples of their comments regarding implementation matters:

‘I haven’t had any specific plans and preparation. I think what we need is certainty from the government when exactly such certification will be implemented and a warranty that we’ll get the incentives once we are certified. Based on my experience, the government has always made promises but those promises were never really realised. That’s why I’m not planning anything at this stage because I don’t want to be disappointed.’ (Mr. Nano, a teacher at Public School 2)

‘I’m sure the Law will impact us. But even now we don’t really know when the certification will take place. Our foundation hasn’t done anything either, so I don’t see why I should have specific plans and strategies to prepare for the certification.’ (Mr. Frans, a teacher at Private School 8)

With regard to further plans and strategies for teacher certification, responses from part-time teachers from both public and private schools were obvious – they did not
have plans yet. As discussed earlier, part-time teachers had another matter to be more concerned about than such a certification: securing a permanent position was more important for them.

Other teachers, who strongly believed that their long-term professional development plans should not be affected by the Law, stated that professional teachers should be ready with any mandated changes, including that of teacher certification. Those teachers further stated that they would be ready anytime they had to enter the certification program. However, it was not the promised salary increase that would attract them to join teacher certification – it was more their curiosity to know how ‘professional’ they were in terms of the standardised professionalism as mandated by the Law. With regard to this issue, two teachers commented:

'I don’t have any specific preparations with regard to teacher certification. But I’ll always be ready if I have to do it. I want to know what the certification is like. That’ll motivate me more than the promised incentives.' (Ms. Rini, a teacher at Private School 2)

'I’m more than ready to do any certification even though I don’t have any specific preparations. After all, why should we be afraid of such a certification if we have done our jobs well? I’m sure I’m already professional. But I really want to know what the certification is like. It doesn’t matter for me if, for example, I don’t pass the test for the teacher certification. From that at least I know how ‘professional’ I am according to the standards set up by the government.' (Mr. Yato, a teacher at Public School 3)

Elsewhere, other related stakeholders, such as the District Education Office and the Teachers’ Association have also been doing their duties to prepare schools and teachers for the implementation of the Law. So far, the Office has been disseminating the Law to schools through the Municipal’s Principals’ Forum. The Office has also acted as a policy and regulation mediator between the central, provincial and local governments and the schools. However, the Office could not go further than informing principals and teachers about the Law and any other changes. According to Mr. Sudi, the Office did not
have the authority to decide when to implement the Law nor did it have funding for financing the teacher certification program or the promised incentives. He said:

'The Office is a mediator between policymakers and the schools. But that's all that we could do - we are only the messenger of any changes in policy or regulation. As for the implementation of the Law, particularly when it comes to paying the certification and incentives, the Office could only wait from further instructions from the central. There's no way that our Office or even the Municipal government is able to pay the incentives. I don't think we have enough funding for that.' (Mr. Sudi, personnel from the District Education Office)

As for the strategies and preparation by the Teachers' Association, Mr. Ubud believed that the Association has done its jobs at its best. Prior to and after the release of the Law, the Teachers' Association has been informing schools around the country about the Law and its advantages and consequences for teacher professionalism. The Association has also published a booklet about the detailed chronology of Law 14/2005 and its content and related explanations. The booklet was to be sold to its members for Rp. 10,000 (which is equal to $AUS 1.00). Unfortunately, according to Mr. Ubud:

'One of our preparations for informing teachers about the Law was to publish a booklet. We hope our members will buy the booklet because it contains very useful information about the Law and because it's really cheap. But I was a bit disappointed. My fellow teachers do not seem to be aware of what PGRI has done for them and many of them do not see the importance of buying the booklet. It's really cheap, but many still think that the booklet is a money-generating project by PGRI. This, of course, is not true!' (Mr. Ubud, key figure of the Teachers' Association)

Mr. Ubud further stated that the Association has been actively advocating the government and policymakers about inconsistent and sometimes unrealistic conditions for teacher certification as mandated by the Law. For example, PGRI has registered their objection with regard to the teachers' minimum required teaching hours (24 hours per week) before those teachers are eligible for certification program. This condition is not consistent with the new curriculum, which in fact cuts off teachers' teaching hours.
The English Department, as another related stakeholder, did not have any specific plans or strategies with regard to the release of Law 14/2005. This is despite its regular professional development programs for English teachers in Salatiga. In fact, most of its staff members were either not aware of or were indifferent to the existence of the Law.

6.5.6. Summary

In responding to Law 14/2005 – particularly in relation to the mandated certification for teachers to be considered ‘professional’ – principals and teachers had various plans, strategies and professional behaviours. In general, however, they all agreed that the Law would sooner or later impact the teaching profession and teacher professionalism. Some were more enthusiastic and motivated to learn and grow to become more professional teachers as soon as the Law was published, while others were less optimistic – or were even sceptical. Many of those teachers simply waited for the implementation of the Law and only then would they make more specific plans and preparations if they needed to join the certification program. Other parties, such as the District Education Office and the Teachers’ Association, stated that they have done their best to prepare principals and teachers to respond to the Law even though they, too, were still waiting for the realisation of the Law.
6.6. Chapter summary

This chapter has presented a detailed picture of the major findings of the study, particularly findings from interviews with teachers and principals. It has provided detailed and thorough discussion of how the teaching profession and teacher professionalism are defined, constructed and perceived by English teachers and other related stakeholders in the Salatiga Municipality within the context of the national education system. This chapter has also addressed issues surrounding professional development programs for English teachers in the Municipality, as well as issues and responses related to Law 14 of 2005. The next and final chapter of this thesis, Chapter 7, will provide a summary of the findings and recommendations for further research.
CHAPTER 7

Summary, conclusions, and recommendations

7.1. Introduction

Chapter 7 is the final chapter of this thesis. It includes the summary, conclusion and further recommendations following the research findings discussed in the previous chapter. The summary, in particular, is discussed in relation to the main research questions. This chapter also presents the main conclusions of the study. In addition, recommendations for policymakers, teachers, principals and other educational stakeholders are explored in this chapter. Although the research project used a case study approach and only focused on one geographical research site (Salatiga Municipality), and thus generalisation was never the aim of the study, the findings will resonate with the realities of the teaching force in other regions throughout Indonesia. This is because Salatiga has all types of schooling recognised in Indonesia’s education system even though it is a relatively small town. All levels of education also exist in Salatiga, from primary to higher education. In addition, problems of inequalities of educational service and provision occur in the area, for example between small and poor-resourced schools and more privileged schools.

It is therefore hoped that the recommendations generated from this research project could be useful for a broader context of education in Indonesia. Furthermore,
Chapter 7 also presents the limitations of this study (for example, in terms of research topics and areas in teacher professionalism that should and could have been explored more), as well as providing suggestions for future research possibilities for those who are interested in studying teacher professionalism in Indonesia.

7.2. Summary of the study

Based on semi-structured interviews (with 17 principals, 46 English teachers, six university staff members, one officer at the District Education Office, and one key member of the local Teachers’ Association) and analysis of policy documents (such as Law 14 of 2005, document on teachers’ supervision and evaluation, document on roles and duties of the District Education Office), this section of Chapter 7 presents the summary of this research project. It is presented with regard to the main Research Questions (RQ) of this study.

RQ #1: How are teaching profession and teacher professionalism defined, constructed and perceived by Indonesian EFL teachers and other related education stakeholders in one case in the Indonesian town of Salatiga?

The data from the fieldwork suggest that teachers in the Salatiga Municipality perceive the teaching profession and their professionalism in terms of five major aspects: their initial reasons of entering the teaching profession, the perceived views from the society about the profession, the rewards for the teaching profession, teachers’ career
progression, and the perceptions of teachers and principals on the meaning of professional EFL teachers. Different motives to become a teacher, for instance, may result if different types of professionalism, different perspectives about the teaching profession, and various degree of commitment, passion and attitudes towards willingness to learn and grow as a professional teacher. A summary of each aspect is presented in Table 8, Table 9, Table 10, Table 11, and Table 12 (pp. 269-273).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motive of entering the profession</th>
<th>Teaching profession explained</th>
<th>Type of teacher professionalism</th>
<th>Consequences</th>
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| Love for teaching and English language | Teaching profession is 'enjoyable' and requires dedication, commitments and care despite little reward. | Total professionalism; Dynamic professionalism | (1) No reasons to leave the profession despite little reward.  
(2) Many reasons to continuously grow to be more professional. |
| Religious calling | Teachers’ main duties are to love and serve God by loving and serving others, particularly the poor, the marginalised and the low achievers. | Total professionalism; Altruistic professionalism | (1) Perceived view that 'heavenly rewards' are far more valuable than 'material rewards'.  
(2) Motive to serve others is often considered more crucial than other factors, such as suitable qualification, knowledge and skills. |
| Financial burden/hardship | Teaching profession is seen a solution to financial burden, particularly post-Independence in early 1950s and during the monetary crisis in late 90s when unemployment hit the country. | Total professionalism; Static professionalism | (1) Those who later fell in love with the profession found many reasons to continuously grow and thus became more total in their professionalism.  
(2) Those who still considered teaching as merely a job would often be reluctant to grow, particularly if no financial rewards were involved. |
| Rejection from or incapability of entering other professions | Teaching profession is seen as an alternative choice; similar to the previous case, teachers remain in the profession for financial security. | Conditioned professionalism; Static professionalism | (1) Teachers attribute their professionalism to experience as a result of long service years (the longer the more experienced and more professional).  
(2) Teachers were willing to improve under certain conditions, e.g. for promotion purposes. |
Table 8: Aspect 1: Motives of entering the teaching profession (cont)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motive of entering the profession</th>
<th>Teaching profession explained</th>
<th>Type of teacher professionalism</th>
<th>Consequences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceived roles of women</td>
<td>Teaching is considered a convenient profession for women who want to juggle family and career, and those who do not want to excel or be above their husbands' careers.</td>
<td>Conveneit professionalism; Static professionalism</td>
<td>(1) Female teachers did not mind developing professionally as long as time and other arrangements are convenient and do not interfere with family matters. (2) Some did not see the reasons to develop at all and were happy in their present situation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Love for English language</td>
<td>Teaching English is seen as an expression and manifestation of the teachers' love of the language and not of the teaching profession itself.</td>
<td>Conditioned professionalism</td>
<td>Teachers are willing to improve and learn under certain conditions, i.e. as long as the learning is directly related to their improvement in English language skills and other relevant knowledge.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9: Aspect 2: What the society thinks about the profession

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Society's views</th>
<th>Teaching profession explained</th>
<th>Type of teacher professionalism</th>
<th>Consequences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Respected profession</td>
<td>Teaching profession occupies a special place in the society; teachers are still respected, particularly in small communities or villages.</td>
<td>Community-recognised professionalism</td>
<td>Communities trust teachers but at the same time also expect them to provide cure and solution for educational problems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheaper and more feasible profession to enter</td>
<td>Families in small communities or villages want their children to enter the teaching profession as it is considered as more feasible than other professions such as doctor or lawyer.</td>
<td>Second-class professionalism (as opposed to 'exclusive' professionalism resulted by high-profile professions such as doctors and lawyers)</td>
<td>A perceived belief that the profession usually attracts 'second-class' people with 'second-class' economy.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 10: Aspect 3; Rewards for the teaching profession

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitudes towards rewards</th>
<th>Teacher rewards explained</th>
<th>Consequences on professionalism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Financial rewards are too little</td>
<td>If compared to other professions or with teachers from other countries, the teaching profession and Indonesian teachers receive the least financial rewards.</td>
<td>(1) Teachers take a second job. (2) Teachers cannot focus on main teaching duties at schools. (3) Teachers are willing to learn, improve and grow as long as it can increase their rewards.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial rewards are standard</td>
<td>Indonesian teachers have been rewarded in accordance with the reward standards set up by the government; probably not much but have met the minimum standards.</td>
<td>Teachers simply follow directives and procedures for their professional development and growth for promotion purpose; the initiatives to improve are sometimes not motivated intrinsically.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial rewards are relative</td>
<td>The key issue is to be thankful for what teachers get; rewards are always too little if teachers think they are too little but are enough if they think they are enough.</td>
<td>(1) Teachers are not reluctant to improve despite little or no rewards. (2) Teachers believe that increased rewards do not guarantee increased professionalism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial rewards are already appropriate</td>
<td>Indonesian teachers are appropriately rewarded because the level of difficulties of their profession is not that high.</td>
<td>Teachers simply follow directives and procedures for their professional development and growth for promotion purpose; the initiatives to improve are sometimes not motivated intrinsically.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 11: Aspect 4: Career progression

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of teachers</th>
<th>Career progression explained</th>
<th>Type of teacher professionalism</th>
<th>Consequences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Part-time teachers (all types of schools)</td>
<td>Part-time teachers are usually more concerned with securing their permanent position first than focusing on career progression.</td>
<td>Their professionalism depends on their motives of entering the teaching profession in the first place (see Aspect 1 in this section).</td>
<td>For some teachers, there was no point of doing their work more professionally or attempting to develop as professionals at particular schools because of their uncertain status. Some other teachers, however, did not see their status as the reason to act unprofessionally.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full-time public servants</td>
<td>Public-serving teachers are given 2-4 years to progress to a higher rank. One factor which decides whether or not a teacher is eligible for promotion is the principal's assessment and evaluation, which, according to the PGRI representative, is often prone to manipulation and dishonesty.</td>
<td>Pseudo professionalism (but also other types of professionalism described in Aspect 1, depending on individual teachers' attitudes).</td>
<td>(1) A perceived belief that the higher the rank is, the more professional (despite real competences or performance) (2) Demands for teachers to conduct more in-depth professional learning once they achieve their 4A rank (i.e. doing research and publishing).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full-time private school teachers</td>
<td>Promotion and ranking systems are basically the same as those for public servants. Even though their basic salary is generally the same, private school teachers often do not receive as much incentive as public-serving teachers.</td>
<td>Their professionalism is often not linked to promotion and ranking system but depends on their motives of entering the teaching profession in the first place (see Aspect 1 in this section).</td>
<td>The consequences are thus related to their motives of becoming English teachers in the first place (refer to Aspect 1 of this section).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 12: Aspect 5: The meaning of professional EFL teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actor</th>
<th>Attributes to professionalism</th>
<th>Common obstacles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EFL teachers</td>
<td>Experience, responsibilities, commitment and love for the profession, teaching performance and administrative duties, fluency in the target language, qualification and academic backgrounds, continuous learning, confidence, knowledge of IT and computer.</td>
<td>(1) Old age, time constraints, family (particularly for female teachers), or inadequate facilities and support from the principals or the school communities. (2) Many teachers were not aware of the importance of pedagogical knowledge and other educational issues.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principals</td>
<td>(1) Pedagogical knowledge, competence and skills in English language teaching were the first requirements to enter the profession. (2) Other attributes include willingness to learn and grow, ability to serve different students’ needs, good and complete administration, ability to transfer knowledge, good classroom management.</td>
<td>Small private schools cannot hire 'professional teachers' due to budget constraints.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This section has summed up the meaning of professionalism mostly defined and constructed by English teachers in terms of five aspects, namely the motives of entering the profession, what the society thinks about the teaching profession, the rewards for the teaching profession, English teachers’ career progression, and what it means to be professional English teachers based on the perspectives of English teachers and school principals. The next section sums up findings related to Research Question 2.

RQ #2: What support is available and perceived important for enhancing Indonesian EFL teacher professionalism?

Support thought to be crucial for English teachers for enhancing their professionalism range from availability of physical facilities and resources in the school communities to non-material supports such as collaboration, trust and encouragement.
from members of the school communities and other related educational stakeholders. Findings related to RQ #2 are summed up in Table 13 (next page).
Table 13: Support for teacher professionalism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of expected supports</th>
<th>Availability of support</th>
<th>How related supports help teacher professionalism</th>
<th>Related problem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language lab and other multi media</td>
<td>Not available in all schools, particularly in small and less fortunate private schools</td>
<td>Such facilities will make teachers' work easier to prepare students' listening skills for the national exam. If teachers are less stressed, they can thus have more time and energy for their professional learning.</td>
<td>Usually technical problems as schools only have the equipment but not the technicians. Another problem is related to good but affordable listening materials.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer and the internet</td>
<td>Same as above</td>
<td>The internet provides cheaper reading materials, learning opportunities, and even online discussions with students as well as other English teachers from around the globe.</td>
<td>Same as above; but also, many teachers believe that everything from the internet is always good and reliable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource and reference books for teachers</td>
<td>Very rare</td>
<td>Such supports provide teachers with reliable knowledge and skills for their further professional growth, particularly for writing academic papers for promotion purposes.</td>
<td>English books are very expensive and unaffordable because they are almost always only available in foreign currency.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative support</td>
<td>Some schools have standard administrative support, some others lack such support. Only one private school has supportive administration</td>
<td>Instead of focusing on administrative work, teachers can focus on their day-to-day teaching duties as well as their professional learning.</td>
<td>Competence-limited, sometimes poorly-paid administrative staff members but with massive work. This situation often makes them reluctant to help with teachers' administrative work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration with other (English) teachers within school communities</td>
<td>Such collaboration exists and is facilitated in all schools through MGMP at a school level</td>
<td>This is the first step of teachers' professional discussions and attempts to solve problems related to issues of education and English teaching.</td>
<td>In some schools, teachers choose to skip the meeting to do their second job instead.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration with other English teachers outside school communities</td>
<td>Such collaboration is available in the Municipality through MGMP meetings at Municipal level</td>
<td>This is the next step for English teachers to discuss and solve their problems, and have meaningful discussions with teachers from other schools.</td>
<td>Meetings are usually irregular, depending on available funding and timetables for national examination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration with other stakeholders</td>
<td>Although not necessarily adequate, supports are provided by the District Education Office, PGRI, and the local university</td>
<td>The Office coordinates funding and information for teachers' professional development programs, the university holds RTD for free, PGRI provides advice, criticism and assistance for teachers and the government or policymakers.</td>
<td>RTD facilitated by the university are often in conflict with schools or national exam's timetables, or its topic irrelevant; many teachers still do not trust the Office and are not aware of the roles of PGRI.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 13 (cont)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of expected supports</th>
<th>Availability of support</th>
<th>How related supports help teacher professionalism</th>
<th>Related problem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trust from the leader</td>
<td>Not available in all schools; public schools may have problems related to this matter because unlike in private schools, principals in public schools are not elected by and within members of school communities</td>
<td>Principals’ trust can positively impact on and motivate English teachers to improve and grow as professionals. At the same time teachers also feel more motivated, confident and encouraged to participate in any professional learning opportunities.</td>
<td>Some teachers and principals do not trust each other; principal leadership is considered either weak or not accommodative.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training and practice in language skills and particularly sparring partners for speaking practice</td>
<td>Mostly unavailable at junior high schools because English teachers deal with students with basic or very little English backgrounds</td>
<td>English teachers become more confident and competent in their skills, which in turn can influence students’ performance and learning outcome.</td>
<td>Many teachers, especially junior high school teachers, are not competent users of the language, let alone the students they teach.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge about action research and academic writing</td>
<td>Mostly unavailable</td>
<td>Such knowledge and training will improve teachers’ competence in researching and writing, which in turn will help their promotion as well.</td>
<td>Lack of training from related stakeholders; many are stuck on 4A rank as a result.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This section presents a summary of the existing support available for EFL teachers in the town of Salatiga and how such support helps enhance teacher professionalism. In addition, this section provides a list of existing problems and issues with regard to such support. The next section sums up discussion and findings of Research Question 3.

RQ #3: To what extent are professional development activities, which are planned and programmed by various educational stakeholders, perceived crucial in bringing changes on Indonesian EFL teacher learning and professional practices?
It is evident from the research findings that professional development programs for English teachers were crucial. Such programs provided English teachers with, for example, the latest development of methods, approaches and techniques in English language teaching. They were also important to upgrade and refresh teachers' pedagogical knowledge and skills. Based on the findings, this section sums up five issues related to professional development programs: (1) types of professional development programs available for English teachers in the Salatiga Municipality; (2) common problems and obstacles faced by schools, teachers and related stakeholders; (3) expected changes after teachers participate in professional development programs; (4) types of training and knowledge that English teachers need; and (5) learning culture within the school communities that may foster and sustain teacher learning and their development.

Issue 1: Types of professional development programs

The most common and frequent programs for English teachers in the Salatiga Municipality were MGMP at the school level, MGMP at the Municipal level facilitated by the District Education Office, and Round Table Discussions facilitated by the English Department of the biggest university in the Municipality as part of its community service programs for its staff members. How these programs could help enhance English teacher professionalism was discussed in section 6.4.1. Other learning opportunities, which were usually less frequent, included seminars, workshops, conferences and other training provided either by the government (through the District Education Office) or by universities in the Municipality or in nearby regions.
Issue 2: Common problems and obstacles

Table 14 sums up common problems and obstacles and other issues related to professional development programs for EFL teachers in the Municipality.

Table 14: Common problems and obstacles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problems</th>
<th>Issues related to problems</th>
<th>How to address the problems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ reluctance</td>
<td>Instead of joining professional development programs, many teachers instead choose to do their second job. Sometimes, they are also reluctant to leave their families behind (particularly for female teachers).</td>
<td>The principals should have good communication, monitoring and supervision mechanisms in relation to teachers’ reluctance to join development programs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial constraints</td>
<td>Seminars and conferences can be quite expensive and conducted out of town.</td>
<td>Principals and teachers can actively find free-of-charge learning opportunities, usually provided by universities as part of their community service programs. Principals can also lobby the District Education Office to provide more funding.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time constraints</td>
<td>Time constraints are closely linked to the national exam; teachers’ time is spent more on preparing their students than on their own learning.</td>
<td>By delegating which teachers should participate in what programs and upon their return to school, they should share and discuss it with other teachers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of communication and networking</td>
<td>Organisers of professional development programs sometimes do not have communication with the schools or the Office prior to their programs. As a result, problems such as time conflict and irrelevant or mismatched topics usually occur.</td>
<td>More communication and networking among related stakeholders, e.g. between the university and schools, or between the university and the District Education Office.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Issue 3: Expected changes

After participating in professional development activities, teachers are usually expected to perform better, which will hopefully result in improving student
performance. As much as possible, learning opportunities through professional development activities should lead to the betterment of education in general and enhance teachers' professionalism in particular. Through their upgraded skills and knowledge, teachers are expected to perform better in class and be more creative and innovative. In addition, they should have changed perspectives and attitudes with regard to their skills and knowledge in language teaching. However, expected changes are often hard to realise because of conditions occurring at the school level, such as an unconducive learning environment and culture in the school communities, lack of collaboration among members of school communities, lack of facilities and resources, teachers' own reluctance to change, and students' low motivation.

Issue 4: What English teachers need

Interviews data revealed that sometimes, different teachers had different needs, depending on the conditions of the schools and the students. Different types of teachers appear to have different needs as well. In general, however, uniformity of curriculum interpretation seems to be crucial because the curriculum guidelines are considered confusing and ambiguous by many. Table 15 (next page) summarises what EFL teachers in the Salatiga Municipality need.
Table 15: What English teachers need

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of teachers</th>
<th>What English teachers need</th>
<th>Related issues</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All schools and all teachers</td>
<td>Clear, unambiguous and uniform information about the new English curriculum; experts or master teacher to whom the teachers can consult and seek professional advice.</td>
<td>Such information is crucial and urgent because students will face standardised national examination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers at favourite and/or adequately-resourced schools</td>
<td>More knowledge and training on information technology, new learning software, and multimedia.</td>
<td>Teachers in these schools need to incorporate more IT in their English lessons because their students are usually good users of the technology themselves.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers at small and poorly-resourced schools</td>
<td>Partners for professional discussions and sharing.</td>
<td>In such a school, there is usually an English teacher who does not have anyone else to talk to should he/she face teaching-related problems or other pedagogical issues.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior high school teachers</td>
<td>More practice and knowledge on language skills, particularly speaking and writing skills.</td>
<td>Junior high school teachers gradually lose their speaking and writing skills because they have to use the Indonesian language most of the time due to their students' low level of English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novice teachers</td>
<td>More knowledge and skills on classroom management and how to deal with students with various needs and diverse psychological backgrounds.</td>
<td>New teachers with little experience did not have enough information and exposure on this situation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long-serving teachers</td>
<td>Upgrade and refreshment of knowledge and skills, including IT and multimedia.</td>
<td>Many of teachers that fall into this category; however, they feel reluctant to catch up with development of ELT and advancement of technology because they are nearly retired.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers at big schools (public, private or Madrasah)</td>
<td>Techniques and methods on how to teach language to a big class.</td>
<td>Workshops and seminars for language teachers are usually applicable for small classes only.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Issue 5: Learning and professional academic culture**

Table 16 (next page) summarises learning culture within the school communities that may foster and sustain teacher learning and their development.
## Table 16: Learning and professional academic culture

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of culture</th>
<th>Frequency or availability</th>
<th>Related issues</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>Reading English materials from English newspapers and magazines is done frequently. Reading more academic materials from reference books or journal is still very rare.</td>
<td>Many teachers believe reading English newspapers or magazines is sufficient; reading journals or other academic textbooks is hardly possible due to access and financial constraints.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion and sharing within school communities</td>
<td>Quite frequent as English teachers are usually seated close by or placed in the same room.</td>
<td>Apart from reading, this is perhaps the most obvious learning culture that exists in most schools.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion and sharing outside school communities</td>
<td>Through MGMP meetings, teachers in the Municipality should meet at least once every two weeks. Other events such as RTD or English competitions are recommended.</td>
<td>As discussed earlier, in reality, MGMP meetings cannot be conducted frequently due to funding and timetable problems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Browsing the internet</td>
<td>Quite frequent as long as there is access.</td>
<td>Nearly-retired or long-serving teachers are usually not interested in the internet; teachers who do not have access at school often have to use their money to access the internet elsewhere.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation in professional development programs</td>
<td>The frequency depends on invitations from the District Education Office or universities.</td>
<td>Problems are usually related to financial and time constraints (see previous section).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultation with experts</td>
<td>Very rarely; only one particular school has access to experts in ELT because the school and the English Department are under the same organisation.</td>
<td>It is often the case that English teachers are left in confusion because they do not have experts to consult.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conducting research</td>
<td>Very rarely</td>
<td>Fewer than five teachers interviewed actually had the experience of doing research; not enough knowledge, skills, training and information about how to conduct action research.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing academic papers</td>
<td>Very rarely</td>
<td>Fewer than five teachers interviewed actually had the experience of writing academic papers; most teachers admitted that they did not know how to write academic papers nor did they ever receive proper training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Publishing</td>
<td>Very rarely</td>
<td>Only one English teacher ever published his piece of writing in the media.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This section sums up the importance of professional development programs in bringing changes on English teacher learning and professional practices in the Salatiga Municipality. The next section provides a summary of findings and issues related to Research Question 4.

**RQ 4: To what extent does Law 14/2005 impact Indonesian EFL teacher professionalism?**

4a: How do Indonesian EFL teachers, principals, and other related stakeholders perceive the imposed changes?

**Table 17: Perspectives of Law 14/2005**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational actors</th>
<th>General views and perspectives of Law 14/2005</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>Teachers’ views varied: some are optimistic, some pessimistic and sceptical, some are confused, while some other teachers are indifferent. Implementation and realisation of the Law, particularly the new incentive system, will be the real proof of the government’s good will towards improvement of teachers’ status and condition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principals</td>
<td>Principals are generally more informed and aware of the Law and in general are quite hopeful. Similar perspectives to teachers when it comes to implementation of the Law.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Representative from the Teachers’ Association</td>
<td>It is about time a special law for protecting and enhancing teacher status and professionalism was released. The Law would also force and motivate 'unproductive' and lazy teachers to improve and do more professional learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel from the District Education Office</td>
<td>The Law is necessary and will definitely improve teachers’ status and professionalism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University staff members</td>
<td>Staff members of the English Department hardly know about the Law despite organising professional development programs for English teachers in Salatiga. Some of them even expressed their indifference as the Law would not affect them directly.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4b: What are the responses, support, professional behaviours and strategies of teachers and principals in particular in coping with the changes?
Table 18: Teachers and principals' strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational actors</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Related issues</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>Most teachers do not have any specific plans or strategies; they simply wait for further realisation and implementation of the Law; some already had short-term and long-term plans to prepare themselves for the certification.</td>
<td>Many teachers believed that what is required by or stipulated in the Law should not affect their long-term professional development plans or learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principals</td>
<td>Same as above; principals could only wait for further instructions and information from the District Education Office.</td>
<td>Principals could only ask teachers to prepare administrative-related documents or their portfolio. They also encouraged teachers to keep learning and improving regardless of the uncertainty of the implementation of the Law.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Representative from the Teachers' Association</td>
<td>Informing and disseminating the content of the Law, its advantages and consequences for teacher professionalism; publishing a special booklet about the Law, advocating the authority regarding inconsistent or unrealistic conditions or clauses as stipulated by the Law.</td>
<td>Apparently, many teachers are still not aware of the role that the Association plays in responding to the Law.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel from the District Education Office</td>
<td>Informing and disseminating the content of the Law to schools; mediating between the government and the schools should there be any new regulations related to the Law.</td>
<td>The Office could not do anything in terms of financing the certification program or the promised incentives. It could only wait for further instructions from the central authority.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University staff members</td>
<td>None so far</td>
<td>University staff members have not been aware of the importance of studying the Law thoroughly as most of them have not yet seen how the Law would impact on them – hence no strategies nor preparation so far.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4c: Are there any different perceptions, beliefs, behaviours and strategies among different teachers and principals from different types of schools?

Table 19: Differences of perceptions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of schools or teachers</th>
<th>Perceptions, beliefs, behaviours, strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Public school principals</strong></td>
<td>Principals at public schools wait for further instructions from the government through the District Education Office. Despite their mixed responses, attitudes, and beliefs towards the Law, these principals will basically follow what is required by the government during the implementation stage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Private school principals</strong></td>
<td>Basically, they also have mixed feelings and attitudes. However, principals at private schools believed that their schools are not the priority of the certification program so they might have to wait longer for the certification program to be realised. Their strategies and behaviours also depend on proactive reactions from the foundations or organisations to which their schools belong.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Madrasah principals</strong></td>
<td>Madrasah schools principals also have mixed attitudes. They, however, have to wait for further coordination between the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Religious Affairs during the implementation stage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Public-serving teachers</strong></td>
<td>Mixed responses; some teachers already had short-term or long-term strategies and plans, while some others would simply follow the flow. Apart from one senior teacher who refused to join any certification program even though she is more than qualified, most teachers are ready should they have to be certified.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Private school teachers (non public servants)</strong></td>
<td>They also have mixed responses; some teachers already had short-term or long-term strategies and plans, while some others have the 'wait and see' attitude.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Madrasah teachers</strong></td>
<td>Mixed responses; some teachers already had short-term or long-term strategies and plans, while some others would simply follow the flow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Part-time teachers at any types of schools</strong></td>
<td>Such teachers mostly do not pay too much attention to the content and consequences of the Law until they can secure a permanent teaching position.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7.3. Conclusions of the study

Based on theoretical framework and literature review elaborated in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 of the thesis, and based on the fieldwork conducted in early 2007, the following conclusions of the research project are thus drawn:

- Dimensions and aspects of the teaching profession and teacher professionalism theorised, constructed and defined by Western scholars (such as knowledge, autonomy, responsibility, professional judgment, collaboration, continuous learning, and activism) have been widely quoted and cited on studies about teacher professionalism (see, for example, Day, 1999; Day & Sachs, 2004; Hargreaves & Fullan, 1998; Hargreaves & Goodson, 1996; Hoyle & John, 1995; Sachs, 2003). Studies on Indonesian teacher professionalism inevitably rely on those constructed theories. Nevertheless, as argued earlier in Chapter 3, historical backgrounds and context of Indonesia's education system and teaching force make Indonesian teacher professionalism unique and different. The national education system was built on a fragile and unstable foundation due to periods of colonialisation and foreign occupation; as a new nation, Indonesia used to rely a lot on the systems brought by the occupying power (e.g. Bjork, 2005; Mauldin, 1961; Nilan, 2003; Tilaar, 1995). The teaching force, as a result, was equally unstable. This has in turn led to different perceptions and types of the teaching profession and teacher professionalism. Not all teachers, for example, possess all the dimensions and aspects of professionalism constructed by Western scholars. In fact, it is quite impossible for Indonesian teachers to be called 'professional' should the parameters of their professionalism not take into
account the conditions and realities that they have to face in their day-to-day work. An underqualified teacher working at a small and poorly-resourced school, for instance, is perhaps not professional by any standards because he/she does not have the necessary competence and formalised knowledge to exercise his/her professional judgment should problems and uncertainty occur. In such a case, his/her passion, dedication and commitment to serve the marginalised should thus be aspects to consider for his/her professionalism. Unfortunately, such teachers often escape the attention of the authority or education policymakers.

Based on findings from the fieldwork, it can be concluded that the professionalism of Indonesian teachers is relative; it is dependent upon certain conditions and specific context. Section 7.2 of this chapter has summed up the types of professionalism drawn from the data of this study. For example, English teachers who obtain suitable qualifications, who love teaching as much as they love the language, who do not see policy and curriculum changes as a threat for their professionalism, and who have great passions for professional learning and growth, are said to be ‘total’ or ‘dynamic’ professionals (see Table 7). In contrast, those who are willing to improve as long as the rewards are right, fall into the category of ‘conditioned’ professionals (see Table 7). Conversely, teachers who view teaching as merely a job and not a career or a place to continuously learn, might be called ‘static’ professionals (see Table 7).

Another type of professionalism which is common among Indonesian teacher is the one linked to teachers’ ranks and career progression. This thesis uses the term *pseudo-professionalism* to explain the phenomenon: teacher professionalism is determined by their rank – the higher their rank is the more ‘professional’ they are.
(see Table 10). On the evidence of the interviews and document analysis, such was not always the case because evaluation and supervision mechanisms for teachers’ appraisal are often prone to collusion, nepotism and manipulation.

• The data from the current study also show English teachers’ dissatisfaction towards, and sometimes objection to, the so-called standardised national examination. Most of them expressed their concerns about how such examination affected their professionalism and professional development opportunities. The examination has resulted in, among other things, English teachers working longer hours to prepare students for the examination (and thus having less time for their own professional learning and development), and teachers returning to the ‘drilling teaching method’ and ‘spoon-feeding teaching method’ instead of fostering learners’ creativity and critical and independent thinking. Moreover, English teacher professionalism is often assessed based on their students’ achievement on the standardised examination despite differences in support, facilities and resources. Even though standardisation in Indonesia’s national education system is inevitable and considered necessary in the globalisation era (Tilaar, 2006), teachers should not be victimised and left alone; they should be supported with adequate assistance, resources and facilities. For Indonesian EFL teachers, it is thus unfair should their professionalism be mostly determined by their students’ achievement and scores in the standardised examination without taking into account teachers’ day-to-day working conditions and realities in their English classrooms.

• The birth of Law 14 of 2005 has marked a new period of the teaching profession and teacher professionalism in Indonesia (e.g. Pengurus Besar PGRI, 2005). As revealed
from the data, the Law provides parameters for what professional teachers should be like. It also provides legal protection for the profession. In addition, the Law includes a new incentive system for teachers who are certified and considered ‘professional’. These three elements were absent prior to the release of the Law. Following its approval by the parliament, the Law has nonetheless created controversies, doubts, scepticism and rejection, particularly when it comes to issues of implementation. It comes as no surprise that teacher and principals interviewed during the fieldwork mostly applied the wait-and-see attitude; until they are actually qualified to participate in the certification program and receive the incentives, they will not expect too much from the Law.

Another conclusion that could be drawn from the data is the lack of trust, coordination, communication and networking among related stakeholders in their efforts to enhance English teacher professionalism in the Salatiga Municipality. As far as the interview data are concerned, there was no reported coordination and communication between the District Education Office and the local university in terms of designing appropriate professional development programs for English teachers. The Office expected the local university to conduct more research in this area but it never discussed this matter with the academics. Similarly, the Teachers’ Association also hoped that some day, a thorough study of the validity of teachers’ assessment system be conducted by researchers from university, but the Association did not have any communication with them. Elsewhere, university staff members did not initiate any collaboration or networking with the two offices because their intention to facilitate learning opportunities for English teachers was driven more by a
motive to provide community-service credit points for their lecturers' promotion, rather than to accommodate the voice and needs of those English teachers. Nor did the university ever conduct empirical studies on what present English teachers really needed, for instance. This situation has resulted in incoherent, and sometimes irrelevant, professional development programs for English teachers—professional development programs which were often too theory-driven, too broad, too far from classroom realities and did not suit the teachers' real needs (see, for example, Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; Firestone et al., 2005; Fullan, 2001; Sandholtz & Scribner, 2006).

7.4. General recommendations

This section lists general recommendations based on the findings of the study. The following recommendations can hopefully provide useful and insightful suggestions for educational stakeholders in general and those in Salatiga Municipality in particular:

- The findings of the research project suggest that the two important issues that could enhance English teacher professionalism are collaboration and trust. Collaboration and trust should first occur at the closest community, among English teachers at the same school and between teachers and principals, and later stretch out to communities outside school—for example, between schools and the District Education Office and/or other relevant stakeholders. It is therefore important to nurture these two factors within the school communities and it is high time that educational actors stopped the blame and accusations. It is
understood that changes in policy and curriculum may result in teachers’ work being deprofessionalised and unsupported. By developing and encouraging more collaboration and trust among educational stakeholders, it is hoped that teachers and principals could take the challenge and develop teacher professionalism.

- The next recommendation is concerned with financial constraints normally faced by schools. What principals and teachers can do is to actively seek any opportunities which are either free of charge or low in cost. As universities will have their community service programs, it is high time that schools (through their principals) made the best use of any opportunities provided by them. As with matters related to teachers’ reluctance to join professional development activities organised by MGMP at the school or Municipal levels, principals’ strong but sensitive supervision, communication and monitoring skills are necessary. At the Municipal level in particular, where teachers actually receive incentives as a stimulus to participate in the MGMP programs, more organised reward and penalty systems should be introduced. Based on the findings, there were teachers who came to the MGMP meeting only to sign on and take the incentive without attending the meeting. Such practice was apparently quite common and both principals and fellow teachers simply turned a blind eye. This kind of attitude must change if teachers want to be recognised as being professional.

- As for the English teachers, they should actively build their professionalism from bottom-up no matter how bad the situations and conditions at the schools are. They should place their trust in colleagues through MGMP at the school level, their principals, other English teachers in the region (through MGMP at the
Municipal level) and the Teachers' Association. They should also be more critical towards professional development programs and other learning opportunities organised by the District Education Office and nearby universities.

- Finally, what has been described by Fullan (2001) as the development of 'shared meaning' (p. 9) to face educational changes is perhaps worth mentioning here. In this study, education stakeholders in the Salatiga Municipality should first have a shared meaning of EFL teacher professionalism before taking further actions, such as designing and/or organising professional learning activities for those English teachers or responding to certification changes stipulated by Law 14/2005. The findings of the current study suggest that different stakeholders have different meanings (and different expectations) of EFL teacher professionalism. The shared meaning of professionalism should also take into account realities in schools, particularly in poorly resourced and less privileged schools. Based on the findings, teachers coming from this type of school are usually not considered professional by any standards – yet at the same time, they do not receive adequate and appropriate support either. It is about time their professionalism was as well acknowledged.

7.5. Recommendations for further studies

It is acknowledged that this study has a number of limitations (see Section 4.8). The following recommendations are therefore listed for further studies:
• The study only focused on English teachers at the Salatiga Municipality in Central Java. Although all types of schooling recognised in Indonesia’s education exist in the town of Salatiga, and although commonly-known problems of inequalities of educational service and provision occur in the area, more insights would be evident if other regions had been included in the study, particularly regions outside the island of Java where the conditions of schools and teachers could sometimes be more concerning.

• This study used interview as the main method of collecting data. One of the weaknesses of such a method is participants only say or report what they think or believe. It is acknowledged that interview may not really capture what English teachers do or practice in class. Future studies in this area could include classroom observation as another data collection method.

• In addition, other future studies could investigate English teacher professionalism at the primary school level. Based on the pilot study and document analysis, hundreds of thousands of primary school teachers are disadvantaged by Law 14/2005 because many of them are still underqualified.

• Researching how the professionalism of Madrasah teachers are affected by the Law would also be valuable. This is because Madrasah teachers, unlike other public-serving teachers, are employed under the Ministry of Religious Affairs. The ministry is one of the government bodies which remains centralised despite the release of Decentralisation Laws in 1999.

• Although this research project did include teachers at poorly resourced schools, it perhaps has not yet captured the realities of those teachers’ work, status and different
professionalism in a more in-depth manner. A specific study dedicated for those schools and teachers would be beneficial, particularly to provide recommendations for policymakers, who often disregard such teachers when introducing mandated changes.

- Finally, the study was conducted in early 2007 when implementation of Law 14/2005 was still debated but not yet realised. Follow-up research on the implementations of the Law and how the nature of teacher professionalism has changed (or not changed), would be highly recommended.

7.6. Final remarks

This thesis has explored the concepts and practices of Indonesian EFL teacher professionalism in the present time in the town of Salatiga. The findings suggest that defining ‘teacher professionalism’ in Indonesia is often problematic. For one reason, the Indonesian teaching force has always been unstable. For another, the government and policymakers often introduce reforms and changes in education that do not take into account realities and perceptions of those practitioners at the grassroots level. At the same time, however, many teachers have often been critical of their conditions as being ‘victims’ of policymakers but neglect the fact that they sometimes do not act ‘professionally’. Thus, the results of this research project could hopefully provide critical insights, practical suggestions and recommendations for EFL teachers and other related education stakeholders in an effort to search for the best meaning and concept of ‘professionalism’ that suits the realities and conditions at the school level.
Additionally, at a regional and national level, it is hoped that the findings of the current study will enable education practitioners to see if there is any discrepancy between the concept of 'professionalism' as stipulated and mandated by the authorities and that which is perceived by teachers and principals through their daily work in schools. At a broader level, this study will hopefully contribute to literature about common directions, trends and reforms in education and show how – despite the commonalities – educational changes result in different implications for different countries, regions, schools, and education practitioners.
REFERENCES


Kutipan peraturan pemerintah Republik Indonesia nomor 10 tahun 1979 tentang daftar penilaian pekerjaan pegawai negeri sipil [Copy of the government regulation of the Republic of Indonesia number 10 of 1979 regarding public servants' performance evaluation and assessment] (1979).


APPENDIX

Appendix 1: Ethics approval letter

20 December 2006

Dr L Harbon
School of Development and Learning
Faculty of Education and Social Work
Education Building -- A35
The University of Sydney

Dear Dr Harbon

Title: English Language Teaching (ELT) in Indonesia in the decentralisation era: Case studies in 3 schools in Salatiga Municipality

Ref No.: 05-2005/8238

The Executive Committee considered your request to modify the above protocol. The Executive Committee found that there were no ethical objections to the modifications and therefore recommends approval to proceed.

The following modifications were approved:

- Changes to the student researcher’s (Grace Ika Yuwono) enrolment status to PhD degree.
- Amendments to the research methodologies: Increase in the number of schools to be visited to 10-15 within the municipality; increase in the sample size to 40-50; to approach a personnel/s from the Educational Board and University staff to participate.
- Amendments to the Participant Information Statement, Consent Form, Interview Questions.
Chief Investigator / Supervisor’s responsibilities to ensure that:

(1) All serious and unexpected adverse events are to be reported to the Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) as soon as possible.

(2) All unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project are to be reported to the HREC as soon as possible.

(3) The HREC is to be notified as soon as possible of any changes to the protocol. All changes must be approved by the HREC before continuation of the research project. These include:
   - Notifying the HREC of any changes to the staff involved with the protocol.
   - Notifying the HREC of any changes to the Participant Information Statement and/or Consent Form.

(4) All research participants are to be provided with a Participant Information Statement and Consent Form, unless otherwise agreed by the Committee. The Participant Information Statement and Consent Form are to be on University of Sydney letterhead and include the full title of the research project and telephone contacts for the researchers, unless otherwise agreed by the Committee and the following statement must appear on the bottom of the Participant Information Statement. Any person with concerns or complaints about the conduct of a research study can contact the Senior Ethics Officer, University of Sydney, on (02) 9351 4811 (Telephone); (02) 9351 6706 (Facsimile) or gbriody@usyd.edu.au (Email).

(5) A report and a copy of any published material should be provided at the completion of the Project.

Yours sincerely

[Signature]

Associate Professor J D Watson
Chairman
Human Research Ethics Committee
Appendix 2: Interview questions for English teachers

Interview Questions: Teachers (QT)

Time and place of interview: ________________________________

Name: ___________________ School: _______________________

Years of service: __________ Present rank/position: __________

Degree: ___________________ Concentration: _________________

Other job: ___________________  

QUESTIONS

1. What is it like to be a teacher today?
   a. How do you view teaching profession?
   b. What do you think about the rewards?
2. Could you tell me about your career development?
3. Professional English teacher:
   a. What factors do you think make professional English teacher?
   b. Are you professional?
   c. If not, what should you improve to become more professional?
4. What factors do you think make teachers willing to develop? What factors make them reluctant to do so?
5. Do you normally share and discuss your teaching ideas, strategies, methods, or problems with the principal, other teachers inside and outside the school, or experts? Please explain.
6. What kinds of supports, facilities and resources are available in this school with regard to English language program? What, in your opinion, still needs improvement?
7. What is the relationship in the school community like?
8. How do you view the principal's leadership?
9. What are the roles of the principal, colleagues, the District Educational Board, the universities, or other institutions in enhancing or increasing your professionalism?
10. What do you think about teacher learning?
11. How do you view learning culture and professional academic culture in this school? For instance, how active are the teachers in joining seminars, reading academic textbooks, having discussions with other teachers or experts, doing research, writing and publishing?
12. How do you seek learning opportunities?
13. How often do you join any professional development programs? What do you normally get from those activities?
14. Do you intend to do a further study?
15. What do you think about English teachers’ association at the school level and at the municipal level?
16. What changes are expected after you join professional development programs or any other learning activities?
17. What are the roles of the principal, other teachers, the city’s English teachers’ association, the District Educational Board, the universities, or other institutions with regard to professional development programs?
18. What kind of knowledge or training do you think is needed for teachers of English in Indonesia at present time?
19. As a teacher, how aware are you of the new Law on teacher professionalism which was issued in 2005?
20. What do you think about the Law?
21. To what extent will the Law impact your professional career and development?
22. What will be your plans and strategies to cope with the mandated changes stipulated in the Law?
23. How do you view the support, commitment, encouragement and resources from the school, the District Educational Board, or other stakeholders after the release of the Law?
Appendix 3: Interview questions for principals

Interview Questions: Principal (QP)

Time and place of interview: ____________________________________________

Name: _________________________ School: _____________________________

Years of service: ______________

QUESTIONS

1. What is your opinion about teaching profession and its reward?
2. What factors do you think make a professional teacher in general and English teacher in particular?
3. Do you consider English teachers in your school as being professional? What, in your opinion, still needs improvement?
4. How do you assure and maintain the quality and professionalism of English teachers in your school?
5. In your opinion, what are the strengths and weaknesses of English language programs in your school?
6. What types of supervision, evaluation and appraisal supports are available in the school?
7. How do you view your leadership style in supporting staff members in this school?
8. What changes have you made so far since you became the leader of the school?
9. As a principal, how do you view teacher learning?
10. How do you view learning culture and professional academic culture in this school, particularly among your English teachers? For instance, how active are your teachers in joining seminars, reading academic textbooks, having discussions with other teachers or experts, doing research, writing and publishing?
11. What are your roles and responsibilities with regard to teacher learning and professional development programs?
12. What are the strengths and weaknesses of professional development programs in your school?
13. What is your opinion on English teachers’ association in the school and at the district level?
14. What kind of learning and/or training do you think your English teachers need most?
15. Will you encourage English teachers to do further studies? Why or why not, and how?
16. In your opinion, what makes teachers unwilling to participate in professional development programs?

17. What changes do you expect from your teachers after they participate in professional development programs?
18. What are your responses and opinions about Law Number 14/2005?
19. As a principal, what would be the impacts of the Law or your staff members?
20. What are your plans and strategies after the release of the Law?
21. How do you view the support, commitment, encouragement and resources from the school, the District Educational Board, or other stakeholders after the release of the Law?
Appendix 4: Interview questions for staff members of the English Department

Interview Questions: English Department Staff (QED)

Time and place of interview: ________________________________

Name: ___________________________ Position: ______________________________

Years of service: ________________

QUESTIONS

1. How has the English Department helped English teachers in Salatiga Municipality in terms of professional development activities?
2. How many activities have you conducted so far and how often?
3. How do you liaise with those schools?
4. What are the benefits of such activities for your department and for those teachers? Please explain.
5. What are the challenges, obstacles and tensions of conducting and hosting professional development activities?
6. What are your motivations of conducting professional development programs for those English teachers?
7. How do you normally select the topic of each activity?
8. How do you decide who should be the expert or resource person? What are the criteria of inviting such a person?
9. Do you normally have feedback from those teachers? Is there a follow-up based on the feedback?
10. Do teachers share their problems during the program?
11. How does your department help them in solving the problems?
12. Is there any coordination with the District Educational Board?
13. What are your future plans and strategies to provide further assistance for English teachers in Salatiga Municipality?
14. How much do you know about Law 14/2005?
Appendix 5: Interview questions for personnel at the District Education Office

Interview Questions: District Education Office (QDEO)

Time and place of interview: ____________________________________________

Name: __________________________ Position: ____________________________

QUESTIONS

1. What are the Board’s main roles, tasks and responsibilities?
2. How does the Board usually conduct coordination with schools in Salatiga?
3. How does the Board inform new policies, curriculum or any other changes to those schools?
4. What are the Board’s particular roles with regard to programs and activities carried out by the English teachers’ association?
5. How does the Board help teachers with regard to professional development programs for teachers?
6. Is there any difference in priority and treatment between public, private and Islamic schools?
7. How did the Board pass on the information about Law 14/2005?
8. What is your opinion about the Law?
9. What are the Board’s main duties with regard to Law 14/2005?
10. What has the Board done so far for teachers in Salatiga?
11. In general, how do you view teachers’ professionalism in this district? Do you think they are ready for certification?
12. Apart from the Educational Board, which stakeholder/s do you think can provide meaningful assistance for teachers in Salatiga?
Appendix 6: Interview questions for representative of the Teachers' Association

Interview Questions: Teachers' Association (QTA)

Time and place of interview: 

Name: ____________________ Position: ____________________

QUESTIONS

1. What are the Union's roles in general?
2. What has the Union done for teachers?
3. What has the Union done so far to inform its members about Law 14/2005?
4. What is your opinion about the Law?
5. What do you think about the implementation of the Law?
6. Do you think the government can bear the financial consequences of teacher certification once the Law is implemented?
7. What do you think about Indonesian teachers' professionalism?
Appendix 7: List of interviewed participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>School/Institution</th>
<th>Code</th>
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<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Mr. Semi</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>Public School 1</td>
<td>Pr/PS-S1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Ms. Cahya</td>
<td>Full-time teacher</td>
<td>Public School 1</td>
<td>Tr1/PS-S1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Ms. Ina</td>
<td>Full-time teacher</td>
<td>Public School 1</td>
<td>Tr2/PS-S1</td>
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<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Mr. Isa</td>
<td>Full-time teacher</td>
<td>Public School 1</td>
<td>Tr3/PS-S1</td>
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<td>5.</td>
<td>Ms. Nindi</td>
<td>Full-time teacher</td>
<td>Public School 1</td>
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<td>6.</td>
<td>Ms. Ria</td>
<td>Full-time teacher</td>
<td>Public School 1</td>
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<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Mr. Antok</td>
<td>Principal</td>
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<td>Pr/PS-S2</td>
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<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Mr. Nano</td>
<td>Full-time teacher</td>
<td>Public School 2</td>
<td>Tr1/PS-S2</td>
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<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Mr. Yosep</td>
<td>Full-time teacher</td>
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<td>Tr2/PS-S2</td>
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<td>10.</td>
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<td>11.</td>
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<td>13.</td>
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<td>14.</td>
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<td>Ms. Mara</td>
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<tr>
<td>39.</td>
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<tr>
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<td>41</td>
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<td>42</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Ms. Mari</td>
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<td>Mr. Sudi</td>
<td>Officer</td>
<td>District Education Office</td>
<td>Off/LEO</td>
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Appendix 8: Journal and reflection after fieldwork

JOURNAL AND REFLECTION AFTER FIELDWORK

Research Site

The site of my fieldwork is a town in Central Java, Indonesia, called Salatiga. There are a number of reasons why I chose Salatiga as my research site, namely:

- The access to schools in Salatiga would be relatively easy for a local like me, given I am already familiar with the town and have known some of the teachers in the schools that I would be visiting.
- The cost of conducting research in Salatiga was feasible for me. Even though I am sponsored by AusAID, I still had to bear some of the costs for my fieldwork. Therefore, doing research in my hometown was financially more realistic than conducting it elsewhere in Indonesia. This decision, I realise, came at a cost. Given Indonesia's diverse geographical, cultural, social, political, and economic backgrounds, the data would probably have been richer, more varied and more surprising had I conducted my research out of Salatiga, or even out of Java.
- Schooling in Salatiga pretty much depicts schooling in Indonesia in general, where you could find public schools, Islamic schools (Madrasah), faith-based private schools (mainly Islamic, Protestant, and Catholic), secular private schools, boarding schools, and the so-called alternative school.
Since decentralisation policy took place in 2001, each region became autonomous and was responsible for its own education matter. As a local, it made more sense for me to focus my study in my hometown; the results of which could hopefully give contribution for the betterment of education in the region.

I arrived in Indonesia on January 29th but could only reach Salatiga a week after my arrival. I was stuck in Jakarta, the capital city of Indonesia, due to the huge flood that struck the city for days. Upon my arrival in Salatiga, it took me around a week to prepare the necessary letters for liaising with the schools. As I still have my position as a lecturer at a university in Salatiga, I asked the dean of my faculty to write a formal letter for schools that I planned to visit.

**Pilot Study 1 and 2**

My research began when I made a visit to 2 elementary schools for my pilot studies. Again, I chose the schools on convenience basis - the access to those schools was easy and I have known some of the English teachers there. Both principals were very open and welcome, too. They allowed me to conduct my interviews with the English teachers. As well they were willing to be interviewed.

On February 21st, 2007, I came to Elementary School 1 for my first pilot study with a list of interview questions that I had prepared in Sydney. It took me around a week to conduct interviews with the principal and two English teachers. Actually there are 3 English teachers but one of them was not willing to participate on the ground that she was
new in the school and was still on probation. Based on my first pilot study, I learned that I had to revise and reword the questions. It turned out that some of the questions still needed clarification, some of them were redundant, and some were unnecessary and irrelevant. At the same time, the interviews also opened my eyes to important issues that I had not yet acknowledged in my initial list of questions.

After revising the question items, I then visited Elementary School 2 to again test my questions. This time I talked with 4 English teachers. There are 6 English teachers in this school and all were actually willing to participate. However, due to time constraint and schedule conflict, I only managed to interview 4 of them. The second pilot study, again, gave me some insights. Based on Pilot Study 2, I revisited the question items and made some revision and addition. The second pilot study also took me around a week to finish. The pilot studies ended in the first week of March 2007.

While in the process of revising my interview questions, I did manage to see some staff members of the English Department of Satya Wacana Christian University. They were, at various stages, in charge of professional development programs held by the department for all English teachers in Salatiga. Unlike with the principals and English teachers during my pilot studies, my interviews with the English Department staff members were more open-ended. I had prepared a list of questions beforehand, though. In addition, I also ended up having a brief chat with the Dean of the English Department with regard to professional development programs that the department has been conducting so far. This was on-the-spot decision, which I did after my probes with the staff members. I particularly wanted to see the roles of the Dean as the main coordinator of such programs.
During my visit at the English Department, I also talked to several senior lecturers about my research. From them I had very useful inputs regarding my choice of schools. One useful suggestion that they gave me was that I should investigate whether or not there are differences of professionalism at different levels of schooling, i.e. between junior secondary level and senior secondary one.

The research project

After finishing Pilot Study 1 and 2, it took me around a week to make final preparation before going into the 'real' field. I began my study on Tuesday, March 13th, 2007. My last interviews took place on April 16th.

My first intention was to visit 16 schools, 8 schools for each level. There are 10 senior high schools and around 20 junior high schools in Salatiga. For each level, I initially planned to visit 3 public schools, 1 Islamic school (*Madrasah*), 1 Protestant school, 1 Catholic school, 1 Islamic school, and 1 secular private school – making up 16 schools in total. All types of schools used to be available in Salatiga. However, I then found out that the only secular junior high school in town was closed down the year before due to low intake. Because of this, I opted for a different type of school, i.e. a newly-founded Islamic boarding school whose students are refugees (male and orphaned) from troubled areas in Indonesia, such as Poso, Timor and Maluku. I was tempted to do a deeper study about this school since I later found out that most of the students boarded there were somehow 'forced' to convert to Islam despite their non-Islamic backgrounds. However, I realised that this is such a sensitive issue - a dangerous zone to enter for a
female Christian researcher like myself. After all, my study is about English teacher professionalism, and not about the aftermaths of some religious and political conflicts in the country. However tempting and challenging, I had to restrain myself not to cross the line.

In addition to those 16 schools, I also decided to visit the so-called alternative school. I did not plan to visit the school at first, yet I decided to because I have heard stories about how this particular school made significant contribution to education in the area and how it became famous nation-wide, and even world-wide (e.g. the stories about this school were published in many recognised newspapers). In a nutshell, the Indonesian type of alternative school is run based on home schooling system of education, whose major aim is to provide life-skills education for students who come from low-economic background, and whose curriculum is so student-centered teachers are merely learning partners and appreciators. This type of school is still a rarity in Indonesia and apparently the one established in Salatiga is the pioneer of such schooling.

In total I visited 2 schools for my pilot studies and 17 schools for the real study. I talked to 2 principals and 6 English teachers during pilot studies, and to 17 principals and 46 English teachers for the real research. In addition, I interviewed 6 staff members of the English Department of Satya Wacana University (the Dean of the faculty and 5 lecturers). As well I talked to one personnel from the educational board and the head of teachers' professional organisation in Salatiga. I did not plan to interview the head of the union in the first place. The decision came after my interviews with the principals and teachers. Based on my interviews with them, I found out that the best person to talk to regarding
the new Law on teacher professionalism was the head of the organisation. He knew about
the issue more than any principals or teachers in Salatiga.

**Doing fieldwork as a local: a reflection**

As someone who is originally from Salatiga, I expected that doing research in my
country would be easier and more convenient. However, experiences from the field
sometimes taught me otherwise. Nevertheless, I gained a lot of insightful experiences,
met old friends and acquaintances as well as making new friends, and experiencing nice
coincidences that somehow opened the doors to those schools that I planned to visit.
There were schools that I wish I could have helped more, but at the same time there were
places that I wish I would never visit again!

It may sound cliché but dealing with Indonesian bureaucracy is always
annoyingly painful. As a local, I expected that I could cut short the bureaucracy line
through my connections and some sort of nepotism. Yet it was not always the case. In
some cases, I did manage to use personal connections to gain access to schools. For
instance, my access to the biggest and most well-known public school in Salatiga was
made easier by my sister who happens to be the only Mandarin teacher in the school.
Similarly, entering the poorest school in town (which, at the time of my study, was at the
point of closure) was not difficult as the headmistress is my aunt’s long-time customer;
she is her dressmaker. The nicest surprise came to me when the principal of the second
biggest public school in Salatiga turns out to be my supervisor’s long-lost friend. Rumour
has it that he is quite a difficult person and very bureaucratic, and that once he did not
give a permission to a researcher who wanted to interview him. Because he found out through me the whereabouts of my supervisor, he was very warm and welcome. I had no problem whatsoever entering his school.

In other cases, I did have problems with bureaucratic -but sometimes unnecessary- people and systems (usually in public schools). For example, in some public schools I often had to follow 3 steps before finally seeing the principal. First, I had to report myself to the security officer regarding who I wanted to meet and why. Second, the security officer would show me the way to the administration office where I was asked to fill in a guest book and show them the formal letter. Third, while I was asked to wait in the administration office, someone would then bring the book and the letter to the principal’s office. I usually had to wait around 15 minutes before I was finally allowed to see the principal. Once I was reprimanded by an administrative staff member because I forgot to fill in the guest book; instead, I went to the principal’s office directly.

There were other experiences in the field that I probably found annoying but that helped me grow as a researcher. Principals and teachers cancelling or postponing their appointments were very common during my study. There were also times when I got stood up; I was left in the administration office without anyone telling me what happened to the principal or where the principal was. Rescheduling appointments often happened, as did last-minute cancellation. There were times when, instead of doing our interviews as we had agreed before, those principals and teachers asked my academic help or sought information on how to get scholarships to study overseas. Those experiences in the field did make me a better researcher; I became more flexible, I could adjust myself more easily to different situations, and I was more careful and diplomatic when speaking to
different types of people. As well I learned how to lend my ears to those educational practitioners whose voices were often unheard. Above all, I also learned that your prejudices and assumptions were not always right. Although a local, I must admit that I had never had any contacts with Islamic schools in Salatiga. It was my study that brought me there. At first I was quite nervous and concerned to visit Islamic schools given I am female and from Christian background. I was worried that they made me wear a veil to enter their schools. I was really careful of not offering my hands first when I encountered male principals/teachers in Islamic schools. It turned out I was wrong. They were all very open and it was them who offered their hands first. They did not impose any dressing codes either. One principal expressed his thanks because I conducted my study there. He said it was very unusual and he was happy because ‘finally his school was being recognised by a researcher’.

Doing my interviews with educational practitioners, particularly with teachers and principals, has opened my eyes to view the complexity and confusion of education systems in Indonesia. Talking with them made me able to relate the particulars and day-to-day realities found in schools with the bigger picture of education in the country, and the importance of both.
Appendix 9: Data summary and preliminary analysis after fieldwork

Brief summary of data and preliminary analysis after fieldwork

Principals

Based on interviews with 17 principals on issues related to teachers' professionalism and certification, there are various issues that can be further addressed and analysed in the thesis. Those issues, among other things, are principals' leadership types, perspectives on professionalism in general, critical views on teachers' professionalism, responses on Law 14/2005, and future plans for English language programs and their teachers. With regard to leadership types for instance, preliminary findings suggest that there are different leadership types. In general, they can be summarised as follows:

- **Visionary Leader**

  This type of leader is not many. In the context of Indonesian education schooling, a visionary leader is probably someone who sets high goals in order for his/her school to score well in the standardised national examination, to become a top ranking school in the region and province, and to become an international-standard school. Undoubtedly, such a leader sees the importance of English language program and teachers. Principals belonging to this category are usually those who are leading favourite public schools. Such schools usually have the privilege to select their intake thus they do not have to struggle with students with
low motivation and achievement. Teachers in such schools, as a result, are also perceived as being ‘professional’ as their success is almost always measured by the high percentage of students passing the standardized national examination.

- Reluctant Leader

This type of leader usually comes from private schools. Unlike principals from public schools whose positions are sometimes political — and in some cases can involve money politics - principals from private schools are chosen among staff members in the schools. It is as if teachers are taking turns in resuming the leadership position. Such a system leads to the emergence of the so-called reluctant leader, i.e. someone who becomes a leader because he/she has to and not because he/she wants to, or because other staff members have already held the position before. Based on the interviews, some principals in private schools admitted that they did not have the qualities as a leader and found it hard to smoothly change their role as a colleague to a role as a leader or school manager.

- God-sent Leader

Principals from religious schools belong to this category; they see their leadership duties as God’s calling to serve others, particularly the marginalised. While the privileged and smart students are being looked after by public schools or expensive private schools, it is their job to look after the underachievers. Thus, such a leader will attribute teachers’ professionalism to teachers’ dedication and commitment rather than high scores in the national examination for instance.
• 'The 4B Phenomenon' Leader

Teachers who are public servants and who have reached the '4B' rank in their career can apply to become school principals. It usually takes them between 15-25 years to climb to this career rank and once there, it is often the case that they no longer want to do more teaching and want to embark in a new career as a leader. This type of leader, unfortunately, does not necessarily possess qualities required to manage and lead a school. Interviews with some teachers suggest that such a leader usually lacks management qualities, is bureaucratic, and is distant from staff members because he/she is originally not from the school where he/she is currently posted. An interview with one principal from a private school also suggests that principal positions in public schools are vulnerable to money politics and collusion and nepotism - sometimes it is not the case of 'the right person will get the job' but rather 'the person with the 'right friends in higher places' will get the job'.

• 'Outside the system' Leader

This is probably the extreme type of school leadership and is very rare in Indonesia. Such a leader is against all education bureaucracy and has a strong view that education is different from schooling and that the latter merely focuses on students' success. This sort of school leader therefore gives as much freedom as possible to teachers to conduct their activities – no control or supervision takes place. In addition, teachers working in this school do not necessarily have to hold any academic or teaching qualifications. The heart of ideal education, according to such a leader, is the willingness for teachers and students to learn from each
other and to grow together, and to appreciate their success as well as their failures. For him/her, teachers’ professionalism is merely another discourse in education constructed and distributed by the state – the same state that fails to provide equal education for all. In the study, there is only one leader that falls into this category.

**Teachers**

There were 46 English teachers interviewed in this study. Based on preliminary analysis of their interviews, English teachers can be divided into the following categories:

- **The young and the restless**
  These are the young English teachers who just entered the education world – young, single, and still live with their parents. Most of the teachers belonging to this category are known for their enthusiasm, diligence, confidence and high energy. However, at the same time they are also naïve and think they will never experience the downs of teaching profession. Another characteristic among the young and restless teachers is their obliviousness of any education policies. Their professionalism should not be hindered by policy texts or educational bureaucracy; their first love to the teaching profession and their students should define their professionalism instead. Based on the interviews, the teachers usually work for private and religious schools.

- **The high-spirited**
  The high-spirited teachers are those who have been in the profession for more than 10 years but who can still keep their optimism and passion for teaching high
even though the state and system have probably failed or disappointed them. These are also the people who are still eager to learn, formally and non-formally, to enhance their professionalism. The teachers in this category, unlike the young and the restless, are no longer in the ‘euphoria state’ of their teaching profession. They are more realistic and able to cope with their disappointment of the educational system and bureaucracy. As well as trying to continuously meet the formal requirements to be professional teachers (as defined by the national policy), they are also trying to redefine the meaning of their own professionalism according to the conditions of their schools.

- **The public servants in waiting**

These are young English teachers who are either waiting for their permanent posts or are still in the process of application to become public servants. They are usually employed as part-time teachers in public schools. Interviews with some of the teachers belonging in this category suggest that the reason behind their choice was the guarantee of financial and job security. Although most of the public servants in waiting are still young, enthusiastic and energetic, some of them do express their concerns that they might lose their passion and idealism once they are fully employed as civil servants – that they will merely be robots of the state policies.

- **The spiritual**

The spiritual teachers are those who believe that teaching is a virtuous act on earth that will earn them a place in heaven. They see teaching duties as being
ministerial, and not for earning money. It is almost obvious that teachers working for faith-based schools belong to this category.

- **The weary**
  The weary teachers are very common in the study. These are the teachers who have been working for years and are so exhausted with the mandated changes and policies they become skeptical and reluctant to change. For them, waiting for the better future for teachers as promised by the government is like waiting for Godot. Such teachers only want to do what they are supposed to be doing but see no reasons (or rewards) to walk an extra mile.

- **The idealistic**
  The idealistic teachers are those who are certain they can make a difference in their students' lives without worrying about the educational bureaucracies, policies, curriculum, or standardisation. In many aspects, they are like the young and the restless teachers except for the fact that they do not want to work inside the system. The idealistic teachers work for the so-called alternative school led by the 'outside the system' leader.

**The University**

There is only one university in the area which continuously conducts the so-called professional development programs for English teachers for free. Interviews with teachers and principals reveal that all of them appreciate the work done by the university. Most of them agree that the professional development programs aimed at all English
teachers in Salatiga are helpful—they help broaden English teachers’ repertoire at best and strengthen the network among English teachers at least. Some teachers, however, express their concerns over the choice of topics and activities for such programs; they are sometimes irrelevant, complicated, unrealistic, and difficult for them to apply in class.

Interviews with the English Department staff members suggest that what they do for those teachers is not such an altruistic act; it is an act to meet the three obligations set up by the government for all higher education institutions in the country. In order for staff members of universities in Indonesia to continue to exist, they must perform three tasks: educating and distributing knowledge, conducting academic research, and conducting community service. The professional development programs that the English Department organises are indeed to fulfill the last requirement. As a result, what is presented for the teachers during the programs sometimes does not match with what they really need. In addition, whoever is delivering the professional development program is not selected based on their areas of expertise; he/she is selected based on which staff member badly needs credit points for community service for the sake of their promotion. The interviews also reveal that the English Department never has any coordination with the schools or other important stakeholders, the Educational Board for instance, before organising such professional development activities. As a result, it is often the case that many teachers cannot attend the event because of schedule conflicts.
Professional organisations for educators are very few in Indonesia. The biggest organization for teachers is the Indonesian Teachers' Association (PGRI), and is usually linked to the New Order Regime. It was an organisation under the former President Soeharto's ruling party at that time (Golkar party). It was a must for public servants to join this organisation but it was not compulsory for educational practitioners from private institutions. However, an interview with the head of the organisation in the region revealed that the organisation has been reformed and it is now open for any people working in the education field (principals, teachers, and administration staff). It is no longer an organisation exclusive for public servants.

The head of the professional organisation expressed his strong view regarding the release of Law number 14/2005 on teacher professionalism. For one thing he believes that the Law provides financial and legal security for education practitioners – something that was absent for year. In addition, he also believes it is high time Indonesian teachers, particularly public servants, acted and performed their teaching duties more professionally.

The role of the professional organisation, among other things, is lobbying the government to amend some of the chapters in the Law which are either not realistic or contradictory with other policies. For example, one of the requirements for teachers who want to obtain certification is that they have to at least perform face-to-face teaching duties for 24 hours per week. This clause is contradictory with that contained in the new curriculum. The new curriculum, as a matter of fact, reduces teaching hours to less than
24 hours a week. The condition is even worse for teachers working in schools with small number of students and for those who do not teach English, Indonesian, Science, and Mathematics. The professional organisation, therefore, will provide support and assistance for teachers and other educational practitioners who are disadvantaged by the Law.
## Appendix 10: Sample of coded documents

<table>
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<th>Quoted chunks</th>
<th>Source of document</th>
<th>Emerging theme/s</th>
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<tr>
<td>Pendidik dan tenaga kependidikan berkewajiban: menciptakan suasana pendidikan yang bermakna, menyenangkan, kreatif, dinamis, dialogis [Educators and members of teaching staff are obliged: to create learning environment which is meaningful, fun, creative, dynamic, and full of dialogues]</td>
<td>Undang-Undang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional Nomor 20/2003 Bab, Pasal 40, ayat 2a [Law of the National Education System number 20 of 2003, Part 9, Chapter 40, Verse 2a]</td>
<td>(1) Teacher autonomy vs. standardised examination; (2) Ideal teaching-learning process vs. standardised examination; (3) Ideal teaching-learning process vs. lack of resources &amp; facilities</td>
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<td>Kedudukan guru dan dosen sebagai tenaga professional bertujuan untuk melaksanakan sistem pendidikan nasional dan mewujudkan tujuan pendidikan nasional, yaitu berkembangnya potensi peserta didik agar menjadi manusia yang beriman dan bertakwa kepada Tuhan Yang Maha Esa, berakhlak mulia, sehat, berilmu, cakap, kreatif, mandiri, serta menjadi warga Negara yang demokratis dan bertanggung jawab [The recognised position of teachers and lecturers as professionals aims at conducting the national education system and accomplishing the goals of the national education, namely to develop learners’ potentials to become faithful, ethical, healthy, learned, skilled, creative, independent, democratic and responsible citizens]</td>
<td>Undang-Undang Nomor 14/2005 Bab 2, Pasal 6 [Law Number 14 of 2005, Part 2, Chapter 6]</td>
<td>Teachers’ tasks (broad) vs. standardised examination</td>
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<td>Proses pembelajaran pada satuan pendidikan diselenggarakan secara interaktif, inspiratif, menyenangkan, menantang, memotivasi peserta didik untuk berpartisipasi aktif, serta memberikan ruang yang cukup bagi prakarsa, kreativitas dan kemandirian sesuai dengan bakat, minat, dan perkembangan fisik serta psikologis peserta didik [Learning process should be conducted in interactive, inspiring, fun, and challenging manners; it should motivate learners to actively participate during the process and should give opportunities for learners to be initiative, creative and independent in accordance with the learners’ talents, interests, and physical and psychological developments]</td>
<td>Peraturan Pemerintah Nomor 19/2005 tentang Standar Nasional Pendidikan, Bab 4, Pasal 19, Ayat 1 [Government Regulation Number 19 of 2005, Chapter 4, Part 19, Verse 1]</td>
<td>(1) Ideal teaching-learning process vs. Standardised examination; (2) Ideal teaching-learning process vs. lack of resources &amp; facilities</td>
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### Appendix 11: Sample of Free nodes

#### Free Nodes

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# Appendix 12: Sample of Tree nodes

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Appendix 13: Sample of original interview utterances

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<td>Mr. Nano of Public School 2</td>
<td>'To be honest, teaching was never my goal – I’m never really into teaching, even now. I became a teacher because I desperately needed a job at that time. I graduated in 1997 and business was no good due to the monetary crisis so I decided to apply for a position as a public servant; I passed the tests and here I am now. But my interest was more on business than education'</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>'Sebetulnya arah waktu saya belajar waktu di Satya dulu itu saya sebetulnya pengin masuk ke dunia wira usaha,ya. Dengan modal bahasa begitu. Kemudian karena situasi waktu itu, waktu saya lulus tahun 97, kan pas krismon. Terus akhirnya orientasi untuk cari kerja di swasta akhirnya tipis sekali. Akhirnya karena saya dari jurusan Bhs Inggris saya ngajar juga. Sempat ngelesi dan sempat masuk ke kursusan. Sekali lagi, dulu itu karena masalah uang cepat istilahnya. Akhirnya saya pernah ditawari jadi guru kontrak. Terus akhirnya ikut tes PNS. Ternyata diterima. Nyemplung sekalian akhirnya. Padahal ngajar itu bukan cita-cita saya pada mulanya.'</td>
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<td>Ms. Nindi of Public School 1</td>
<td>'I chose this profession because as a woman I realised that one day I’d get married and have kids. By becoming a teacher, I would have a lot of time for my family. For example, if my kids are on holidays, so am I.'</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>'Yah, pada awalnya saya memilih profesi guru karena saya merasa sebagai wanita nantinya kita akan menikah to. Nah, sebagai guru itu kita masih punya banyak waktu luang untuk keluarga. Guru liburnya bisa sama dengan anak-anak. Itu dulu mengapa saya ingin menjadi guru. Tapi sekarang saya semakin senang mengajar, kok.'</td>
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<td>Ms. Atun of Public School 6</td>
<td>'What I'm getting is enough given the fact that my performance is not that good. I consider myself as a ‘lazy’ teacher so I’m happy enough with the salary and other incentives that I get every month.'</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>'Ya..kalo bagi saya pribadi sudah cukup, ya. Ini karena saya mengakui bahwa kinerja saya belum bisa dikatakan bagus. Saya ini kan termasuk guru yang maleis. Memang harus diakui kemampuan saya sebagai guru memang terbatas, jadi apa yang saya terima sekarang ini rasanya sudah cukup.'</td>
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