

TABLE OF CONTENT

Foreword. [ii]

ABBAS MADANDAR ARANI, LIDA KAKIA & BATOL MOAZANI,
*A Comparative Study of Muslim and Western Pedagogues' Educational Perspectives:
Contextualization of Comparative Education as a University's Discipline.* [111-118]

YAYAT SUDARYAT,
The Interpretation of Sundanese Educational Philosophy in Traditional Idiomatic Expressions. [119-128]

AJIT MONDAL & JAYANTA METE,
Education for Peace in the Light of National Curriculum Framework – 2005. [129-136]

SUWARTONO,
Student's Voices in Reflective Suprasegmental Features Pronunciation Teaching. [137-144]

THAER ISSA TAWALBEH,
*Teaching-Learning Challenges Facing Students of English in the Preparatory Year
at the Taif University, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.* [145-160]

ROSIDA TIURMA MANURUNG, DADANG SUGANDA & DAVIDESCU CRISTIANA,
Negative Labeling towards Teachers as Expression of Violence in Modern Literature. [161-168]

MINH-QUANG DUONG,
*A Comparison of Factors Influencing the Job Satisfaction among Academic Members
of the University of Technology and the University of Science in Vietnam.* [169-178]

EKO PRIYANTO,
*Improving Democratic Values in Civic Education Learning through Grouped-Discussion Method
for the Students in Higher Education Institution.* [179-188]

FUNGAI HAMILTON MUDZENERERE & EDMORE MBOKOCHENA,
*The Delicate Dropping of Religious Studies at Ordinary Level by Students
in High Density Urban Schools of Harare, Zimbabwe.* [189-198]

Info-edu-tainment. [199-206]

FOREWORD



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

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

As the Rector of UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java, Indonesia, kindly allow me to convey several things which will be the part of commitment and big work of UMP in revealing the World Class University. First, in academic level, nowadays UMP has 11 Faculties and 1 Post-Graduate Program with details as follow: 3 (three) Diploma Study Program III (D III), 25 (twenty five) Bachelor Degree Program (S-1), 1 Post-Graduate Program (S-2), and 2 (two) Profession Program. Dealing with the competition of higher education in national and international also by considering the rapid development of knowledge, technology, and culture, we believe that in 10 years forward the number of study program either S-1 or S-2 in UMP will be developed and increased. Related to the presence of new study program in the future, it is in line with the commitment of UMP to answer the society's need in terms of academic superiority and professional graduates of UMP.

Second, as cited in the vision and mission, UMP is determined in preparing the qualified, excellent, professional, entrepreneur minded and Islamic graduates through modern education and independence in its science discipline in which it is fully supported by information technology and communication. It is also accompanied by the system of quality assurance which is held by the Institution of Quality Assurance in UMP. UMP applies conducive, interactive and Islamic learning concept between lecturers and students. It is also supported by academicians teaching staffs and practitioners who have competence and experience in each field; well-acknowledged university graduates in Indonesia and overseas which have a high commitment in each knowledge discipline. UMP also has representative classes and labs with good quality of facilities. As the result, the optimal and conducive teaching and learning atmosphere could be established. The students will also have opportunity to apply their knowledge and skill in various institutions and companies in which it will increase the students' ability either in hard skill or soft skill which will be the promising get a job after graduation.

Third, as the Muhammadiyah (followers of the Prophet Muhammad) university, UMP will definitely make serious effort in supporting the mission: "Making UMP as the center of excellence within the region ('uswahhasanah' or center of superiority) in terms of education, research, and service toward society and also as the driving force of religious proselytizing and 'Tajdid Muhammadiyah' which traverse time to create the real Islamic society and to give inspiration along with contribution in educating and brighten nation's life".

Referring to the mission, superiorities can be briefly formulated in which those are needed to be grown by all "Civitas Academica" in UMP. The superiorities are critical thinking, creativeness, willingness to increase knowledge concept and research aptitude, open minded upon diversities in serving excitement toward students and society. In addition, it can be added as expanding the Islamic tenets as "rahmatan lil-'alamin". Especially, I do realize that the lecturers of UMP really need to increase the spirit of researching, writing, and publishing the result of the research in various scientific forums either in journal or in international scientific conference.

Fourth, the commitment to provide scholarships for students is still be the main focus of UMP. For students who have achievements in several fields such as science, sport, and culture as the first winner, 1st runner up, 2nd runner up in province and national level, UMP will gives scholarship opportunity and learning facilities. The achievements which have been accomplished by UMP during 2012-2013 are reported by students' advisory with the detail, one of them is as follow: 1st winner of Short Story Creation in Sultan Ageng Tirtayasa University, Banten, West Java, Indonesia, on behalf of Irfan M. Nugroho; and 3rd Winner Talented Students Championship in Central Java Province Level, on behalf of Arini Syarifah.

Fifth, make serious effort in varied corporations in realizing UMP vision and mission. In the process of educating and brighten national's life, UMP's goal to produce qualified graduates can only be realized through corporations either with internal or external side of UMP.

Finally, those are things which will be the commitment and big work of UMP in realizing the goal to be World Class University (WCU). It is hoped that by publishing the EDUCARE journal, UMP can produce qualified writers by showing accountability in lecturers' research, increasing ability and culture to make a research by writing and publishing journal. This EDUCARE journal can be a model to guide Study Program's journals which have not been accredited and publish the result of the research in international journal publisher.

I would like to give gratitude toward all staffs and sides which have worked very hard for arranging the EDUCARE journal. Hopefully, all efforts and patience can bring our goal in reality. Final words, may Allah SWT bring easiness and strength in every step in our life.

*Do enjoy reading the EDUCARE journal and hopefully you will derive much benefit from it. Wassalamu'alaikum Wr. Wbr. (peace be also upon you). **Dr. Haji Syamsuhadi Irsyad**, Rector of UMP.*

ABBAS MADANDAR ARANI, LIDA KAKIA & BATOL MOAZANI

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF MUSLIM AND WESTERN PEDAGOGUES' EDUCATIONAL PERSPECTIVES: CONTEXTUALIZATION OF COMPARATIVE EDUCATION AS A UNIVERSITY'S DISCIPLINE

ABSTRACT: During the two recent decades, the world has witnessed that regional conflicts are increasing because of the type of relationships among civilizations. Most of these conflicts have been resulted from political, social, and economical relations among Muslim countries and Western countries at the Middle East. In such a situation, for reducing millions of people's sufferings, educational systems and especially higher education system surely play a vital role. Higher education system, through developing humanities-related disciplines, could increase levels of common understanding among intellectuals of the involved societies. On this score, comparative education has the power to encourage hearing other cultures out and international mutual understanding among people round the globe through educational system. Unfortunately, comparative education as a university discipline has not developed considerably at higher education systems in the Middle East countries. The present paper, first, tries to briefly explore the present situation of comparative education science in the region and, then, through comparing educational viewpoints of three Muslim pedagogues: Al-Farabi, Avicenna, and Al-Ghazali; and three famous educators of the West world: John Locke, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, and John Dewey, demonstrate the possibilities of developing comparative education science as a university discipline in the Middle East. The comparisons between Muslim educators and their counterparts in the West, however, made in this paper have bilateral benefits.

KEY WORDS: Comparative education, educational perspective, Muslim, Middle East, pedagogues, Western, higher education system, and understanding.

INTRODUCTION

Following many Western countries, a historical description of comparative education exists in many societies. This description forms a public identity to prove that many logical and comprehensive attempts have been made to understand educational systems during the ages. This is an interesting subject to indicate those who have tried to make a precise survey of educational system. Some of these histories appear in travelogues and some others in disquisitions and printed books.

This is the case that the former President of the World Council of Comparative Education

Societies, in inspecting improving movement of the discipline, elaborates on a traditional type of philosophical and literary thesis writing and also reminisces about some pioneers of the field (Wilson, 2003). To our surprise, D.N. Wilson (2003) names thinkers such as Herodotus, Xenophon, and Aristotle, and only Ibn Khaldon from the world of Islam, the one who is popular as a sociologist rather than an educator (*cf* Oweiss, 1988; and Enan, 2007).

The fact that great Muslim educators have not been mentioned reminds us that many researchers of the field all around the world may not know them as properly as possible.

Dr. Abbas Madandar Arani is an Assistant Professor at the Department of Education LU (Lorestan University) in Iran; **Mrs. Lida Kakia** is a Ph.D. Student in Comparative Education at SU (Sofia University) in Bulgaria and at present works as a Teacher Counselor at different schools in Tehran, Iran; and **Mrs. Batol Moazani** is M.A. (Master of Arts) in Islam History and at present works as a Teacher at different schools in Tehran, Iran. The authors can be contacted via their e-mails at: rie2000@gmail.com and lida.kakia@gmail.com

On the other hand, Comparative Education (CE) discipline is still in embryo in many Islamic countries. Hence, it seems to be a mutual responsibility to establish and develop the discipline in Islamic world to explicate both its existing role among Muslim countries, and its position in developing international understandings.

As far as its first mission is concerned, it should be pointed out that CE, in spite of attempts made by many researchers in recent decades, is still deeply influenced by the old tradition of writing philosophical and literary disquisitions. For example, although CE as an academic discipline is still not familiar even for many educated people in Iran, few people might be found who are not heard of educational ideas of Al-Farabi, Al-Ghazali, Sadi, Avicenna, Hafiz, Rumi, and Nasir Khosrow. It is completely understandable that their ideas and educational teachings, after such a long time of a few centuries, are yet informative and invigorating for Iranians. The lifestyle of these people who already have been considered as intellectual thinkers and sophisticated teachers can still be viewed as proper models for all teachers and students in Islamic world (Nofal, 1993).

Iranian comparativists, studying the lives and works of these educators, will not only explicate the position of the discipline in Iranian higher education system, but help the Iranian youth in exploring their identities (Rajaei, 2003). In addition, the works of each one of these educators can function as a rich source for explicating the very existing of CE in the Islamic world. CE, through analyzing and comparing educational views of these scholars with that of great educators such as Kant, Pestalozzi, Rousseau, Locke, and Dewey, shows that Muslims and Iranians have already benefited from very rich intellectual and educational sources.

It is one of the responsibilities of CE researchers to survey the history of education with no dogmatism. Hence, as said by one of the present writers, Abbas Madandar Arani (2003), the development of a Regional Comparative Education seems to be necessary. In fact, ideas of these Muslim scholars can contribute in the establishment of "Regional

Comparative Education Association" in the Middle East countries. The reason for such an association is their religious similarities and also the fact that they have written their books and disquisitions both in Arabic (main language for Arab countries) and Persian (for people of Iran, Afghanistan, Tajikistan, and some parts of Pakistan, India, and Turkmenistan).

Unfortunately, a quick study reveals that Muslim countries have not made use of this rich intellectual source in order to establish and develop different educational programs (Bachelor, Master, and Ph.D.) in the field of CE. For example, Turkey is the only country in the Middle East in which a comparative education society has been founded. Iran and Saudi Arabia have CE program at Master's degree in a university each and the condition is even worse in other countries; B.A. students should pass a 2 or 3-credited course in the field of CE.

The second responsibility assigned to CE in Muslim countries can be analyzed based on R. Cowen's analysis and interpretations of academic atmosphere (Cowen, 1996 and 2000). Having considered a set of mainly political incidents during 1960-1990, R. Cowen coins the term "Read the Global" and shows the way in which scientific controversies and debates are being carried out in higher educational centers and universities.

Therefore, the writers of the present paper, based on the R. Cowen's analysis, believe that the common interpretations of scientific issues in the first decade of the 21st century affected by incidents like the attacks on September 11th, 2001, war in Afghanistan and Iraq as well as different terrorist attacks around the world might be considered as an analysis of the "Relationships between Civilizations". Most of these conflicts have occurred in the Middle East based on economic, social, and political relationships between Muslim countries and the West (Al-Harhi, 2007).

In such a situation, educational systems in general and higher education in particular would have a crucial responsibility in relieving people's sufferings. Higher education can increase a common understanding among educated people in involved societies by

developing humanities programs. So, it would be no more difficult to predict the mission of CE in this regard (Grant, 2000). CE has the capability to hear the voice of other cultures and to increase an international mutual understanding among people in the world through educational system. This might be considered an important CE mission.

The discipline can help us understand each other more deeply (Sepehri & Madandar Arani, 2007). Using great Muslim educators' books and disquisitions and comparing their ideas with that of famous international educators would be a good initiation for this recent mission. This way, common grounds between civilizations would be revealed and also unwelcome phenomenon such as "Islam phobia" would be avoided (Allen & Nielsen, 2002).

CE researchers in the Middle East, in deed, are supposed to make their best attempts to explain the point that human beings disregarding their nationalities and other differences are idealist people who seek to grow and rise. We do believe that recognition is the introduction to mutual understanding and CE, more than any other academic discipline, is able to bridge the gap between different civilizations and cultures (Madandar Arani & Abbasi, 2007).

Considering the above discussion, the present paper tries to give a brief comparison between the ideas of three Muslim thinkers with that of three great international educators to show the extent to which CE might have the capabilities to develop into an academic discipline with a crucial responsibility in Muslim countries.

A BRIEF COMPARISON OF THE LIVES OF AL-FARABI, AVICENNA, AND AL-GHAZALI WITH JOHN LOCKE, JEAN-JACQUES ROUSSEAU, AND JOHN DEWEY

Al-Farabi, Avicenna, and Al-Ghazali lived in the 9th, 10th, and 12th centuries respectively; while John Locke, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, and John Dewey spent most of their lives in the 17th, 18th, and 20th centuries. The existence of lots of similarities between ideas and educational views of these educators makes

us ask ourselves if they had been ahead of their time and if education in general moves so slowly that in spite of passing the time the speeches made by these great educators never would lose their freshness, vigour, and enthusiasm.

A quick study of family backgrounds of these thinkers shows that Al-Ghazali and Jean-Jacques Rousseau belonged to the poor class people; and Al-Farabi, Avicenna, John Locke, and John Dewey were among middle class people. Nevertheless, they spent most of their lives in service of upper classes and authorities, except John Dewey. Occupationally speaking, Al-Farabi played the role of a consultant for the governor, Avicenna was a minister, Al-Ghazali became the university chancellor, John Locke was a tutor and also held a high governmental position, Jean-Jacques Rousseau was a homeless rebellion, and John Dewey was a respected university teacher.

Al-Farabi died when he was just 53 (the youngest) and John Dewey lived for 93 years (the oldest), yet they both experienced a similar calm and riot-free life. Exile, imprisonment, and burning their books by the enemies and escape from hometown, are the inseparable part of life of Avicenna, Al-Ghazali, John Locke, and Jean-Jacques Rousseau. Undoubtedly, although Jean-Jacques Rousseau is the greatest educator among these thinkers, he must be known as the unluckiest one. Based on his ideas and recorded works, Jean-Jacques Rousseau was discontented with his society and considered it a corrupt society (Boyd, 1963).

Al-Farabi, Al-Ghazali, and John Locke were misanthrope and cloistered themselves (*cf* Fakhry, 2002; and Zarinkob, 2004). Avicenna was also seeking for such an opportunity while he never arrived at. John Dewey, criticizing the thought procedure, the practice of education and also proposing the relationship between democracy and education, had a critical view towards the society (Westbrook, 1991).

Hence, all these educators can be renowned as the "Reformists" of their time. In spite of many similarities between these educators, their large-scale impacts and reputations vary from one another. The three Muslim educators are native Iranians, were born in the eastern

part of the country and wrote their books in Persian and Arabic (Almasi, 1998). In the world of Islam, Al-Farabi, because of his vast knowledge in logic, philosophy, music, and politics is recognized as *the Second Teacher*, after Aristotle, called as *the First Teacher*. Many researchers have mentioned him as the first Muslim philosopher (*cf* Al-Talbi, 1993).

Ordinary people, because of the stories heard about Avicenna, knew him as the most skillful physician of his time, while he has been a great philosopher for the educated people. Avicenna's philosophical ideas made him unique not only in the world of Islam but also in the West. The compilation of Christian religious argumentations by Albert the Great, and particularly Thomas Aquinas, was greatly influenced by fundamental teachings of Avicenna (Halabi, 1980).

There are a lot of similarities between Al-Ghazali and Jean-Jacques Rousseau, perhaps more than the others. Al-Ghazali was a grand rebel like Jean-Jacques Rousseau. Escaping from school and secluding himself, he takes the responsibility of refining the religion from incorrect ideas. There is a known story about his seclusion. It is said that once Al-Ghazali dwelled in a mosque for a short time as a sweeper in Damascus, Syria. One day, he noticed that a group of seminarians were harshly debating on an issue and each of them was attributing his own idea to "Imam Mohammad" Al-Ghazali.

In order to settle their controversy, Al-Ghazali explained the issue in detail and solved their problem. Their surprise and astonishment in how could an old man in tattered clothes explicate such a complex problem gave him away. Al-Ghazali who wanted to get rid of seminarians, the lessons and the school move to Egypt, Saudi Arabia, and then returned back to his hometown, Toos, eastern Iran (Zarinkob, 2004). He is the first scholar who warns everybody of possible dangers in philosophical interpretations of divine teachings.

The significance of John Locke relies on his sincerity of thought much more than on the depth of his philosophy. He expresses a moderate view on both philosophy and education. Through presenting the principle

that says "man's mind is like a blank sheet", John Locke had a wonderful influence on the two fields of politics and education (*cf* Aldrich, 1994; and Moseley, 2007).

Undoubtedly, Jean-Jacques Rousseau and the followers of behaviorism are beholden to John Locke. Jean-Jacques Rousseau, with his genius and exciting writings, created a set of impressive works which were extraordinarily influential in stimulating French public opinion and provoking people into a political revolution.

The writers of the present paper, based on their personal experiences, believe that, even in the present time in spite of passage of some centuries, many of Jean-Jacques Rousseau's ideas and teachings in developing countries need to be interpreted and examined in detail. Let finalize this discussion in remembrance of John Dewey.

John Dewey, with his sincerity, modesty, and perseverance, reminded people all around the world that the initial stage of freedom of thought and democratic life must start from the school (Caspary, 2000). The spread of John Dewey's ideas made the teachers around the globe happy and hopeful that the realm of education is still capable of experiencing immense heights of intellectuality, such as Al-Ghazali, Avicenna, and Jean-Jacques Rousseau. We, teachers, disregarding our race, language, culture, and politics are proud of these great educators.

A QUICK CLARIFICATION OF EDUCATIONAL VIEWS

In this part, we try to examine the ideas and educational approaches of these educators (Al-Farabi, Avicenna, and Al-Ghazali; and John Locke, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, and John Dewey), according to their books and also in a comparative framework. Therefore, their philosophical school of thought, the position of education, and its basic elements (goals, methodology, curriculum, teacher, and learner) are summarized as follow:

First, Philosophical School of Thought.

These six scientists agree that man needs philosophy and philosophy plays a very basic role in everyone's life. Yet, their views towards philosophy are so wide that indicates specific

Table 1:
A Glance at Biography of Six Great Educators

Name	Personality	Living Environment
Al-Farabi, 870.	Ascetic, hermit, politician, musician, sociologist, the first philosopher in the world of Islam- <i>The Second Teacher</i> .	Establishment of Alexandria school – the religious branch – and promoting philosophical ideologies, propagation of different religious groups of Sunni, presence in the court of Seif-al-Dawla, the compilation of more than 33 books and disquisitions.
Avicenna, 980.	A short and tense life, pleasure seeking, politician, physician, philosopher.	Presence in the courts of kings in different parts of Iran, treating sick people, compiling more than 200 books and disquisitions.
Al-Ghazali, 1058.	Renowned and effective intellectual in the world of Islam, propagation of religious philosophy, fight against innovations in religion, struggle with mingling philosophical discussions with religious ones, the great renowned teacher at Nizamieh school in Baghdad.	Living during Abbasid Caliphs, political and military weakness of Abbasids, the age of moral degradation and rebellions, foundation of Ismailia movement, appearance of Hassan-i Sabbah.
John Locke, 1623.	Reticent, calm, revolutionary intellectual, freedom seeking, political thinker, individualist, liberal politician.	Authority of Anglican church, an upholder of moral principles and opponent for indulgence in religious reforms in society.
John-Jacques Rousseau, 1712.	Sensitive, revolutionary, a true lover of nature, man of letters, the greatest educator after Plato.	Exile in France and Prussia, preparation for the French revolution, change of religion, compiling educational and social books.
John Dewey, 1859.	Simple, humble, sympathetic, intellectual, perseverance, eloquent, hard work.	Authority of democracy in the late 19 th century, appearance of pragmatism, appearance and propagation of Darwinian ideas.

viewpoints of each of them towards the affairs such as culture, politics, and religion. For example, Al-Farabi pays much of his attention to the role of philosophy in politics; Avicenna is a philosopher who tries to adapt the Aristotelian understanding of philosophy and brings it in an Islamic tradition; whereas Al-Ghazali takes religion apart from philosophy and believes that philosophy hinders religious improvements. In this way, John Locke is a realistic philosopher; while Jean-Jacques Rousseau follows naturalism; and John Dewey supports pragmatism.

Second, the Position of Education. All these six scientists believe that the importance of man's education is undeniable. Al-Farabi, through his political philosophy, proposes the establishment of utopia and believes that education is a means for philosophers and scholars to guide individuals to get to happiness and prosperity in this world and salvation in the next (Haque, 2004). Avicenna considers education as a precise practice and planning for the purpose of child growth, goodness of family and social affairs

management, and finally mans' attainment of earthly perfection and divine salvation. Al-Ghazali takes education as a kind of self management by broadening knowledge and undergoing mortification in order to be highly esteemed (Almasi, 1998).

John Locke considers education as a way to prepare a safe and sound conscience and mind in a healthy body which would follow personal happiness and consequently social happiness. Jean-Jacques Rousseau views education as an art or technique which is manifested in guiding the trainees and also through obeying rules of natural growth in cooperation with the trainee himself. Also, John Dewey considers education as a reciprocal action between social environment and new generation based on present inclinations, reconstruction of experience, and social democracy (Westbrook, 1993). Even though Al-Farabi, Avicenna, and Al-Ghazali take a similar religious view toward education, John Locke has a physiological view about education; and Jean-Jacques Rousseau determining the educational stages becomes closer to John Dewey's viewpoints.

Third, the Purpose of Education. These great educators agree on the importance of attention paid to moral education and its definite necessity. For Al-Farabi, Avicenna, and Al-Ghazali, the ultimate goal of education is man's happiness and human well being; while John Locke, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, and John Dewey pay more attention to practical functioning of education in individuals' lives.

Even though Al-Farabi, Al-Ghazali, and Avicenna have founded moral training on the basis of religion, John Locke focuses on educating manner as a basic factor. Jean-Jacques Rousseau takes "not doing evil deeds" to others as the basic principle of moral education; and for John Dewey, moral education is paying attention to experience and practice (Bailyn, 1992). Of course, it must also be pointed out that Muslim educators considering man as a two-dimensional being emphasize on training the soul as well as the body.

Fourth, the Methodology of Education. As far as methodology is concerned, these educators agree on the following grounds: attention on students' level of understanding, attention on accompanying of theory and practice when performing a given method, emphasis on the strength of imitation in children, and applying encouragement for better learning in students. While Al-Farabi, Avicenna, and Al-Ghazali stress on educational role of habit; Jean-Jacques Rousseau believes that habits are nothing but adherence to students' nature. He is in line with John Dewey in opposing memorization and repetition drills in learning.

In addition, although these six scientists prefer encouragement to punishment in a learning situation, Jean-Jacques Rousseau disagrees with any kind punishment in any form. The final point is this that Al-Farabi and John Locke pay much attention to the important role of observation in learning, but John Dewey and Jean-Jacques Rousseau maintain that problem solving and discovery learning are more beneficial.

Fifth, Education Curriculum. All these six educators agree that education program must be based on teaching a profession each learner. In this procedure, the planned curriculum must

include *Reading and Writing, Counting, Ethics, and Games*. Al-Farabi, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, and John Locke believe that teaching program during childhood period must be focused on the child senses. Al-Farabi, Avicenna, and Jean-Jacques Rousseau call our attention to the basic role of government in educational planning. Al-Farabi believes that educational planning is a responsibility of the utopian governor (Henry, Nasr & Yahya, 1993).

Avicenna gives importance to the attention paid to political and economical problems; and Jean-Jacques Rousseau says that the government which has not been corrupted yet deserves an educational planning (Al-Naqib, 1993). Al-Ghazali, Avicenna, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, and John Dewey have similar ideas about stages of education according to human growth.

Sixth, Teacher. There are several common aspects in these educators about the role and position of teachers. They consider the followings as the characteristics of a good teacher: discovering students' talents and capabilities, focusing on students' individual differences, and getting interested in teaching profession. Al-Ghazali and Jean-Jacques Rousseau emphasize that the teachers must not expect to be paid for what they are doing. Al-Ghazali believes that teachers should teach for God's sake and blessing – to gain spiritual reward. Jean-Jacques Rousseau, on the other hand, construes the teacher's job as a humanitarian activity that would be so beneficial for the society in the future.

Al-Ghazali, Avicenna, and Jean-Jacques Rousseau believe that teachers function as students' models. Al-Ghazali asserts that teachers must gain and keep the respect of their students and try not to lose their own face at any time and in any condition. Jean-Jacques Rousseau, however, says that teachers must play the role of students' an intimate friend and even a playmate (Simpson, 2006).

Al-Ghazali and Al-Farabi emphasize the importance of social relationships – particularly cooperation between students with each other and their teacher. John Locke believes in private teacher's effectiveness and individual education and also says that the school has nothing to do except

preventing students' creativity and innovation development (Moseley, 2007). And finally, Jean-Jacques Rousseau and John Dewey have similar ideas in the teachers' role in preparing students for learning activities and provide them a suitable learning condition.

Seventh, Student. These six scientists agree in the presence of individual differences among students and assert that the development of individual talents and aptitudes needs close attention in every instructional setting. Cooperation and teamwork are also the stressed issues in education from the viewpoints of Al-Farabi, Avicenna, Al-Ghazali, and John Dewey. Jean-Jacques Rousseau agrees with the principle of cooperation and social collaborations. At the same time, however, he believes we cannot let our students enter the social interactions based on their natural dispositions and this is because the society is corrupt for the moment.

Al-Ghazali, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, and John Locke have similar ideas in preventing children from having friendly relationships with their badly-behaved peer groups. Al-Ghazali, emphasizing on the aforementioned cases, approaches to Jean-Jacques Rousseau's negative education to some extents. Their differences, however, lie in the fact that Jean-Jacques Rousseau denies any direct education – good or bad – up to the age of 12 years.

Also, Al-Ghazali, John Locke, and Jean-Jacques Rousseau agree that the child needs to develop a sense of tolerance in dealing with difficulties and problematic issues in order to get experienced and maturity. Their difference is that Al-Ghazali agrees with both compulsory and arbitrary procedures, while Jean-Jacques Rousseau believes that education must be chosen freely (Westbrook, 1991; Caspary, 2000; and Simpson, 2006).

CONCLUSION

Le Thanh Khoi, in his message written to the Persian version of his book in 1992, addresses his Iranian readers and calls their attentions to an important point. He remarks that although comparative education, in its daily development, considers the experience of other countries, cultures, and social groups, it must take full attention to the

concepts, theories, and procedures taken from a particular geographical environment too (Khoi, 1981). In spite of Le Thanh Khoi's informative warning, it should be pointed out that comparative education, as an academic discipline, is very young and unknown in the Middle East yet. Perhaps and bitterly, it might be said that unfortunately the Middle East which is a generating source of international conflicts and clashes, especially in the recent decade, has not made use of the discipline's capacities in favor of a better understanding of other cultures and decreasing people's sufferings.

Comparative education, as an academic course, has been included in the syllabus of *educational sciences* program in Iranian universities for four decades. Yet, because of a number of reasons such as lack of appropriate information about its purposes, methodology and procedures, unavailability of innovative comparative research methods, and more importantly lack of enough experts in this field in our universities, comparative education has not developed as much as it should.

The comparisons between Muslim educators and their counterparts in the West made in this paper have bilateral benefits. On the one hand, researchers, students, and practitioners of educational systems might come to the idea of making use of their historical backgrounds to develop the discipline. And, on the other hand, the paper would direct the focus of attention of CE (Comparative Education) practitioners to other society's experiences. A brief comparison of educational views of these renowned educators shows that there are considerable instances of similarities between their ideas. The basic question, however, is why our understanding of global issues and problems is so different.

We do believe that CE in a region, like the Middle East with so many crisis and conflicts, can help us find a proper answer to this question. Mark Bray, the former President of the World Council of Comparative Education Societies, in a message written for the Persian version of his book in 2005, points out that CE emphasizes on the importance of paying deep attention to other cultures and accepting pluralism in educational sciences (Bray, 2001).

It is definitely obvious for the Middle East comparativists that the characteristics of CE studies would be impossible to understand unless a precise knowledge of the tortuous route passed in the previous centuries are at hand.

REFERENCES

- Aldrich, R. (1994). "Locke" in *PROSPECTS: The Quarterly Review of Comparative Education*, 24(1/2), pp.61-76. Available [online] also at: www.ibe.unesco.org/fileadmin/user_upload/archive/publications/ThinkersPdf/locke.PDF [accessed in Tehran, Iran: December 15, 2013].
- Al-Harathi, H. (2007). "The 'Insider Others' versus 'the Outsider Others' in Curriculum in the Middle East". Paper presented at XXX World Congress of Comparative Education Societies, in Sarajevo, on 3-7 September.
- Allen, C. & J.S. Nielsen. (2002). "Summary Report on Islamophobia in the EU After 11 September" in *EUMC*, May.
- Almasi, A.M. (1998). *History of Education in Islam and Iran*. Tehran: Amir Kabir Publisher [in Persian].
- Al-Naqib, A. (1993). "Avicenna" in *PROSPECTS: The Quarterly Review of Comparative Education*, XXIII (1/2), pp.53-69. Available [online] also at: www.ibe.unesco.org/fileadmin/user_upload/archive/publications/ThinkersPdf/avicenne.pdf [accessed in Tehran, Iran: December 15, 2013].
- Al-Talbi, A. (1993). "Al-Farabi" in *PROSPECTS: The Quarterly Review of Comparative Education*, XXIII (1/2), pp.353-372. Available [online] also at: www.ibe.unesco.org/fileadmin/user_upload/archive/publications/ThinkersPdf/farabie.pdf [accessed in Tehran, Iran: December 15, 2013].
- Bailyn, B. (1992). *The Ideological Origins of the American Revolution*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Boyd, W. (1963). *The Educational Theory of Jean-Jacques Rousseau*. New York: Russell & Russell.
- Bray, Mark. (2001). *Comparative Education: Continuing Traditions, New Challenges, and New Paradigms*. Boston, Dordrecht, London: Kluwer Academic Publishers, Translated to Persian by Abbas Madandar Arani (2005), Tehran: Jungle Publisher.
- Caspary, W.R. (2000). *Dewey on Democracy*. Ithaca and London: Cornell University Press.
- Cowen, R. (1996). "Last Past the Post: Comparative Education, Modernity, and Perhaps Post-Modernity" in *Comparative Education*, 32(2), pp.151-170.
- Cowen, R. (2000). "Comparing Futures or Comparing Pasts?" in *Comparative Education*, 36(3), pp.333-342.
- Enan, M.A. (2007). *Ibn Khaldun: His Life and Works*. British Columbia: The Other Press.
- Fakhry, M. (2002). *Al-Farabi, Founder of Islamic Neo-Platonism: His Life, Works, and Influence (Great Islamic Thinkers)*. Oxford: Oneworld Publications.
- Grant, N. (2000). "Tasks for Comparative Education in the New Millennium" in *Comparative Education*, 36(3), pp.309-317.
- Halabi, A.E. (1980). *Three Great Philosophers*. Tehran: Zavar Press [in Persian].
- Haque, A. (2004). "Psychology from Islamic Perspective: Contributions of Early Muslim Scholars and Challenges to Contemporary Muslim Psychologists" in *Journal of Religion and Health*, 43(4), pp.357-377.
- Henry, C., H. Nasr & U. Yahya. (1993). *History of Islamic Philosophy*. London: Keagan Paul International.
- Khoi, Le Thanh. (1981). *L'education Compare'e*. Paris: Armand Colin, Translated to Persian by Mohammad Yamani (1996), Tehran: Samt Press.
- Madandar Arani, Abbas. (2003). "Review of Book: Comparative Education, Continuing Traditions, New Challenges, and New Paradigms (The Netherlands: Dordrecht), Edited by Prof. Mark Bray" in *Peabody Journal of Education*, 79(4). USA: University of Vanderbilt, pp.138-150.
- Madandar Arani, A. & P. Abbasi. (2007). "A Second Look at Comparative Education and its Missions" in *Quarterly Journal of Education*, 23(2), pp.101-126 [in Persian].
- Moseley, A. (2007). *John Locke: Continuum Library of Educational Thought*. London: Alexander Publication Information.
- Nofal, N. (1993). "Al-Ghazali" in *PROSPECTS: The Quarterly Review of Comparative Education*, XXIII, 3/4, pp.519-542. Available [online] also at: www.ibe.unesco.org/fileadmin/user_upload/archive/publications/ThinkersPdf/al-ghazali.pdf [accessed in Tehran, Iran: December 15, 2013].
- Oweiss, I.M. (1988). *Ibn Khaldun, the Father of Economics, Arab Civilization: Challenges and Responses*. New York: New York University Press.
- Rajaei, F. (2003). *Identity Problem of Today's Iranian*. Tehran: Naye Publisher [in Persian].
- Sepelri, M. & A. Madandar Arani. (2007). "The Role of Educational Systems in International Crises: A Reappraisal of Middle East Countries". Paper presented at XXX World Congress of Comparative Education Societies, in Sarajevo, on 3-7 September.
- Simpson, M. (2006). *Rousseau's Theory of Freedom*. London: Continuum Books.
- Westbrook, R.B. (1991). *John Dewey and American Democracy*. Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press.
- Westbrook, R.B. (1993). "John Dewey" in *PROSPECTS: The Quarterly Review of Comparative Education*, XXIII (1/2), pp.277-291. Available [online] also at: www.ibe.unesco.org/fileadmin/user_upload/archive/publications/ThinkersPdf/Dewey.pdf [accessed in Tehran, Iran: December 15, 2013].
- Wilson, D.N. (2003). "The Future of Comparative and International Education in a Globalised World" in Mark Bray [ed]. *Comparative Education: Continuing Traditions, New Challenges, and New Paradigms*. The Netherlands: Dordrecht.
- Zarinkob, A.H. (2004). *Literary Criticism*. Tehran, Iran: Amir Kabir, 7th edition.

YAYAT SUDARYAT

THE INTERPRETATION OF SUNDANESE EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY IN TRADITIONAL IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS

ABSTRACT: *The study was aimed at exposing the result of reinterpretation and reformulation of Sundanese educational philosophy in traditional idiomatic expressions. Traditional idiomatic expressions are plastic-aesthetic words having connotative meanings. The structures and sounds of words in traditional idiomatic expressions do not change from one generation to another. This study applied descriptive method. Bibliographic study, intuition, elicitation, and questionnaires were used to get data. The data were, then, analyzed using hermeneutic method by immediate constituent analysis. This study found that traditional idiomatic expressions implied high moral values and reflected local wisdom, particularly those dealing with character building. Philosophically, character building or education process involved education trident or three education practice, i.e. planning, implementation, and evaluation. Besides, the values of Sundanese education practice consisted of the objective, methodology, teachers and students, media and learning materials, and evaluation. Education should start as early as possible, so that the result could be gained when one reached his or her adulthood (“kudu guguru ti lelembut, diajar ti bubudak, geus gede kari makena”). The teachers and students should be caring and attentive (“silih asah, silih asih, silih asuh”). Thus, it would create “jelema masagi” (complete people) who were well-rounded; and “legok tapak genteng kadek” (had a lot of experiences), and “cageur, bageur, bener, pinter, singer, tur pangger” (had the qualities of being healthy, morally-right, intellectual, skillful, and tough).*

KEY WORDS: *Philosophy of education, traditional idiomatic expressions, Sundanese character, local wisdom, Nusantara languages, unity in diversity, and Indonesia nation-state.*

INTRODUCTION

Every nation or tribe has its own system and truth of its culture educational inheritance, such as its objective, background, ways, and output; and also its structure and use. The truth of culture educational inheritance is educational philosophy. Smith in 1960 stated that educational philosophy is related to the practice of education, that is, comprehensive and critical analysis about how education should be carried out and implemented in human life (cited in Mudyahardjo, 2004:5). Likewise, in Sundanese culture educational inheritance, Sundanese educational philosophy is found.

The truth of Sundanese culture educational philosophy or inheritance can be seen

in Sundanese society behavior, both in psychological and social-culture, and in language behavior. The truth of Sundanese culture educational inheritance in social culture and language behavior are seen more clearly than in psychological behavior. One of language behavior existences showing the truth of Sundanese culture educational philosophy or inheritance is traditional idiomatic expression. It contains the values of local wisdom that can be used as a mirror, should be done, and should not be forgotten.

One of the native languages in Indonesia, that bears the wealth of traditional idiomatic expression, is Sundanese language. This language, generally, are still spoken by most Sundanese living in West Java, Indonesia, in

Dr. Yayat Sudaryat is a Senior Lecturer at the Department of Sundanese Language Education, Faculty of Language and Art Education UPI (Indonesia University of Education), Jalan Dr. Setiabudhi No.229 Bandung 40154, West Java, Indonesia. E-mail: kisudaryat_sunda@yahoo.com

their daily life. The frequency of Sundanese language use in villages or rural areas is quite high. As native speakers, Sundanese people have tried to maintain and develop the language seriously. It is very important since Sundanese language is a part of Sundanese culture that automatically serves as a means of developing it. There is a Sundanese proverb saying that “*Basa teh ciciren bangsa*” (a language indicates a nation). In this context, Einar Haugen explains that language and nation are closely related and not separated, “*A nation who has dignity should own a language*” (Haugen, 1972).

In the result of *Seminar Politik Bahasa Nasional* (the Political Seminar of National Language) in Jakarta, Indonesia, in 1975, it was stated that Sundanese language, as a native language, had certain function. It is in line with *Undang-Undang Dasar* (Constitution) 1945, Chapter XV, in the explanation of Verse 36 stating that:

In regions that have their own languages, that are maintained well by their people (such as Javanese, Sundanese, Maduranese, and the others), the languages will be respected and maintained by the country. Those languages are also parts of Indonesian culture existed (cited in Halim *et al.*, 1980:150).

Native languages in Indonesia, as *Nusantara* languages, have precious content, in the form of traditional idiomatic expressions. Apart from being the language wealth, traditional idiomatic expressions are also the wealth of *Nusantara* culture.

As a native language in Indonesia, Sundanese language contains the high value of local wisdom as it is implied in traditional idiomatic expressions. The values of local wisdom are connected with various aspects, for example, the aspect of the truth of its culture educational inheritance. Besides, to maintain the traditional idiomatic expressions in the society, the reinterpretation and reformulation of its usage should be done. Research should be conducted to observe the truth of its culture educational inheritance. Therefore, a study related to the interpretation of Sundanese educational philosophy in traditional idiomatic expressions must be conducted.

The study was aimed at describing the interpretation of the truth of its culture educational inheritance in traditional idiomatic expressions. The description is related with the trident of education, the truth of education system components, the quality of education output, and the quality of Sundanese people expected in traditional idiomatic expressions.

RESEARCH METHOD

Descriptive method was applied in the study. The elements described included the trident of education, the true components of education system, and the quality of Sundanese people expected in the traditional idiomatic expressions. Related with the objective of the study, this method was presumably suitable to apply and propose the values of Sundanese educational philosophy embodied in traditional idiomatic expressions.

To collect data, four research techniques were used, i.e. (1) *literary study*, (2) *intuition or introspection*, (3) *elicitation*, and (4) *questionnaires*. Literary study was used to get information on Sundanese traditional idiomatic expressions. Intuition technique was used since the researcher was a Sundanese native speaker who became the source of data about Sundanese traditional idiomatic expressions. Elicitation technique was used to check the rightness of intuition data source towards other Sundanese traditional idiomatic expressions. Questionnaires were used to find out the society perception towards Sundanese traditional idiomatic expressions and educational philosophy.

In line with the techniques, the instruments used in the study were cards of data and questionnaires. The cards of data were used to gather data in the forms of Sundanese traditional idiomatic expressions. The data were taken from books of Sundanese idioms and proverbs.

To analyze the data of traditional idiomatic expressions, hermeneutic and immediate constituent analyses were used. The immediate constituents analysis was used to analyze the elements of traditional idiomatic expressions; meanwhile, hermeneutic analysis was used to analyze the meaning and sense of traditional idiomatic expressions (Sumardjo, 2004).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

On the Findings. Traditional idiomatic expression is a language wealth that is stylistic-plastic. It is plastic since traditional idiomatic expression is a string of language bearing imitation and symbol of life with certain meaning. It is stylistic because traditional idiomatic expression is an expression containing linguistic style. According to Suwarsih Warnaen *et al.* (1987:8), traditional idiomatic expression is very aesthetic, contains the elements of rhythm and the power of word sound. Therefore, it is easy to remember and does not easily change. Its word sound and structure stays the same, does not change.

In this study, traditional idiomatic expression is divided into two groups: *idiom* and *proverb*. Idiom is a language form in the form of combined words in which its meaning cannot be explained from the meaning of the words combined (Moeliono *et al.* eds., 1988:320). Idiom is a compound sentence or word group having stable structure and figurative meaning (Sudaryat, 1991:118).

Meanwhile, proverbs are sentences or groups of words having stable structure and usually alluding certain meaning (Tarigan, 1985:156-157). Proverb is a sentence or clause having stable structure and containing compared meaning as a symbol of human behavior (Sudaryat, 1991:99).

James Danandjaja calls traditional idiomatic expression as proverb. There are three functions of proverb, that is: (1) as a projection system, as a means of culture institutions and infra-structure legalization; (2) as a means of child education; and (3) as a means of society norms mandatory and supervision in order to be obeyed (Danandjaja, 1982:31).

Traditional idiomatic expression is a language wealth that is stylistic-plastic. It is plastic since traditional idiomatic expression is a string of language bearing imitation and symbol of life with certain meaning. It is stylistic because traditional idiomatic expression is an expression containing linguistic style.

Traditional idiomatic expression contains several local wisdoms, of which is the value of Sundanese educational philosophy. Regarded

with it, Stella van Petten Henderson (1959) says that popularly, philosophy means one's general view of life of men, of ideals, and of values; in the sense everyone has a philosophy of life. Philosophy means the attempt to conceive and present inclusive and systematic views of universe and man's in it (Moore, 1982; and Sadulloh, 2004:16).

Sundanese philosophy attempts to review the value content of the world accompanied with the quality of thinking and feeling that is "*lantip*" and "*surti*", "*wawuh ka semuna*", "*apal ka basana*", "*rancage hate rancingas rasa*", meaning having the ability to read and perceive what is stated and unstated. Philosophical activity is not separated from human ability to interpret anything he or she experiences. The result he or she gets is any meaning and perception he or she interprets. Meaning is the relationship between one thing and its enclosure, that is, text and context relationship. Whether sense is the relationship between the meaning and the essential value it bears (Suryalaga, 2010:33).

This study that is related with the philosophy of education is a comprehensive and critical analysis on how educational process should be carried out in human life. In philosophy, what and how educational process is discussed: what the real objective of education is and how it can be achieved (Henderson, 1959:237; and Mudyahardjo, 2004:5).

The result of the study is related with two things, that is: (1) the philosophical value of Sundanese education trident; and (2) the philosophical value of Sundanese education components in traditional idiomatic expression.

First, the philosophical value of Sundanese education trident in traditional idiomatic expression. Viewed from philosophy, education is a process leading to three activities, namely: planning, implementation, and evaluation (Sagala, 2010:200). Connected with educational planning, there were some traditional idiomatic expressions fit with it, such as education "should be well-planned" and in Sundanese idiomatic expressions are: "*caringcing pageuh kancing, saringset pageuh iket*" and "*kudu dipikir dibulak-balik, dibeuweung diutahkeun*".

Concerned with the implementation of education, there were some suitable traditional idiomatic expressions. They state that the implementation of education “should be in harmony” and in Sundanese idiomatic expressions are: “*sareundeuk saigel, sabobot sapihanean*” and “*sabata sarimbagan*”. And its method “should be known” and in Sundanese idiomatic expression is “*kudu apal jurus-jurusna*”. The implementation of education “should be carried out in a peaceful atmosphere” and in Sundanese idiomatic expressions are: “*silih asah, silih asih, silih asuh*” or love, give, and guide each other.

Regarded to the evaluation of education, there were some traditional idiomatic expressions connected. The evaluation of education is performed “to get a satisfying output” and in Sundanese idiomatic expressions are: “*kudu kapetik hasilna, kaala buahna*”. The evaluation “should be done objectively” and in Sundanese idiomatic expressions are: *kudu ngukur ka kujur, nimbang ka awak, ngukur baju sasereg awak*”.

Second, the philosophical value of Sundanese education components in traditional idiomatic expression. In educational practice, there were five components connected, that is: raw input, learning and teaching process, instrumental input, environmental input, and output (Suryabrata, 1986:3). It is closely related to the philosophical value of educational components referring to six things, that is: the rightness of the objective of education, teaching material, students and teachers, learning method, media and learning source, and learning evaluation.

Related with the rightness of educational objective, twenty-seven traditional idiomatic expressions were found. The objective of education bears character values, that is: spiritual and emotional development, intellectual development, physical and kinesthetic development, and affective and creativity development (Mulyati, 2011:183).

It is interpreted in the objective of education that we have to be ready and the lesson plan should be composed systematically. The objective to reach should be clear and measured. In reaching the objective, we are probably lacked behind and never satisfied:

“*satungtung ngajugjug kidul, kaler deui kaler deui*” or during the trip to the south, a sign that we are still in the north is given. Nevertheless, “*niat kudu buleud*” or the willingness should be total.

In accordance with the philosophical value of students and teachers, some traditional idiomatic expressions were found, for example: the interaction between students and teachers should be in harmony with the content of discussion, so that the output is satisfying. Learning should be done since the beginning of life; therefore, in the adulthood the output can be utilized. In the process of teaching and learning, there were various strategies that “could be useful” and in Sundanese idiomatic expressions such as “*silih asah, silih asih, silih asuh*”.

Learning “should be accustomed” and in Sundanese idiomatic expression is “*matih tuman batan tumbal*”; because someone who learns “will be able to do later” and in Sundanese idiomatic expression is “*bedog mintul mun diasah laun-laun jadi seukeut*”. How smart a student is, he or she “should be polite” to his or her teacher, and in Sundanese idiomatic expressions are: “*kudu hade tata hade basa, hade gogog hade tagog*”.

Students “should also respect” their teachers, parents, and the leader of the country, in Sundanese idiomatic expressions are: “*guru, ratu, wong atua karo wajib sinembah*”. Teachers “should be able to teach” their family and others, in Sundanese idiomatic expression is “*ulah elmu ajug*”. Whether, students “should be critical” when they are learning and in Sundanese idiomatic expression is “*ulah elmu sapi*”. If they have gained knowledge and got smart, they “should not be arrogant, but should be wise” and in Sundanese idiomatic expression is “*kudu kawas elmu pare*”.

Concerned with learning method, some traditional idiomatic expressions were found. In the process of learning, both students and teachers should try hard to get satisfying output. The effort should be done diligently and firmly. Every learning process has its own way and in Sundanese idiomatic expressions are: “*mun teu ngakal moal ngakeul, mun teu ngarah moal ngarih*”. It means that if we do not do anything, we cannot live and eat. Education

should be carried out from the early childhood, so that in the adulthood it can be utilized; and in Sundanese idiomatic expressions are: “*kudu guguru ti lelembut, diajar ti bubudak, geus gede kari makena*”.

In line with the media and learning sources, four traditional idiomatic expressions were found. Knowledge can be gained from any source, such as experience, calamity, reading, dispute, and other people. “*Meunang luang tina burang*” means getting experience from a calamity; “*meunang luang tina baruang*” means getting a chance from a poison; “*meunang luang tina bincurang*” means that getting experience from an ankle; “*meunang luang tina daluwang*” means getting experience from the reading; and “*meunang luang ti papada urang*” means getting experience from other people.

Learning material, according to Sundanese educational philosophy, is all materials that can be learned, any knowledge, and eschatology, in Sundanese idiomatic expression is “*elmu tungtut dunya siar*”, meaning that knowledge and wealth should be sought. Seeking for knowledge is a must, but it should be balanced with the seeking for wealth.

The output of learning is the creation of a complete man or a well-rounded man who can do anything, and in Sundanese idiomatic expression is “*legok tapak genteng kadek*”, meaning have a lot of experience; who is not bound by ignorance, but has high-knowledge, and in Sundanese idiomatic expression is “*luhur ku elmu jembar ku pangabisa*”. Knowledge is more important than wealth, but never be a pedant, be a wise one. Meanwhile, although there is a proverb saying “*sirung moal ngaluhuran tangkal, taktak moal ngaluhuran sirah*”, in reality, students may be smarter than their teachers.

On the Discussion. Four things are discussed here, that is the philosophical value of Sundanese education quality; the philosophical value of Sundanese people quality; the relationship between Sundanese education philosophy and four education pillars of UNESCO (United Nations of Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization); and the relationship of Sundanese educational philosophy and competence domain.

The quality of Sundanese education

embodied in traditional idiomatic expressions is related with two things, namely: (1) the value of knowledge, characterizing human race: “*sato busana daging, jalma busana elmu*”, meaning that the main characteristics of human is his/her knowledge, whether the main characteristics of animal is its flesh; knowledge and wealth should be sought for “*elmu tungtut dunya siar*”; learning should be started since the childhood or “*guguru ti lelembut, diajar ti bubudak, geus gede kari makena*”; and (2) smartness, don't be ignorant, or “*ulah bodo katotoloyo*”; and should be diligent in studying and seeking for knowledge or “*kudu nyukcruk elmu, nyiar pangabisa, nyuprih pangarti*”.

The relationship between the philosophical value of Sundanese education and four education pillars of UNESCO (Delors, 1996) is the value of “*cageur, bageur, bener*” (healthy, kind-hearted, right) refers to “learning to live together”; the value of “*pinter*” (smart) refers to “learning to know”; the value of “*singer*” (skilled) refers to “learning to do”; and the value of “*pangger*” (firm) refers to “learning to be”. The relationship between the value of Sundanese educational philosophy and competence domain is the value of “*pinter*” (cognitive domain), “*singer*” (psychomotor domain), and “*cageur, bageur, bener tur pangger*” (affective domain).

The quality of Sundanese people is characterized by showing good manners or having good character, that is a person who is “*nyunda*” (cultured), “*nyantri*” (religious), and “*nyakola*” (academic), who is able to enter “*gapura panca waluya*” (five gates of a complete life) as the character of behavior, namely “*cageur*” (healthy), “*bageur*” (kind-hearted), “*bener*” (right), “*pinter*” (smart), “*singer*” (skilled), and also “*pangger*” (firm).

With those characters, it is hoped that people with “*catur jatidiri insani*” (four human identities) will be created. Those are: “*pengkuh agamana*” (spiritual quotient), who are pious; “*luhung elmuna*” (intellectual quotient), who master science, technology, and art; “*jembar budayana*” (emotional quotient), who are not culture-shocked, do not lose their human identity; and “*rancage gawena*” (actional quotient), who work creatively, actively in “*ngigelan sareng ngigelkeun jaman*” or adapt and

act in line with the advance of time (Suryalaga, 2003:78).

To reach four human identities, six morals marking human quality called Human Moral (HM), that is Human Moral towards God (HMG), Human Moral towards Individual (HMI), Human Moral towards other People (HMP), Human Moral towards Nature (HMN), Human Moral towards Time (HMT), and Human Moral in pursuing Material and Immaterial satisfaction (HMMI) have to be built (Suryalaga, 2003:10; and Suryalaga, 2010:17).

The existence of the six human morals is needed to improve the Sundanese image, namely: mental map, cognitive map, schemata, cognitive signature, or the image related with Sundanese culture and education. This Sundanese image can be improved through the holistic education of formal, informal, and non-formal education, so that all Sundanese people have varied images: spatial image, temporal image, relational image, personal image, value image, and national image (Ahman Sya, 2012:27-28).

Firstly, *the spatial image* is related to the place in which he lives, meaning that Sundanese people should be able to adjust with their neighborhood, and in Sundanese idiomatic expressions are “*ciri sabumi cara sadesa, jawadah tutung biritna, sacara-carana*” or “every place has its own way, every person has his/her own characteristics”.

Secondly, *the temporal image* is connected with the time change, meaning that a Sundanese should be able to adjust with the change of time, and in Sundanese idiomatic expressions are “*bisa ngindung ka usum, ngabapa ka jaman*” or “being able to adjust with the development of era”.

Thirdly, *the relational image* shows that Sundanese people, as individual, grow in the regular system of the universe. It means that Sundanese should obey the rule, and in Sundanese idiomatic expressions are “*kudu nyanghulu ka hukum, manjang ka nagara, mupakat ka balarea*” or “should respect the law, live based on the country regulation, and agree with people’s willing”.

Fourthly, *the personal image* shows that Sundanese people do not live by themselves.

They live with other people and organizations; therefore, Sundanese people should have the character of: “*silih asah, silih asih, silih asuh*” or “guide and educate each other lovingly”.

Fifthly, *the value image* depicts that Sundanese’s life is in good and bad scale. Sundanese people should be good in behaving and speaking, and in Sundanese idiomatic expressions are “*kudu hade gogog hade tagog, hade tata hade basa*” or “should be polite”.

Sixthly, *the emotional or affection image* illustrates the image of Sundanese’s awareness of Sundanese education and culture, certainty or uncertainty about Sundanese education and culture, and the life scale image as individual and also the social scale out of themselves. The image ownership will be an initial capital to strengthen the Sundanism in Indonesian environment (ethno-national), not ethno-central.

Therefore, if it is assumed that Sundanese people who love and keep their culture are ethnic chauvinism, it is a big mistake. Indonesia exists because of Sundanese and other tribes included in *Bhinneka Tunggal Ika* (Unity in Diversity). It means that there should be a pattern of living harmoniously and peacefully, and in Sundanese idiomatic expressions are “*hirup sauyunan jeung sabilulungan, ka cai jadi saleuwi ka darat jadi salebak*” or “living peacefully and cooperatively”; not in the opposite way, in hostile and violence, and in Sundanese idiomatic expressions are “*ulah pagiri-giri calik, pagirang-girang tampian*” or “don’t compete to exceed each other”.

The nationalism image is, in fact, the image owned by all tribes in *Nusantara* or the NKRI (*Negara Kesatuan Republik Indonesia* or Unitary State of the Republic of Indonesia). Therefore, it can be said that the reinterpretation and reformulation of Sundanese educational philosophy included in the traditional idiomatic expression is one of the educational development strategy pioneer works based on the local wisdom or cultural potency of all tribes (ethno-pedagogy). It is understandable since this education develops humanist complete people based on the local society identity, and in Sundanese idiomatic expressions are “*dina budaya urang napak,*

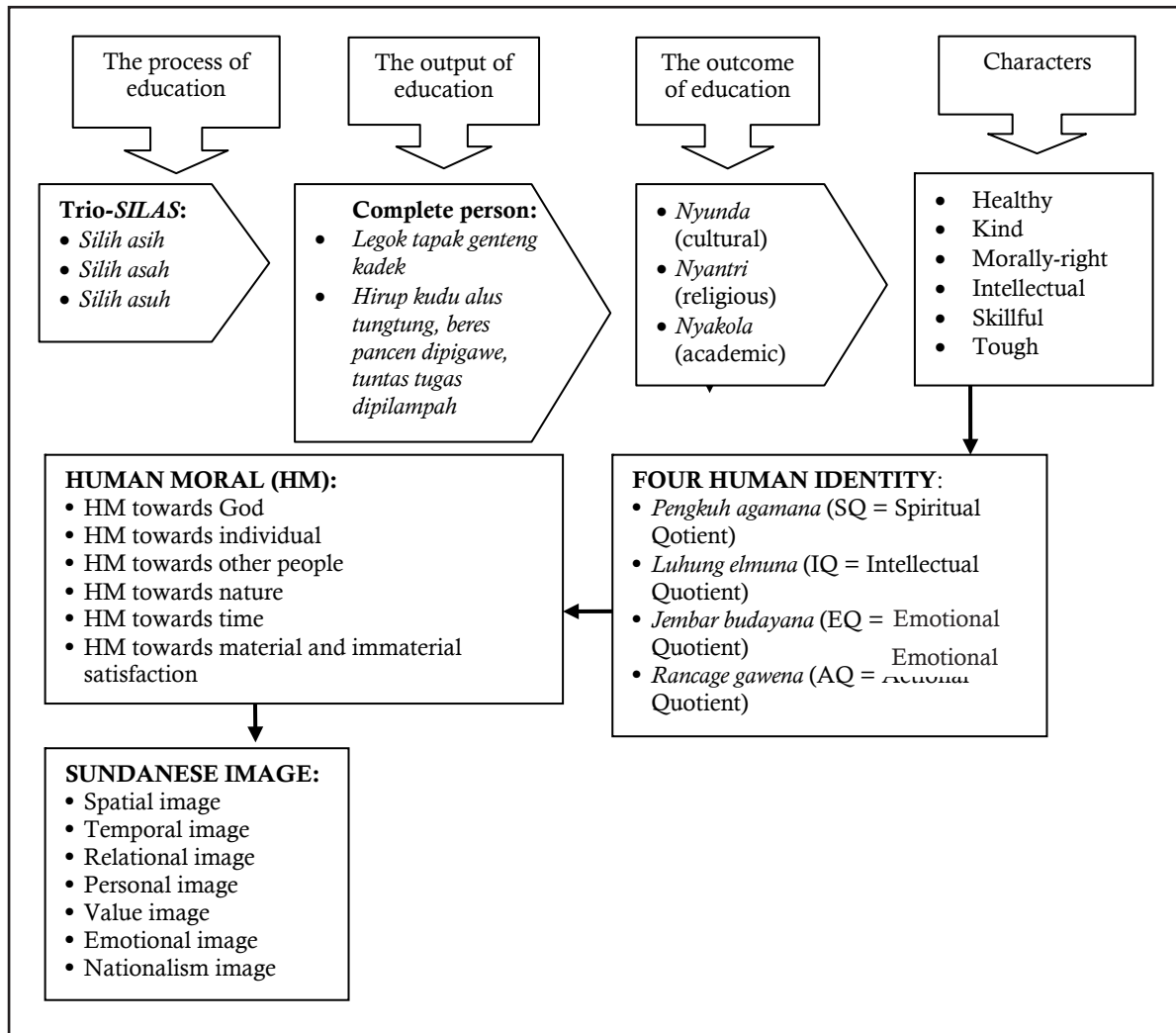


Diagram 1:
The Interpretation of Sundanese Educational Philosophy

tina budaya urang ngapak” or “growing and developing well based on the culture”.

In the nationalism image implies the existence of region variety having different characteristics, ways, and styles, and in Sundanese idiomatic expressions are “*lain tepak sejen igel, ciri sabumi cara sadesa, jawadah tutung biritna, sacara-carana*” or “different ways different styles, every place has its own way, every person has his/her own character”. It means that education does not only create experts of varied knowledge and science, but also should be based on the nation culture.

If the value of local educational philosophy is left behind or “*poho ka purwadaksi*” (leaving

behind all the beginnings) and the independent characteristics of Indonesian culture are forgotten, we will lose our identity and experience a moral degradation. The natives will be set aside by strangers, and in Sundanese idiomatic expression is “*jati kasilih ku junti*”. That idiomatic expression gives a sign that we do not forget the values of the local wisdom that will build and strengthen the national identity. If the local wisdom is drawn from its root of culture, the national identity will be lost.

In brief, the result of reinterpreting Sundanese educational philosophy values in traditional idiomatic expressions can be shown in the diagram 1.

CONCLUSION

This study concluded the conditions related to the interpretation of Sundanese educational philosophy in traditional idiomatic expressions, as follows:

Traditional idiomatic expressions are sentences or groups of words that have stable structure and allude certain meanings. The traditional idiomatic expressions were “*babasan*” (idiom) and “*paribasa*” (proverb).

The philosophical value of Sundanese educational trident in traditional idiomatic expressions refers to planning, implementation, and evaluation. Educational planning should be prepared well and proficiently. Educational implementation should be carried out harmoniously and its method is known. In order to reach the satisfying output, educational evaluation should be performed objectively, in line with the criteria.

The philosophical value of educational components in traditional idiomatic expressions refers to the truth of educational objective, teaching material, teachers and students, learning method, media and learning source, and learning evaluation. The objective should be clear and be measured. The interaction between teachers and students should be harmonious with the topic discussed in order to get a satisfying output. Learning should be accustomed. Students should be polite to teachers. Teachers should be able to educate their family and other people. Students should be critical while studying and should not be arrogant when they have been smart.

The learning strategies are “*silih asih, silih asah, silih asuh*” (guide and educate each other lovingly). Seeking for knowledge is a must, but it should be balanced with seeking for wealth. The source of learning can be one own experience, from disasters, from books, and from other people. The final output of learning is the creation of complete people, who are well-rounded and have a lot of experience. In living a life, people should not be bound by ignorance, but should have high knowledge.

Sundanese educational quality contained in traditional idiomatic expressions is related to two things: *the value of knowledge*, that characterizes human; and *smartness*, it means that we should not live in ignorance.

Sundanese people quality refers to cultured and characterized people, who are “*nyunda*” (cultured), “*nyantri*” (religious), and “*nyakola*” (academic), who are able to enter the five gates of life perfection (“*gapura panca waluya*”), namely: “*cageur*” (healthy), “*bageur*” (kind-hearted), “*bener*” (right), “*pinter*” (smart), “*singer*” (skilled), and also “*pangger*” (firm).

Therefore, people having four human identities will be created, those who are pious or “*pengkuh agamana*” (spiritual quotient), smart or “*luhung élmuna*” (intellectual quotient), cultured or “*jembar budayana*” (emotional quotient), and skillful or “*rancagé gawéna*” (actional quotient). To reach that, six Human Morals (HMs) should be developed, that is: Human Moral towards God (HMG), Human Moral towards Individual (HMI), Human Moral towards other People (HMP), Human Moral towards Nature (HMN), Human Moral towards Time (HMT), and Human Moral in pursuing Material and Immaterial satisfaction (HMMI). These human morals are expected to be able to improve Sundanese images, namely spatial image, temporal image, relational image, personal image, value image, emotional image, and nationalism image.

The behavior of society towards traditional idiomatic expressions containing the values of Sundanese educational philosophy is quite good. The behavior and response of society are connected with five matters, i.e. the urgency of traditional idiomatic expressions; the value of traditional idiomatic expressions; the maintenance and development of traditional idiomatic expressions; the perception and meaning of traditional idiomatic expressions; and the truth of educational components in traditional idiomatic expressions.

REFERENCES

- Ahman Sya, H.M. (2012). “Citra Budaya Sunda” in *Majalah Mangle*, No.2378. Bandung: PT Mangle Panglipur, 14-20 June.
- Danandjaja, James. (2002). *Folklor Indonesia*. Jakarta: Grafiti.
- Delors, J. (1996). *Learning the Treasure Within: Report of International Commission on Education for the 21st Century*. Paris: UNESCO [United Nations of Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization].

- Halim, Amran *et al.* (1980). *Politik Bahasa Nasional, Jilid 2*. Jakarta: Balai Pustaka.
- Haugen, Einar. (1972). "Dialect, Language, Nation" in A.S. Dil [ed]. *The Ecology of Language: Essays by Einar Haugen*. California: Stanford University Press.
- Henderson, Stella van Petten. (1959). *Introduction to Philosophy of Education*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Moeliono, Anton M. *et al.* [eds]. (1988). *Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia*. Jakarta: Balai Pustaka.
- Moore, T.W. (1982). *Philosophy of Education*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Mudyahardjo, Redja. (2004). *Filsafat Ilmu Pendidikan*. Bandung: Remaja Rosda Karya.
- Mulyati, Sri. (2011). "Integrasi Nilai-nilai Pendidikan Karakter Bangsa dalam Pembelajaran Bahasa Indonesia" in *Jurnal Bahasa dan Sastra*, Vol.11(2), October.
- Sadulloh, Uyoh. (2004). *Pengantar Filsafat Pendidikan*. Bandung: Alfabeta.
- Sagala, Syaeful. (2010). *Konsep dan Makna Pembelajaran*. Bandung: Alfabeta.
- Sudaryat, Yayat. (1991). *Ulukan Semantik Sunda*. Bandung: Geger Sunten.
- Sumardjo, Jakob. (2004). *Hermeneutika Sunda: Simbol-simbol Babad Pakuan/Guru Gantangan*. Bandung: Kelir.
- Suryabrata, Sumardi. (1986). *Proses Belajar-Mengajar di Perguruan Tinggi*. Yogyakarta: Andi Offset.
- Suryalaga, H.R. Hidayat. (2003). *Kasundaan*. Bandung: Wahana Raksa Sunda.
- Suryalaga, H.R. Hidayat. (2010). *Filsafat Sunda*. Bandung: Yayasan Nur Hidayah.
- Tarigan, H.G. (1985). *Pengajaran Semantik*. Bandung: Angkasa.
- Warnaen, Suwarsih *et al.* (1987). *Pandangan Hidup Orang Sunda*. Bandung: Sundanologi.



Sundanese People in West Java, Indonesia

(Source: www.google.com, 5/1/2014)

As a native language in Indonesia, Sundanese language contains the high value of local wisdom as it is implied in traditional idiomatic expressions. The values of local wisdom are connected with various aspects, for example, the aspect of the truth of its culture educational inheritance. Besides, to maintain the traditional idiomatic expressions in the society, the reinterpretation and reformulation of its usage should be done. Research should be conducted to observe the truth of its culture educational inheritance. Therefore, a study related to the interpretation of Sundanese educational philosophy in traditional idiomatic expressions must be conducted.

AJIT MONDAL & JAYANTA METE

EDUCATION FOR PEACE IN THE LIGHT OF NATIONAL CURRICULUM FRAMEWORK – 2005

ABSTRACT: *We live in an age of unprecedented levels of violence, with constant threats posed by intolerance, fanaticism, dispute, and discordance. Ethical action, peace, and welfare are facing new challenges. A strong need is being felt by educationists, philosophers, scientists, and political leaders to rejuvenate the human values, which may bring long lasting peace on this planet. The purpose of education goes beyond the propagation of knowledge. J. Delors's Report (1996) on learning to live together as the central pillar of education proposes that education must be geared to promote a culture of peace, tolerance, democratic values, human rights, and duties among students. With the reality of the alarming increase in violence in school life, the National Curriculum Framework (NCF) – 2005 strongly advocates education for peace at all levels of schools. In this backdrop, the present paper tries to epitomise the concept of education for peace in the light of NCF – 2005. Peace and living together have been integral part of Indian way of living and manifested in its Constitution through various articles. It firmly believes that inculcation of certain values among younger generation would help them to exist in the dynamic socio-cultural fabric with peace, harmony, and prosperity. In the final section, approach, strategies, activities, and teacher's role in education for peace in the landscape of school education are also addressed as envisaged in the NCF – 2005.*

KEY WORDS: *Education, peace, human values, harmony, tolerance, democracy, national curriculum framework, and India's government and society.*

INTRODUCTION

Peace, however, is an elusive concept having different interpretations in different cultures as well as different connotations for the spheres, in which peaceful processes are applied. It ranges from inner peace to outer peace. Consequently, the interpretation of peace ranges from absence of war, and society without structural violence to liberation from exploitation and injustice of any kind, ecological balance and conservation, and peace of mind, etc. Education for peace, therefore, includes a variety of issues like human rights education, environmental education, international education, conflict resolution education, development education, etc. Education for non-violence and peace includes

training, skills, and information towards cultivating a culture of peace based on human rights principles (Delors, 1996; and UNESCO, 2008).

In India, education for peace programmes have traditionally been concerned with promoting certain core values (Pandey, 2007). Mahatma Gandhi envisaged a non-violent society, which would be free from exploitation of any kind and can be achieved through the instrument of education. In Gandhian concept of peace, truth and non-violence are important. The educational policies of the country lay stress on combative obscurantism, religious fanaticism, violence, superstition, and fatalism; and promote some core values such as India's common cultural heritage,

Mr. Ajit Mondal and Dr. Jayanta Mete are a Research Scholar and an Associate Professor at the Department of Education, University of Kalyani, Kalyani, West Bengal, Pin-741235, India. The authors can be contacted via their e-mail at: mondalajit.edn@gmail.com and jayanta_135@yahoo.co.in

egalitarianism, democracy, secularism, equality of sexes, inculcation of scientific temper, etc.

Peace and living together have been integral part of Indian way of living and manifested in its Constitution through various articles. It firmly believes that inculcation of certain values among younger generation would help them to exist in the dynamic socio-cultural fabric with peace, harmony, and prosperity. This is the reason why all commissions and committees on education in India, like the Radha Krishnan Commission (1948–1949), Mudaliar Commission (1952–1953), Sri Prakasha Commission (1959), Sampurnanand Commission (1961), Kothari Commission (1964–1966), Rammurti Committee (1992), and Chavan Committee (1999) make important recommendations for incorporation of value education at all levels of education. Consequently, the National Curriculum Frameworks of 1975, 1988, and 2000 had adopted a value-oriented approach to integration of peace concerns in education (Udaykumar, 2009; and Mondal, 2011).

A major shift in this approach is witnessed in the *NCF (National Curriculum Framework) – 2005*, which considers that value education is subsumed in Education for Peace, but is not identical with it. The National Focus Group on Peace Education constituted in the context of NCF–2005, in its Position Paper on *Education for Peace* says, as follows:

Peace is a contextually appropriate and pedagogically gainful point of coherence for values. Peace concretizes the purpose of values and motivates their internalization. Without such a framework, the integration of values into the learning process remains a non-starter. Education for peace is, thus, the ideal strategy for contextualizing and operationalising value education (NCERT, 2005:1).

While accepting the traditional approach of integration of various peace related values and concern in school curricula, it further adds that education for peace must be a concern that permeates the entire school life – curriculum, co-curriculum, classroom environment, school management, teacher pupil relationship, teaching-learning processes, and the entire range of school activities.

THE RATIONALE AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Need and importance of peace is understood by the increasing conflicts and violence in the society. Conflict violence and war are the products of individual mindsets, which have got condition to violent and aggressive ways. The mindsets are shaped by education, and effective education should produce non-violent and peaceful individuals. The action for nurturing and peace building must be located in the educational system.

The National Curriculum Framework (NCF) – 2005, by NCERT (National Council of Educational Research and Training), asserts that education must be able to promote values that foster peace, humanness, and tolerance in a democracy; and the values of equality, justice, freedom, secularism, and multicultural society. The aims of education enunciated in the NCF include developing commitment concern for others well beings. The NCF speaks of the compelling need for peace education, clearly stating that education must be oriented towards values associated with “peaceful and harmonious coexistence” (NCERT, 2005:9).

This framework also proposes that values of peace education must be integrated into all aspects of education. The researchers intend to review the approach and strategies for education for peace as envisaged in the NCF – 2005. It is also necessary to review how to integrate peace education across the curriculum made by the NCF – 2005. The present paper is a modest attempt in this direction.

The following are major objectives of the present investigation: (1) to epitomize the concept of education for peace in the light of NCF – 2005; (2) to analyze the approach and strategies for promoting education for peace in the school environment; (3) to explore the NCF guidelines for integrating peace education in the curriculum; (4) to analyze the teacher’s role in integrating education for peace in the subject content; and (5), finally, to sketch out some co-curricular activities through which education for peace can be realized as envisaged in the NCF – 2005.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE, METHOD, AND SOURCES OF DATA

Some of the related studies are reviewed below with a view to carrying out the present investigation. James Smith Page (2004) explored some philosophical foundations for peace education and the possibility that such foundations might be located within: (1) virtue ethics, (2) consequentialist ethics, (4) conservative political ethics, and (5) the ethics of care. Each of the above is important, although ultimately a thorough basis for peace education can only be established through an integrative approach to the above foundations, an approach that mirrors much of the emphasis within UN (United Nations) and UNESCO (United Nations of Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization) initiatives to encourage a culture of peace.

S. Pandey (2007), in his study, emphasized on education for peace, not as a part of value education as traditionally been integrated in schools, but as an independent value in itself. He showed the paradigm shift in the approach towards learning for promoting the culture of peace as, both, the constructivist approach; and peace education are associated with the humanistic philosophy which is dedicated to developing more mature and self-directed learner – a pre-requisite for living together. He also opined that the epistemological shift suggested in the NCF (National Curriculum Framework) – 2005 provides greater opportunity to promote the culture of peace than ever before (Pandey, 2007).

Priyadarshani Rajagopalan (2009) interpreted the peace education guidelines laid down by India's NCF – 2005 as five facets of peace education (values embedded in lessons and activities, cultural and social awareness, sensitivity to differences, a pro-active approach and effective, and developmentally appropriate follow-up activities). He also reviewed the suggestions made by the NCF on how to integrate peace education across the curriculum (Rajagopalan, 2009).

Dharmendra Kumar & Kr. Sudheer Pundeer (2012), in their study, pointed out some ways and means to incorporate peace feeling at all levels of schooling, and how peace as a way of life can be inculcated in

the classroom and in various extra-curricular activities of the school and in daily life situations.

Benudhar Chinara (2012) made an attempt to show how to educate the self of a teacher on peace, i.e. orienting self into a culture of peace, carrying out a self-dialogue on peace values, and practicing peace through Universal Ethics, who in turn can empower the selves of the student mass to choose the ways of peace, and in the process the entire society may get transformed to yield the greatest good for all, ensure sustainability of both humans and nature, and result in welfare of the entire society.

The present study is basically analytical in nature based on official documentary evidence. The National Curriculum Framework – 2005, National Focus Group on Education for Peace, Executive Summary of National Focus Groups Position Papers written by National Council of Educational Research and Training have been used as primary sources of data in the study. Various articles published in the journals and books written on peace education have been taken as secondary source of data.

EDUCATION FOR PEACE AND NCF – 2005

The purpose of education goes beyond the propagation of knowledge. Education is now a significant dimension of the long-term process of building up peace: tolerance, justice, intercultural understanding, and civic responsibility. However, education as practiced in schools often promotes forms of violence, both real and symbolic. Under these circumstances, education needs reorientation and, therefore, the school curriculum takes priority.

According to the NCF (National Curriculum Framework) – 2005, peace, as an integrative perspective for the school curriculum, is an idea whose time has come (NCERT, 2005). Education for peace is different from peace education. In the latter, peace is a subject in the syllabus. In the former, peace becomes the shaping vision of education. This implies a paradigm shift in the total transaction of education. Education for peace, as distinguished from peace education,

acknowledges the goal of promoting a culture of peace as the purpose shaping the enterprise of education. If implemented with vigor and vision, education for peace can make learning a joyful and meaningful experience.

The NCF – 2005 is more vocal and direct towards the need of promoting peace through education than the earlier curriculum reform attempts where the concept of peace was subsumed in value education. The NCF – 2005, in its position Paper on Education for Peace proposes, elaborates that:

Education for peace is education for life, and not merely training for a livelihood. Equipping individuals with the values, skills, and attitudes they need to be wholesome persons who live in harmony with others and as responsible citizens is the goal of education for peace (NCERT, 2006:1).

According to Niharika Panda (2013), peace education may be defined as the process of acquiring the values, the knowledge and developing the attitudes, skills and behavior to live in harmony with oneself, with others, and with the natural environment. Historically, moral instruction and value education were the precursors of education for peace. They share much in common.

Religion, according to the National Curriculum Framework for School Education (NCFSE) in 2000, is a source of value generation. Values and attitudes are the building blocks of the culture of peace (NCERT, 2000). What, then, is unique to education for peace?

Education for peace calls for a significant reduction, not an increase, in curriculum load. Peace embodies the joy of living. Learning, from the peace perspective, has to be a joyful experience. Joy is of the essence of life. Peace is not unrelated to pace.

Today's world, hurry and worry sour the joy of learning and undermine learning and the harmony of life. It is a serious matter that schools, which are meant to be the nurseries of peace, become transmission points for violence. Education for peace contextualizes learning. It calls for a liberation of learning from the confines of the classroom and its transformation into a celebration of awareness enlivened with the delight of discovery. NCF

(National Curriculum Framework) – 2005 says as follows:

Education for peace seeks to nurture ethical development, inculcating the values, attitudes, and skills required for living in harmony with oneself and with others, including nature. It embodies the joy of living and personality development with the qualities of love, hope, and courage. It encompasses respect for human rights, justice, tolerance, cooperation, social responsibility, and respect for cultural diversity, in addition to a firm commitment to democracy and non-violent conflict resolution.

Social justice is an important aspect of peace education. The concern for equality and social justice, which refers to practising non-exploitation towards the have-nots, the poor and the underprivileged and creating a non-violent social system, is the hallmark of education for peace.

Similarly, human rights are central to the concept of peace. Peace cannot prevail if the rights of individuals are violated. Basic to human rights are the values of non-discrimination and equality, which contribute to building a culture of peace in society. These issues are inter-related. Peace education is, thus, a host of overlapping values (NCERT, 2008:61-62).

Education for peace, thus, empowers individuals to clarify their values; to enable them to take conscious and deliberate decisions, taking into consideration the consequences of their actions; to choose the way of peace rather than violence; and to enable them to be makers of peace rather than only consumers of peace.

Education for peace, therefore, an essential component of holistic education that aims at the comprehensive development of persons.

Major Frontiers of Education for Peace. NCF (National Curriculum Framework) – 2005, in its Executive Summary, points out the major frontiers for education for peace in the Indian context. This is done with reference to the two major goals of education, namely: education for personality formation and education to foster responsible citizens (NCERT, 2008).

The major frontiers of education for peace are: (1) bringing about peace-orientation in individuals through education; (2) nurturing in students the social skills and outlook needed to live together in harmony; (3) reinforcing social justice, as envisaged in the Constitution; (4) the need and duty to propagate a secular culture; (5) education as a catalyst for activating a

democratic culture; (6) the scope for promoting national integration through education; and (7) education for peace as a lifestyle movement. For realizing the Education for Peace, some strategies can be developed as follows:

First, Simplistic Approach to Moral Behavior. At the time of teaching values, teacher needs to move away from mere talk, to a meaningful discussion of experiences and reflections. The teacher needs to draw out the children, gain their confidence, and avoid using threatening language or hostile body language. Teachers should make deliberate attempts to infuse and reinforce the importance of peace-related values that are commensurate with the textual material taught in school and the developmental stages of children.

Second, Using Appropriate Strategies for Understanding Peace Related Values. Strategies like questions, stories, anecdotes, games, experiments, discussions, dialogues, clarification of values, examples, analogies, metaphors, role playing, and simulation are helpful in promoting peace through teaching-learning. The teaching and practice of ethics go from the personal sphere to social and community-oriented thinking and then link up with global perspectives.

Third, Presenting Lesson or Topic from a Humanistic and Positive Perspective. Every peace-laden topic or lesson (hidden or explicit) needs to be transacted with deliberate planning from a positive and humanistic perspective. The methods of teaching should be creative, child-centred, largely experiential, and participatory. These include creation of appropriate learning experiences, discussion, debates, presentation, and group and cooperative projects, depending on students' maturity levels and the subject content.

Approach to Education for Peace. In the NCF (National Curriculum Framework) – 2005, education for peace is not envisaged as a separate subject that would further augment curriculum load, but a perspective from which all subjects are to be taught. An integrated approach to education for peace is the ideal, especially since peace is an integrative and all-embracing concept. The integrated approach must be reflected in the totality of educational programmes in schools and must permit the

school curriculum and co-curriculum (NCERT, 2005).

NCF – 2005, in its Executive Summary, made some suggestions with respect to curriculum contents. They are as follows:

First, the primary school years could focus on laying the value foundations for personality formation and the development of the social skills necessary to live together in harmony. Focus could then shift gradually to a perspective on peace, especially to enable students to understand the value-foundations of peace. The area of special emphasis here is the need to promote skills for the peaceful resolution of conflicts.

Second, in the upper primary years, students could be enabled to view the culture of peace from the perspective of Indian history, philosophy, and culture.

Third, thereafter, education for peace could focus more on citizenship education. A brief introduction to the basic features and ethos of the Constitution is what is envisaged here. The emphasis may shift, thereafter, to “peace as a lifestyle movement”. Students can be made aware of the need to for lifestyles conducive to the integrity of creation and stability of society. The various challenges to national unity can be the focus thereafter. The main emphasis here must be on promoting an attitude of respect for diversity and difference. Students also need to be made aware of the various hindrances to unity.

Fourth, at the plus two level, the foci of education for peace could be : (1) understanding the logic, modes and expressions of violence; (2) skills for an objective understanding of issues; and (3) developing a global perspective on peace (NCERT, 2008:57).

Integrating Peace in the Curriculum – The NCF Guidelines. The NCF (National Curriculum Framework) proposes that the values of peace education must be integrated into all aspects of education, including teacher training, curriculum, student-teacher relationships, and examinations. In other words, as stated in the NCF, peace education is not an add-on-subject per se but a way of making all the subjects in the curriculum peace-oriented. The NCF guidelines for

integrating peace education in the curriculum have three main areas of focus: teacher training, content, and peace activities for students.

First, on the Teacher Training. The NCF (National Curriculum Framework) suggests, “No reform, however well motivated and well planned, can succeed unless a majority of teachers feel empowered to put it in practice”. Teachers being the central to the entire gamut of all relationships at school, their orientation is most crucial (NCERT, 2007).

Suggestions for teacher include sensitizing teachers to their own biases so that they can set aside judgments while dealing with students. The emphasis is on how teachers can create a non-threatening environment by treating students with respect and thereby help them feel/confident and comfortable. Teachers need intensive training so that they can address issues in a fair and unbiased way and become good role models of peace. Another suggestion is to include discussions and dialogues in everyday processes, thereby setting the stage for respectful communication between students and teachers.

Historically, value education has focused on encouraging desirable behavior; here, the emphasis is on creating an environment that will also offer an opportunity to discuss undesirable feelings and thoughts (Rajagopalan, 2009). Differences between students should be used constructively to support peer learning. A true society is made up of individuals with varied levels of skills and strengths; classrooms and school community should reflect this diversity and value each person’s contributions.

The NCF emphasizes on interdependence and the need for children to be aware of it. Teachers should also be encouraged to contextualize lessons to suit the current situations in the child’s immediate environment.

Second, on the Content. Throughout the NCF (National Curriculum Framework), there is a strong focus on the content a child is exposed to. The language used in texts and other media should be checked to determine age appropriateness and relevant context. The idea is to select appropriate texts that convey

positive values and do not subscribe to any bias or misrepresentation. This is recommended across subjects and can be used both in the classroom and in extra-curricular activities like book or science clubs.

Third, on the Peace Activities for Students. The NCF (National Curriculum Framework) guidelines also suggest activities that call for cooperation and team work as opposed to individual assignments that only foster competition. Projects that require group effort will allow children to work towards a common goal while retaining their individuality through their unique contributions. Suggested peace activities in the NCF can be broadly categorised into three major themes.

The first deals with awareness of issues and the impact of actions at a universal level. For example, helping children realize the impact of wear and tear on a leaf that is passed around the classroom, representing the damage to the environment. The second encourages children to express their own views, be open to other perspectives and build empathy through discussions. The third category gives space for reflecting on issues and organizing events and forums to debate or change policies at their level. For instance, thinking of laws that they might put into action if they were peace lawyers of the country. All of these can be achieved by structuring activities with a purpose and providing space for choice.

Teaching-Learning Activities for Education for Peace: Teacher’s Corner. Education has to ensure peace, according to *National Curriculum Framework for School Education* (NCERT, 2000:34-35); develop peace loving personality, according to *Curriculum Framework for Quality Teacher Education* (NCERT, 1998); and is vital for the effectiveness of promoting a culture of peace, according to *National Curriculum Framework – 2005 Position Paper* (NCERT, 2006:5).

National Curriculum Framework – 2005 Position Paper (2006 : 9) acknowledged “teachers as peace builders” and stressed further that the success of the initiative for education for peace substantially depends on the vision, motivation, skills, and awareness of teachers (NCERT, 2006:23). Teachers who carry out education for peace have to

cherish its values, hold comparable attitudes, and exhibit similar behavioral tendencies'. Teachers as self-reflecting and self-performing individuals thus can play a crucial role for promoting peace in students in the context of global commitment to peace. Their personal commitment and firm determination to the promotion of peace has to be absolute.

NCF – 2005 suggested some examples of teaching-learning activities for integration in the subject content. Children could be asked to: (1) Demonstrate the many ways in which one can show respect to elders at home and in school, in subjects of Environmental Studies or Language; (2) Express the meaning of the word "cooperation" in different subject, in subject of Language; (3) Imagine a peaceful world and what would it be like, in subject of Social Science; (4) Write a story on tolerance, sensitivity to others, etc., in subject of Language; (5) Compose a poem or a song depicting values like honesty, hard work etc., in subject of Language; (6) Organize field visit to local orphanages or old age homes to sensitize students to the loneliness, deprivation, and helplessness of these sections of society; (7) Discuss how environmental degradation affects the poor; and (8) Describe how anger destroys peace, in subjects of Social Science or Language.

Education for Peace can also be realized through the co-curricular life of the school (Ramani, 2004). A number of activities and projects embodying peace themes could be organized in school, such as: (1) Students can be motivated to learn and develop skills for peacemaking by including peace issues in debates, seminars, and audio visual shows; (2) Participation of children in role-plays, dramas, composing peace poems, peace songs, etc.; (3) Participation in various days observed internationally, such as Human Rights Day, Children's Day, United Nations Day, Day for the Disabled, Girl Child Day, Environment Day, etc.; (4) to Help develop sensitivity towards others, children could be encouraged to visit homes for senior citizens, disadvantaged groups, etc. and enabled to develop an interest in their welfare; (5) Religious festivals and national days could be celebrated in the schools and in the

neighborhood; and (6) Story-telling sessions and discussions could be held to promote tolerance and understanding.

CONCLUSION

Education shall be directed towards the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance, and friendship among all nations, racial, or religious groups for maintenance of peace, as cited in an Article 28, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Kumar, 2011). Taking into consideration the very function of education, the NCF (National Curriculum Framework) spelt out that peace education must be integrated across the curriculum, in lessons as well as activities. Peace education must be a concern that permeates the entire school life: curriculum, co-curriculum, classroom environment, school management, teacher-pupil relationship, teaching-learning processes, and the entire range of school activities.

Accordingly, teacher training, the content of social science in particular, and learning through work and activity are three areas, it indicates as warranting attention. Education for peace seeks to nurture ethical development, including the values, attitudes, and skills required for living in harmony with oneself and with others.

The NCF – 2005 set out a few foundational convictions which underlie the contours and contents of education for peace, such as schools are potential nurseries for peace, peace skills promote academic excellence, education for peace can humanize education, teachers can be social healers, and justice is integral to peace. This framework, thus, made a plea to turn education for peace into a people's movement.

Education for peace needs to be seen as an enterprise for healing and revitalizing the nation. Education for peace could be an effective catalyst in activating a holistic vision for education. This could also transform education into a movement for national integration and regeneration, which is the need of the hour.

An approach to education that erodes social

cohesion, aggravates economic inequalities, and undermines ethical foundation needs to be recognized as a threat to peace and a disservice to society. Peace must be pursued with single-minded vigor and an undeviating sense of purpose; and education for peace must be implemented with vision and determination.

Conclusion can be ended with words of Mahatma Gandhi, “*If we are to teach real peace in this world and if we are to carry on a real war against, we shall have to begin with children*”.

REFERENCES

- Chinara, Benudhar. (2012). “Educating Self Peace and Teachers: A Process of Social Transformation” in *University News*, 50(30), pp.10-15.
- Delors, J. (1996). *Learning the Treasure Within: Report of International Commission on Education for the 21st Century*. Paris: UNESCO [United Nations for Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization].
- Kumar, Dharmendra & Kr. Sudheer Pundeer. (2012). “Role of Educational Pillar for Inculcation Peace Education” in *VSRD Technical & Non-Technical Journal*, 3(5), pp.207-212.
- Kumar, Sanjeev. (2011). “Values and Attitudes Required for Peace Education” in *Research Tendem*, 2(6), pp.95-101.
- Mondal, A. (2011). “Ways and Means of Achieving Education for Peace in Schools” in *PANCHAKOTESSAYS*, Vol.2, No.1 [May], pp.139-143.
- NCERT [National Council of Educational Research and Training]. (1998). *Curriculum Framework for Quality Teacher Education*. New Delhi, India: National Council of Educational Research and Training.
- NCERT [National Council of Educational Research and Training]. (2000). *National Curriculum Framework for School Education*. New Delhi, India: National Council of Educational Research and Training.
- NCERT [National Council of Educational Research and Training]. (2005). *National Curriculum Framework – 2005*. New Delhi: National Council of Educational Research and Training.
- NCERT [National Council of Educational Research and Training]. (2006). *National Curriculum Framework – 2005 Position Paper: National Focus Group on Education for Peace*. New Delhi, India: National Council of Educational Research and Training.
- NCERT [National Council of Educational Research and Training]. (2007). *Training Course on Peace Education for Teachers*. New Delhi, India: National Council of Educational Research and Training.
- NCERT [National Council of Educational Research and Training]. (2008). *NCF 2005: Executive Summary of National Focus Groups Position Papers*. New Delhi, India: National Council of Educational Research and Training.
- Page, James Smith. (2004). “Peace Education: Exploring Some Philosophical Foundations” in *International Review of Education*, 50(1), pp.3-15.
- Panda, Niharika. (2013). “Peace Education: The Best Investment for Future Generation” in *University News*, 51(03), pp.13-17.
- Pandey, S. (2007). “Constructivism and the Pedagogy of Education for Peace: A Reflection on School Education Curriculum Reform” in *Journal of Indian Education*, Vol.XXXIII, No.2 [August], pp.21-29.
- Rajagopalan, Priyadarshani. (2009). “From Agenda to Action: Interpreting and Implementing the NCF Peace Education Guidelines” in *Educational Policy Research Series of PRAJNYA*, 1(3).
- Ramani, S. (2004). “Fostering Peace through Education” in *Journal of Indian Education*, Vol.XXIX, No.2 [August].
- Udaykumar, S.P. (2009). “Peace Education in India: A Proposal, Peace Prints” in *South Asian Journal of Peace-Building*, 2(1).
- UNESCO [United Nations of Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization]. (2008). *UNESCO’S Work on Education for Peace and Non-Violence: Building Peace through Education*. Paris: UNESCO.

SUWARTONO

STUDENT'S VOICES IN REFLECTIVE SUPRASEGMENTAL FEATURES PRONUNCIATION TEACHING

ABSTRACT: *Most of the literature on pronunciation discusses what and how to teach. The learner, that is actually the center of the teaching and learning process, remains little known or untouched. Meanwhile, suprasegmentals are of paramount importance in spoken English. The presence of suprasegmental features in speech contributes heavily to intelligibility. Suprasegmental features cover mainly stress, length, tone, and intonation. These features are essentially the same as prosodic elements of language. Perhaps, to most EFL (English as Foreign Language) learners in Indonesia, these features are complicated to master. Some teachers of English even did not seem to show interest in introducing the features to students. This article highlights the reflective process within the students learning the English pronunciation. The data were collected through diaries. The students were provided with small notebooks to write entries of reaction, perception, and learning experience when they were being taught English suprasegmental features using reflective method. Video was utilized to facilitate student engaging in reflective process through main teaching and learning activities of listening to target model, rehearsing monologue or dialogue, video-recording, and playing video clip. Overall, the majority of reflections revealed that the adoption of video as a reflective tool integrated into communicative language activities has helped the students evaluate and self-monitor their own speech performance in learning the English suprasegmental features pronunciation, which is commonly considered complicated.*

KEY WORDS: *Students' voices, reflective, suprasegmental, pronunciation, evaluate, self-monitor, teaching and learning process, diary, and class-room action research.*

INTRODUCTION

Suprasegmentals are of paramount importance in spoken English. The presence of suprasegmental features in speech contributes heavily to intelligibility. In addition, these features convey better impression of the speaker (O'Neal, 2010:65-87). It means improving the pronunciation of English suprasegmentals can facilitate communication, boost self-esteem, and possibly lead to a better future. Therefore, within the context of spoken English communication, suprasegmental features should be given priority or, at least, equality.

Suprasegmental features cover mainly stress, length, tone, and intonation (Ladefoged, 1975:217). These features are essentially the same as prosodic elements of language (Trask, 1996:343). Perhaps, to most EFL (English

as Foreign Language) learners in Indonesia, these features are complicated to master. Some teachers of English even did not seem to show interest in introducing the features to students.

Moedjito (2008:129-142) reported that EFL teachers in Indonesia valued segmental features more than suprasegmental ones. This might be due to a feeling of doubt as to how to teach the suprasegmental features. In the literature on EFL, suprasegmental features teaching methodology is still little known. In the current study, a reflective learning method was adopted to help students learn the English suprasegmental phonemes.

An expert in reflective learning and practice, Jennifer Moon (2003), argues that reflection deals with deep learning. In deep learning, the intention is the learner to develop a personal understanding of the

material and to relate it to what is already known. While Kolb, in the theory experiential learning, explains that the learner's immediate experience is taken as the focus of learning, giving life, texture, and subjective personal meaning to abstract concepts; and at the same time, providing a concrete reference point for testing the implications and validity of ideas created during the learning process (cited in Benson, 2001:38). In experiential learning, he adds, learning is seen as a cyclical process that integrates immediate experience, reflection, abstract conceptualisation, and action. Within the cyclical process, reflection serves as the bridge between experience and theoretical conceptualisation (Benson, 2001).

Concerning English suprasegmental phonemes learning, the relevance of reflection to experiential learning is that learners take the benefit of experience they already have for testing ideas and assumptions exploratively related with English suprasegmental features that are considered difficult to master. Learners, though feeling in doubt, knowing a little or nothing about English suprasegmental features as experience, have readiness to survive under difficult time. Reflective learners may survive searching for patterns in English suprasegmental phonemes by learning from experience they have when working with grammar or learning segmental phonemes, for instance. In other words, reflective learners are motivated to find more alternatives to approach English suprasegmental learning challenges.

From an experiential point of view, the concept of reflection is inseparable from the characteristics of adult learning. Based on age (18 years old or above), the present research participants fall into adult category and, therefore, quite relevant to be discussed in more specific context, i.e. adult education.

Adult learning cannot be regarded as similar to child learning. Brundage and Macheracher mention some characteristics of adult learning, one of which is so closely connected to the concept of reflection: adults see their own experience as learning source. Thus, experience is central in reflective process. It is the focus in adult learning process (cited in Mayuni, 2007). In a narrower context,

in the area of language teaching, it is stated that adults have rich life experience, that can be made use for learning. This means any learning which gives emphasis upon reflective process is suitable for adult language learning.

The concept of reflective or deep learning can also be viewed from a theory which belongs to constructivist theories, namely personal construct theory. Kelly mentions that personal construct theory views human thought as a process of hypothesis testing and theory building involving the continual development and revision of constructs or meaning attached to objects or events in the light of new experience (cited in Benson, 2001). Personal constructs are derived from shared assumptions and values, but systems of constructs are unique to the individual since they are shaped through personal attempts to make sense of experiences that are uniquely one's own. In regard to English suprasegmental phonemes, learning that is considered complicated and construct system that learners have, it is expected that the adoption of reflective learning will raise self-awareness of construct systems available in individual learners.

K. Cercone (2008), in discussing about adult learner characteristics, points out that adult learners need to self-reflect on the learning process and be provided ways to engage in metacognitive reflection by using think logs, reflective journals, and group discussions. This implies that although in adults reflective process already develops, there is no guarantee the process is optimum. Dealing with the current research participants, since they are at their beginning of adulthood, it is likely that reflective process is rarely identified. It is for this reason, teachers are supposed to play a role and give control so that students' reflective process becomes optimum.

In line with what discussed above, Joan Morley (1991) states that pronunciation/ speech study is most profitable when students are actively involved in their own learning, not passively detached repeaters of drills. However, learner self-involvement cannot be left to chance; it must be actively shaped, early and continually, throughout ESL (English as Second Language) course work. Teachers and

materials can help students become involved in say, for instance, the development of self-monitoring skills. Self-monitoring can begin as gentle consciousness-raising with the goal of helping students develop speech awareness, self-observation skills, and a positive attitude toward them by helping them develop a simple self-rehearsal technique—talking to yourself and listening to yourself—as the way to self-monitor.

In the present study, video as reflective tool was adopted to give this kind of impact. Video used in the video clip making makes it possible for students listen and repeat after the model while listening to/watching native speakers. While being replayed, video enables students to make the strategies of active listening and mirroring (Vitanova & Miller, 2002).

METHOD OF RESEARCH

The current study was carried out in the context of an action-research study. An action-research study was chosen to learn and improve classroom practitioner's own teaching activities. The Kemmis and Taggart's model of action research was adopted (cited in Gay & Airasian, 2000:593). The study involved twenty-four second semester students of Class C-2 at the Department of English Language Teaching of UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java, Indonesia, attending Pronunciation course in the 2011/2012 academic year.

The collaborative study contained two cycles, each of which comprised three pronunciation sessions. Main learning activities in each session covered listening to target model, rehearsing monologue or dialogue, video-recording, and playing video clip. Scripts were provided to help the students memorise what to say. Videos available on the campus language labs' computers were made use to facilitate reflection process in the part of students.

Two types of data were gathered: data on teaching and learning process and data on learning outcome. The research qualitative data included teaching and learning activities, teacher's behavior, students' behavior and reaction/response; while the quantitative data dealt with the test result. Qualitative data

were elicited through observation, diary, and interview; while the quantitative data were collected through recorded conversation task and test.

Qualitative data were analysed via analytic induction methods to identify common themes and to extract narratives of experience. Quantitative data were analysed to calculate statistical frequencies, percentages, and means. Triangulation – more than one methods of investigation – was employed to establish validity of the research (Bryman, 1988:131-134), namely: investigator triangulation and method triangulation.

This article is meant to share the main findings revealed in the research diaries. It is especially interesting because the sense “reflective” is twofold in the study: *firstly*, the adoption of video for encouraging students to engage in reflective process; and *secondly*, the use of diary, which is by nature reflective, for collecting the research data. According to David Nunan (1992:118-120), diary is one of important introspective tools in language research. He asserts that diaries enable students to articulate problems they are having with course content and, therefore, get help and promote autonomous learning, encouraging students to take responsibility for their own learning (Nunan, 1992:120).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

The adoption of reflective learning method in the current study was a successful attempt to improve the teaching and learning process. In the pre-intervention period, involvement was a concern. Reflective learning method using video incorporated to communicative, meaningful language activities has encouraged student involvement in the teaching and learning process of the commonly-considered complicated suprasegmental features pronunciation.

Based on the diaries, the students involvement in the teaching and learning process can be explained as follows. Their responses varied, that fell into five to six categories: (1) *positive responses* which comprised the instruction was interesting/exciting, the instruction provided new knowledge, and the instruction was

meaningful; (2) *not wholly positive responses*; (3) *negative responses*; and (4) *others*. “Not wholly positive” constituted responses that contained partly negative responses. “Others” were responses that seemed irrelevant or did not fall into any category already mentioned, for example notes on stress patterns, or personal health.

Below is a figure that displays the students' responses to the instruction at the beginning (first cycle, first session) of the intervention period. The figure 1 shows that positive responses make up around 50 percent of the whole responses.

In the following part, relevant and useful information from the diaries is discussed under those categories mentioned above. It is necessary to note that some responses seemed to overlap quite a lot. Consequently, it is not easy to split up the diary entries into clear-cut categories.

On the Interesting Lessons. The learning activities that tended to be interesting was made possible by the inclusion of exciting learning “menu” in which students were provided with opportunity to directly practice communication in English in meaningful activity, i.e. a challenge to speak in the way the models on the recording do. With facial expressions that could be seen either *on-line* (during production) or *off-line* (after production) on the computer screen, the students became more confident in acting and expressing like in front of mirror and as if nobody had seen them. A student commented: “*I think it's very interesting [...]. Quite exciting like learning drama with expressions when speaking*” (diary of student A, 2/3/2012).

What was written by a female student below could be right. The learning activity created in the instruction was believed to benefit her because, beside exciting – that might lead to a sub-conscious learning – so that learning became more automatic, it enabled her to self-assess her own performance:

The method applied is more varied, and so the atmosphere created is exciting. Therefore,

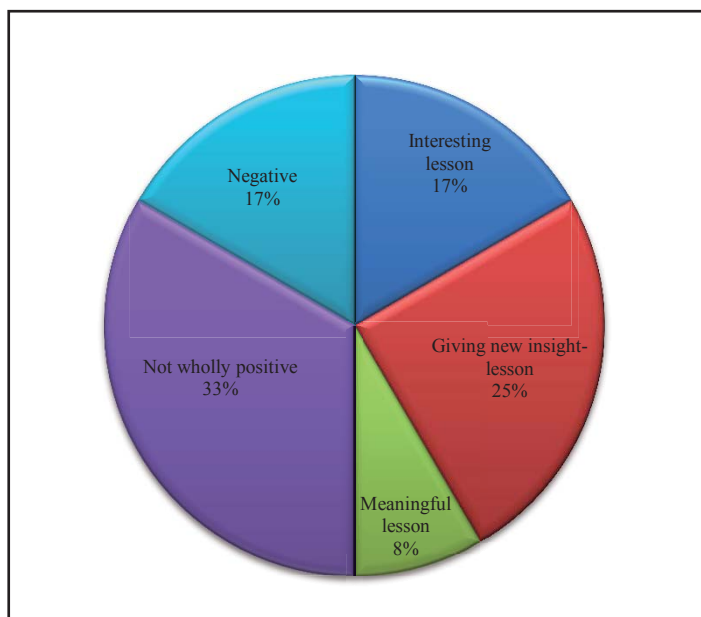


Figure 1:
Students' Responses to the Instruction

the material can be mastered more easily. By practising directly, I can recognise my mistakes and correct them directly (diary of student B, 9/3/2012).

Most students shared positive impressions dealing with the teaching and learning process, primarily the core-activity of video clip making. A student noted about desire to learn and practise as follows:

At the beginning, I felt sleepy as the course is scheduled to start at noon, but now it becomes more interesting. Then, I am making a video clip again and comparing a friend's video clip with mine and delivering comments on flaws or mistakes to correct (diary of student C, 16/3/2012).

This shows an advantage of the intervention adopted, which was not only interesting to the students, but also helped them monitor and modify their own performance, including their speech. The students found the learning activity so exciting that they never wanted to miss any single lesson, as implied in the following diary of a student.

Today I went out for refreshing mind with some mates. I feel a relief, *ehm* [...] but do not have lunch yet, as I was hurried to attend the pronunciation class. This lesson is really

interesting for me. It is always exciting to listen to own voice again, see expressions (diary of student D, 23/3/2012).

On the Meaningful Lesson.

The lessons gave considerable opportunity for the students to use the material being taught. They found the lessons like the real thing. A student, for example, wrote as follows:

I enjoy learning this way, because I can directly practise what is taught by Mr. Ton. I can directly justify when I am right and when I am wrong with the material I learn (diary of student E, 7/4/2012).

The meaningful lesson seemed to have motivated the learners to learn. It is a challenge for teachers of pronunciation in general and suprasegmental features in specific to create an environment that most possibly supports learning.

On the New Insights/Knowledge.

In relation with the intervention adopted, positive responses to the teaching and learning activity carried out can also be traced from other entries written by some participants, as quoted below:

[...] my video is bad. The one deleted was better instead. It's because I'm nervous, time is limited [...], I'm hurried [...]. However, I enjoy learning this way, so that I can show my own ability. Working in groups is not maximum, I have to share and *am* dependent upon others (diary of student F, 14/4/2012).

This example expresses the student valued individual work that was assigned at that moment. While not every learner may have been in favour of the individual activity, it was chosen for a genuine reason. The materials being taught was the stress patterns. The students were expected to make monologue video clips. In addition, this, unintentionally, could serve as a variety and accommodate different needs of learner.

The students seemed actively involved in the classroom activity. They were evaluating, self-



Figure 2:
A Reflective Suprasegmental Features Pronunciation Class

monitoring, and self-correcting their own performance (both speech and visual cues) upon completion of a monologue video clip making. The use of video as reflective tool integrated into communicative language activities has enabled them to engage in reflective process when learning the commonly-considered complicated English suprasegmental features pronunciation.

Similarly, another student wrote: "*Fairly easy, but I have to be careful [...]. A bit difficult to make it, because once is not enough, I have to make and remake a video clip*" (diary of student G, 21/4/2012). Another student commented: "*I am happy, because I can listen to videos from the computer on my desk, so that I can hear more clearly how stress is produced by speakers in the videos*" (diary of student H, 28/4/2012). From the note, it is obvious that a revised plan by sharing video files to all computers in the network was considered beneficial to the student.

Seriousness, involvement, self-monitoring, and evaluation was reflected in most of the expressions produced by the students. The learning that was considered helpful has encouraged them to learn and practice more enthusiastically: "*Thanks God, today I get new knowledge. I have to study harder in order to achieve better*" (diary of student I, 5/5/2012).

The following expression suggests that reflective process has already developed stronger in the student: "*I thinks it is more complicated. I have to find out the verbs first [...]. However, my pronunciation is better, no more dominated by the local accent*" (diary of student J, 12/5/2012). The development of self-monitoring in the parts of students is thought to be associated with the learning process or the teaching and learning activity adopted in the current research study.

A number of students reflected the development of reflective process, including self-monitoring, self-evaluation, and self-correction. A participant, for example, wrote: "*I understand better now, but unfortunately I can't give the right comments*" (diary of student K, 19/5/2012). Similarly, another learner mentioned: "*I am happy, because my speech voice is getting better*" (diary of student L, 26/5/2012).

On the Not Wholly Positive Responses. Some students noted different expressions reflecting responses that are not wholly positive, such as feeling of interest and fun in joining the lessons with no clear reason and sign of being able to monitor and evaluate performance by themselves. A participant commented:

Very, very interesting, although there is a little technical problem the learning activity continues well. With a method that adopts video, I can instantly recognise mistakes in my pronunciation and repeat them better (diary of student F, 14/4/2012).

This shows an advantage of using the intervention adopted, that was not only interesting for the students but also helped them evaluate and correct their own pronunciation. The exciting learning enabled the students to handle learning obstacles they met as implicitly conveyed in the following diary entry of a student.

Again, [...] new sort of intonation material, I am so happy to learn it. It's so interesting. There are errors today, especially in our media, but I think we have good results as we hope. Hopefully, there'll be another exciting lesson next time (diary of student H, 28/4/2012).

A not wholly positive response that reflects developing capacity for monitoring and evaluation in student's own learning is best exemplified in the following note of a low achiever: "*I am still learning intonation. I gradually understand better. However, when practising, I still have difficulty and often make mistakes*" (diary of student C, 16/3/2012). Another note written by another weak yet diligent student contains similar message:

Making a video clip is very interesting. I can act and it's a freedom of performance. However, it seems that I am still having problems with several things in pronouncing words, unable to distinguish when to go up and when to go down (diary of student J, 12/5/2012).

It implies in the note that the writer has been able to self-evaluate learning material mastery. Thus, information of mental process could be found either in positive or negative responses. Such a thing becomes necessary as most of the literature on pronunciation deals with what and how to teach, while the learner remains an abstract, silent body in the classroom. That is why, it is important for pronunciation teachers to listen to students' voices related with their beliefs and thoughts about their pronunciation learning/teaching.

When the teachers listen to the students' voices, they give an opportunity for the development of their self-awareness, involvement, and responsibility in the process of learning suprasegmental phonemes. When the teachers listen to the students' voices, they could determine strategies and pronunciation teaching components the students find most valuable. In the case of English suprasegmental features, this enables the teachers to monitor the students' learning advancement.

CONCLUSION

Diary is valuable to be utilized for "hearing" student voice. It has a high revealing power dealing student reaction, feeling,

perception, and learning experience. In the context of the current research, in which reflective English suprasegmental features pronunciation learning method is adopted, one dominant sort of information from the diary entries is that capacity for self-monitoring, evaluation, and self-correction develops in the students' learning.

This finding is of great value, considering that so far in pronunciation teaching (mostly segmental features), learners have not been taken into account properly. Either teacher or students, with this information, can do the best in the teaching and learning activity. The teacher can immediately give necessary assistance to the students who have learning problems, improve the weak points of teaching and learning process they conducted, and find advancement in the teaching of the commonly-considered complicated suprasegmental features pronunciation materials.

REFERENCES

- Benson, Phil. (2001). *Teaching and Researching Autonomy in Language Learning*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Bryman, Alan. (1988). *Quantity and Quality in Social Research*. London: Unwin Hyman Ltd.
- Cercone, K. (2008). "Characteristics of Adult Learners with Implications for Online Learning Design" in *AACE Journal*, 16(2), pp.137-159. Available [online] also at: editlib.org/d/24286 [accessed in Purwokerto, Indonesia: April 23, 2013].
- Diary of Student A, who was attending in the Pronunciation Classes, at the Department of English Language Teaching, Faculty of Education and Teacher Training UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java, Indonesia: March 2, 2012.
- Diary of Student B, who was attending in the Pronunciation Classes, at the Department of English Language Teaching, Faculty of Education and Teacher Training UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java, Indonesia: March 9, 2012.
- Diary of Student C, who was attending in the Pronunciation Classes, at the Department of English Language Teaching, Faculty of Education and Teacher Training UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java, Indonesia: March 16, 2012.
- Diary of Student D, who was attending in the Pronunciation Classes, at the Department of English Language Teaching, Faculty of Education and Teacher Training UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java, Indonesia: March 23, 2012.
- Diary of Student E, who was attending in the Pronunciation Classes, at the Department of English Language Teaching, Faculty of Education and Teacher Training UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java, Indonesia: April 7, 2012.
- Diary of Student F, who was attending in the Pronunciation Classes, at the Department of English Language Teaching, Faculty of Education and Teacher Training UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java, Indonesia: April 14, 2012.
- Diary of Student G, who was attending in the Pronunciation Classes, at the Department of English Language Teaching, Faculty of Education and Teacher Training UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java, Indonesia: April 21, 2012.
- Diary of Student H, who was attending in the Pronunciation Classes, at the Department of English Language Teaching, Faculty of Education and Teacher Training UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java, Indonesia: April 28, 2012.
- Diary of Student I, who was attending in the Pronunciation Classes, at the Department of English Language Teaching, Faculty of Education and Teacher Training UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java, Indonesia: May 5, 2012.
- Diary of Student J, who was attending in the Pronunciation Classes, at the Department of English Language Teaching, Faculty of Education and Teacher Training UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java, Indonesia: May 12, 2012.
- Diary of Student K, who was attending in the Pronunciation Classes, at the Department of English Language Teaching, Faculty of Education and Teacher Training UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java, Indonesia: May 19, 2012.
- Diary of Student L, who was attending in the Pronunciation Classes, at the Department of English Language Teaching, Faculty of Education and Teacher Training UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java, Indonesia: May 26, 2012.
- Gay, L.R. & P.W. Airasian. (2000). *Educational Research: Competencies for Analysis and Application*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall PTR.
- Ladefoged, Peter. (1975). *A Course in Phonetics*. New York: Harcourt Brace Javanovich, Inc.
- Mayuni, Ilza. (2007). *Peningkatan Mutu Guru Bahasa Inggris Melalui Pendidikan dalam Jabatan*. Bandung: Lubuk Agung.
- Moedjito. (2008). "Priorities in English Pronunciation Teaching in EFL Classrooms" in *K@ta*, 10(2).
- Moon, Jennifer. (2003). "Learning Journals and Logs:

- Reflective *Catatan Harian*es” in *Centre for Teaching and Learning: Good Practice in Teaching and Learning*. Available [online] also at: www.deakin.edu.au/itl/assets/.../tl.../teaching.../learning-journals.pdf. [accessed in Purwokerto, Indonesia: April 18, 2013].
- Morley, Joan. (1991). “The Pronunciation Component in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages” in *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(3).
- Nunan, David. (1992). *Research Methods in Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- O’Neal, George. (2010). “The Effects of the Presence and Absence of Suprasegmental on the Intelligibility and Assessment of an Expanding-Circle English According to Other Expanding-Circle English Listeners”. Available [online] also at: www.dspace.lib.niigata-u.ac.jp:8080/dspace/bitstream/.../1/15_65-87.pdf [accessed in Purwokerto, Indonesia: April 12, 2013].
- Trask, R.L. (1996). *A Dictionary of Phonetics and Phonology*. London: Routledge.
- Vitanova, Gergana & Ann Miller. (2002). “Reflective Practice in Pronunciation Learning” in *The Internet TESL Journal*, 8(1). Available [online] also at: <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Vitanova-Pronunciation.html> [accessed in Purwokerto, Indonesia: January 1, 2013].

THAER ISSA TAWALBEH

TEACHING-LEARNING CHALLENGES FACING STUDENTS OF ENGLISH IN THE PREPARATORY YEAR AT THE TAIF UNIVERSITY, KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA

ABSTRACT: *The present study aimed to investigate the teaching-learning challenges students face in the Preparatory Year Program (PYP) at Taif University from instructors' and students' perspectives. The first two questions were concerned with the instructors' and students' extent of agreement on the challenges students face while learning English in the preparatory year at Taif University from students' and instructors' points of view. The third question tried to answer whether there were any statistically significant differences at ($\alpha = 0.05$) between instructors' and students' responses due to the five domains of teaching-learning challenges. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data related to the first two questions, and Independent t-test was used to answer the third question. The findings of the first question showed that the fifth and the first domains include most of the teaching-learning challenges facing Taif University students in the Preparatory Year Program from the instructors' point of view. The results of the second question indicated that with the exception of the third domain, all the other domains represent teaching-learning challenges facing students from their own points of view. In addition, the results of the first two questions showed an agreement between instructors and students in terms of ranking the fifth and the first domains as having most of the teaching-learning challenges facing students. As for the third question, the findings showed that there were statistically significant differences at ($\alpha = 0.05$) between instructors' and students' views due to the five domains of the teaching-learning challenges. These findings could be due to the fact that instructors and students are two heterogeneous groups having different mentalities, belonging to different age groups, and educational and cultural backgrounds.*

KEY WORDS: *Instructors' perceptions, students' perceptions, teaching-learning challenges, Taif University students, learning EFL, and preparatory year.*

INTRODUCTION

Higher education is capable of making a significant contribution to the development of individuals, and the first academic year can be highly formative in that experience (Bovill, Bulley & Morss, 2011). The negative consequences affect individuals, universities, and societies (Bryson & Hand, 2007; and Tinto, 2006-2007). Strong links have been suggested between a student's early experiences and subsequent progression and success (Flores Juarez, 2005; and Yorke & Longden, 2007 and 2008).

Research may have revealed a variety of teaching-learning challenges that might be

similar in a way or another to the challenges proposed, but in a different context. These challenges might be faced by PYP (Preparatory Year Program) students learning English as a foreign language at Taif University in Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, in their first year of the university study program. And it is worthwhile to state the fact that the academic year 2012 is the first year the PYP is applied at Taif University.

The purpose of the present study is to investigate the teaching-learning challenges students face in the Preparatory Year Program (PYP) at Taif University from instructors' and students' perspectives.

Learners of English as a foreign language encounter number of teaching-learning challenges. These challenges might include factors related to learners' lack of educational and language background knowledge and academic English skills, instructors' teaching and linguistic competencies and pedagogical methods, the course syllabus and learning materials used to provide learners with content in terms of culture and linguistic difficulty, and the physical learning environment where the teaching-learning process is carried. Other factors might include learners' age, anxiety as an obstacle for learning and available resources.

C.P. Cassanave & P. Hubbard (1992) reported that ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages) students need to be competent in academic language skills in order to cope with academic demands at North American schools (cited in Huang, Cunningham & Finn, 1992). They added that students have challenges in all academic language skills. They have difficulty in understanding academic lectures. They find it challenging to participate in classroom discussions and make oral presentations, and they have challenges in academic reading and writing.

D. Moje & D. O'Brien (2000) stated that it is interesting to note that background knowledge of the content can make comprehension easier. Students can comprehend passages better if they reflect their cultural traditions. So, lack of knowledge of culture makes comprehension of texts more difficult.

G. Braine (2002) mentioned that ESOL students have considerable challenges in their academic studies at North American schools, and one of the challenges is their inadequate English proficiency.

B. Ambe (2009) stated that many factors make learning in English challenging for English language learners at the college level. These factors include: (1) the student's level of English language proficiency and prior educational experience; (2) the amount of background knowledge in related areas; (3) experience in the first language; and (4) the learners' age.

B. Elizabeth Ambe (2011) pointed out

in another study that for English language learners at the university level to be successful in their academic endeavors, they need to be proficient in the target language. To be proficient and successful involve overcoming a number of challenges such as the learners' age, the learning environment, lack of background knowledge, and the fact that proficiency in the target language takes several years.

There are many lecturers from Western universities who report difficulties in teaching international Asian students. These difficulties were summarized by J.B. Biggs, as follows:

They rote learn and lack critical thinking skills;
They are passive, they won't talk in class;
They appear to focus excessively on the method of assessment;
They don't understand what plagiarism means;
They stick together [...] won't mix with locals;
They do not easily adjust to local conditions;
They tend to look on lecturers as close to gods;
Progressive Western teaching methods won't work with Asian (Biggs, 2003:125-131).

E. Almanza, de Schonewise & Janette K. Klingner (2012) pointed out that English language learners are the fastest growing segment of the student population. An understanding of the diversity these students bring to contexts of disciplinary learning is critical to determining how best to teach them. At the secondary level, English language learners are required to learn content and build English language proficiency simultaneously. Teachers who work with them should be knowledgeable about: (1) linguistic issues and the second language process; (2) cultural issues and cultural-responsive pedagogy; (3) assessment considerations; and (4) instruction that support language and literacy development in the content areas.

To conclude, the researchers believe that experts into the teaching-learning challenges classified challenges into: *academic language skills* (Cassanave & Hubbard, 1992; Braine, 2002; and Ambe, 2011); *background knowledge* (Moje & O'Brien, 2000; Ambe, 2009; and Ambe, 2011); *students level of English language proficiency, prior educational experience, learning environment, and learners age* (Ambe 2009; and Ambe, 2011); *lack of critical thinking skills, students being passive, and the focus on the method*

of assessment (Biggs, 2003).

However, the present study has classified the teaching-learning challenges into domains that are inclusive to the challenges revealed by the experts; and under each domain, there are a number of detailed items that specify the teaching-learning challenges under investigation. This paper tries to investigate the teaching-learning challenges facing students in the preparatory year at Taif University from the students' and the instructors' points of view. The results are of significance for policy makers and instructors of English.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM, RESEARCH QUESTIONS, DEFINITION OF TERMS, AND SIGNIFICANCE AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

As education specialists working in the field of teaching English as a foreign language, it can be clearly observed that learners of English in general, and Taif University students in specific, encounter a number of teaching-learning challenges while learning English. These challenges might include factors related to learners' lack of educational and language background knowledge. In addition, instructors' teaching and linguistic competencies and pedagogical methods might play a role in causing a learning challenge. Another source of difficulty might be the course syllabus and learning materials used to provide learners with content in terms of culture and linguistic difficulty.

Moreover, the physical learning environment, where the teaching-learning process is carried out, might cause a challenge for learners. Other factors might include learners' age, anxiety as an obstacle for learning, and available resources. This research paper aims to investigate the teaching-learning challenges related to the EFL (English as a Foreign Language) course, teaching-learning process, students and teachers, assessment, and the physical learning environment.

The present study attempted to answer the following questions: (1) What are the teaching-learning challenges facing Taif University students at the preparatory year from instructors' perspectives?; (2) What are the teaching-learning challenges facing Taif

University students at the preparatory year from their own perspectives?; and (3) Are there any statistically significant differences at $\alpha = 0.05$ between the instructors' and students' views due to the domains of the teaching-learning challenges.

The following terms will have the associated meanings whenever they appear in the present study.

First, Teaching-Learning Challenges: Problems and difficulties that face EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners while learning English in the preparatory year program. These difficulties include structure and organization of the EFL course, teaching-learning process, students and teachers, assessment, and the physical learning environment.

Second, Preparatory Year Program: A one-year study program for the high school graduates, where they study fundamental courses that prepare them to specialize in the following year. They are streamed into Humanities, Sciences, and Health Education students.

The results of this study should be of importance and significance to: (1) University personnel, including decision and policy makers, to emphasize, highlight, and follow up all the domains of the teaching-learning challenges in their policies. It is of importance to enhance the implementation of the domains that rank higher and build on those that rank lower from students' and instructors' perspectives; (2) EFL instructors of English to consider the items ranked low throughout their teaching plans; (3) EFL instructors to form a common understanding of what contributes most to their students' effective learning; and (4) Curriculum and course evaluation and adaptation committee to consider the items ranked low in the domain of structure and organization of the EFL course.

The following points could be considered as limitations to the generalization of the findings of the present study. *First*, the present study was limited to the five domains of the teaching-learning challenges developed for the purpose of implementing the present study, namely organization and structure of the EFL course, teaching and learning, students and

teachers, assessment, and physical learning environment. *Second*, the present paper was limited to male EFL students' and instructors' views in the Preparatory Year program in the academic year 2012-2013.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

J. Huang, J. Cunningham & A. Finn (2002) carried out a study to find out what specific language skills are perceived to be most problematic to their ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages) students' academic learning. Results showed that students experience considerable challenges in English academic listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Specifically, understanding classroom tasks, giving oral presentations and being able to communicate a problem, comprehending the main ideas as well as the details of texts were identified as most challenging for the students in academic listening, speaking, reading, and writing respectively.

G. Ellen Batt (2008:39-43) carried out a study which sought to learn directly from the Idaho state's English language learners' educators what they perceived as the greatest challenges and needs for improvement of English Language Learning (ELL) education. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were utilized in the research project. The participants for this study were purposefully selected to attain a maximum, all-inclusive sample of the rural state's educators with a primary role in ELL education. The study sample consisted of a total of 161 participants.

Teachers perceived that not all educators who work with ELLs in their schools were qualified to work with linguistic minority students. In response to the question whether all staff members in their school who serve ELLs are highly qualified for their positions, thirty-nine percent of the respondents indicated "no" and 55 percent of the respondents indicated "yes". Six percent did not respond to the question (Batt, 2008).

One of the open-ended questions on the survey asked: "*What are the three greatest challenges you face in educating ELLs?*". Twenty percent of the respondents indicated that the lack of colleagues' knowledge and skills

in educating ELLs was one of their three greatest challenges. Many teachers indicated that their colleagues lacked an understanding of diversity or multicultural education. ELL specialists' pointed out that extra duties in addition to their instructional roles constrain teachers' effectiveness and create much pressure and personal stress. Eighteen percent of the respondents specified that allocated time in the workday to accomplish the workload demanded of them was one of their greatest challenges. The teacher respondents identified priorities for professional development to compensate for knowledge and skills not obtained during the teacher certification process. The ELL practitioners also recommended restructuring solutions to improve ELL education (Batt, 2008).

In order of priority ranking, they proposed for their school to: hire more ESL (English as a Second Language) or Bilingual Education certified teachers (75 percent); create an ESL consulting teacher position (52 percent); hire more bilingual education assistants (45 percent); create a Sheltered English academy (44 percent); provide effective professional development (41 percent); group students by the same language proficiency levels (30 percent); change the ESL curriculum (20 percent); and use a different education model (14 percent).

B. Uckun & Jessica Buchanan (2008) conducted a comparative study to examine the education culture in two Turkish universities involving native teachers, English speaking foreign teachers, and their Turkish students in an attempt to understand the strengths, weaknesses, and challenges faced by both students and teachers. Four versions of the questionnaire were administered to 15 teachers and 228 students. All four versions focused on classroom management and examination procedures, pedagogy, and other affective factors.

The authors aimed to investigate students' and teachers' mutual beliefs, perceptions, and expectations of each other within the educational context and whether any differences could be accounted for by cultural differences between the two parties. This study was designed by both a Turkish academic

and a native English speaking instructor, a collaboration which serves to temper cultural biases inherent to any culturally based inquiry. The researchers found out that cultural diversity between students and teachers may be a source of “miscommunication” that compromises the learning/teaching environment. In such cases, students may be accused of poor performance or teachers may be blamed for inadequate methodology. The researchers hoped to maximize the effectiveness of cross-cultural classrooms as well as to suggest directions for further research (Uckun & Buchanan, 2008).

B. Ambe (2009) explored the processes by which a foreign-born English language learner with limited English proficiency acquired literacy skills for university work, and examined the strategies that the student used to comprehend course content. Data revealed that the English language learner encountered difficulties in the following domains: receptive and expressive aspects of the English language; written assignments; comprehension; and the teaching, learning, and assessment models of the host country.

The student employed strategies such as asking questions, seeking academic peer coaching, and using multiple media to succeed. Implications and recommendations were made for both instructors to adopt instructional approaches that would enable adult English language learners to attain higher levels of language proficiency and academic success (Ambe, 2009).

Srichanyachon (2010) investigated goal setting for learning English language of Bangkok University students. A set of questionnaires for the assessment of goal settings and problems of learning English was administered to 370 second-year students. The study revealed that the goal setting was at a moderate level. There were statistically significant differences found in the students’ opinions for goal setting at .05 level as classified by gender, faculty, and English learning experience, but no statistically significant differences in terms of educational background.

Moreover, there was a positive relationship between English background knowledge and

goal setting at .05 level. There was a negative relationship between English background knowledge and problems of learning English at .05 level. In addition, there was a negative relationship between goal setting and problems of learning English at .05 level (Srichanyachon, 2010).

C.T. Nguyen (2011) conducted a study to explore the challenges students from selected South East Asian countries (Vietnam, Thailand, and Indonesia) face while studying English in Australia before entering into Australian university courses. The study was conducted at one of the largest language institutions in Melbourne, and the results collected draw on the English learning experiences of nine students (three Vietnamese, three Thailand, and three Indonesian) and two language teachers. Semi-structured interviews were adopted as the primary data collection method, and this allowed the major problems that these students experience while studying English for university entry to be identified. He found out that these students must contend not only with different styles of teaching and learning, but also with the challenge of adapting to a new culture (Nguyen, 2011).

As for their English learning experiences in the countries of origin, C.T. Nguyen (2011) found out that all students acknowledged that English lectures in their countries focused a lot on grammar, and other skills were not adequately taught. They reported that from primary school to high school, or even at university, teachers often taught them grammar and vocabulary which was taken from textbooks. They all recognized that, at that time, they were learning English theoretically and not pragmatically. Others skills like speaking, pronunciation, listening, or writing were also taught but not efficiently, as asserted by participants.

With regard to student-teacher interaction, all Vietnamese, Thailand, and Indonesian students stated that there was a distance between teachers and students, both inside and outside classroom. In classrooms, teachers worked mostly by themselves, and students listened and wrote in silence without interrupting teachers’ work (Nguyen, 2011).

With regard to the challenges of learning

English in Australia, C.T. Nguyen (2011) stated that the common problems of Vietnamese, Thailand, and Indonesian students are pronunciation, speaking, and plagiarism in writing. Both teachers stated that these cohorts of students have problems when they pronounce English words, especially with consonant classes and word ending like s, sh, t, d, x, g, or j.

All of the respondents admitted that the rule of plagiarism in writing in their countries is not as strict as it is in English. In the first few weeks in language classes in Australia, those students felt puzzled with how to quote and paraphrase and also how to avoid plagiarism in academic writing (Nguyen, 2011).

The researcher found out that the reasons leading to the difficulties in learning English include: (1) *Different linguistic structures*: All teachers and students agreed that there were no strict rules for pronunciation in Thailand, Vietnamese, and Indonesian languages; and (2) *Difficulties in adapting with new culture, language, and learning styles*: Southeast Asian students still kept their traditional characteristics when studying overseas, and this was not easy to be changed overnight (Nguyen, 2011).

H. Yi-Chang (2011) conducted a study to investigate self-perceived anxiety levels of Taiwanese EFL (English as a Foreign Language) university students speaking English under different contextual conditions, including in class and outside of class, presenting individually and in groups, and learning English in formal and informal situations. A total of 191 students completed two survey questionnaires for the data collection.

The results demonstrated that students had a higher level of self-reported anxiety speaking English in the classroom than outside of classroom. And students making oral presentations individually tended to have a higher level of self-reported anxiety than students making presentations in groups. Besides, students learning English in formal situations tended to have a higher level of self-reported anxiety than students learning in informal situations. This study provided a framework that would help language educators and learners acquire a better understanding of the effect of different contextual conditions on

Taiwanese EFL university students' language learning anxiety in a language classroom (Yi-Chang, 2011).

To sum up, the challenges discussed above represent a number of teaching-learning challenges revealed by literature. These have been categorized by experts into: *prior knowledge and skills* (Batt, 2008); *academic language skills* (Huang, Cunningham & Finn, 2002); *understanding of multicultural education and extra duties* (Batt, 2008); *classroom management, assessment procedures, pedagogy, and cultural differences* (Uckun & Buchanan, 2008); *limited English proficiency* (Ambe, 2009); *goal setting* (Srichanyachon, 2010); *styles of teaching and learning, adapting to a new culture* (Nguyen, 2011); and *anxiety levels* (Yi-Chang, 2011).

However, the context in which these challenges have been experienced is different. The present study has investigated the challenges that Taif University students face in the Preparatory Year Program, which has been implemented at the university for the first time since the beginning of the academic year 2012. Moreover, the challenges under investigation have been divided into domains that reflect a wide variety of teaching-learning challenges that are expected to be encountered by students in the Preparatory Year Program at Taif University in the academic year 2012 after implementing the first year of this program.

Identification of these challenges would help policy makers and instructors to identify the reasons behind the difficulties and, thus, put forward solutions. The domains under investigation include structure and organization of the EFL course, students and teachers, teaching and learning, assessment, and the physical learning environment.

METHOD

This section of the research discusses the method followed to gather and analyze data. It includes population and sample of the study, instrument, validity and reliability of the instrument, procedures of the study, and the statistical analysis method.

Population and Sample. The population of the study comprised all male Taif University EFL (English as a Foreign Language) students and instructors in the Preparatory Year

Program. The total number of students was 3,700 and the total number of instructors was 55. A convenient sampling technique was used to recruit the participants of this study. A sample of 326 male students was selected, which is about 10% of the population, and 55 instructors which is the whole population.

Instrument of the Study. The researcher developed two questionnaires of 60 items each. I have been adapted from two projects by M. Holmquist *et al.* (2002) and N. Entwistle, Velda McCune & Jenny Hounsell (2002) to investigate the teaching-learning challenges facing Taif University students in the Preparatory Year Program at Taif University from students' and instructors' perspectives (see Appendix A).

Likert scale of four degrees (strongly agree = 1, agree = 2, don't agree = 3, strongly disagree = 4) was used to determine the extent of students' and instructors' level of agreement on the teaching-learning challenges. The four degrees of the scale have been entered as numbers for the purpose of analysis, so numbers 3 and 4 represent challenges. This means that a mean of 2 or more indicates a teaching-learning challenge. The items have been positively directed; they have been formed to represent the positive aspect of a statement.

Validity of the Instrument. The questionnaires are valid since the items have been derived from two teaching-learning projects developed by a group of experts, namely M. Holmquist *et al.* (2002) and N. Entwistle, Velda McCune & Jenny Hounsell (2002). However, the questionnaires were also given to 10 EFL (English as a Foreign Language) specialists who were asked to determine whether or not the questionnaires items were clear and relevant to the domain. The jury of judges suggested that since the items are general and applicable to all teachers, they should be modified in such a way that they are more specific to address EFL Jordanian teachers.

Reliability of the Instrument. In order to guarantee the questionnaires reliability, it was distributed to a sample of 25 students and 10 instructors other than the subjects of the study in order to ask for their responses. It was distributed again two weeks later, so that the

researcher counts its reliability. The results were calculated and analyzed.

The correlation coefficient (Pearson) between the previous and post responses for the students' questionnaire was 0.85 and 0.87 for the instructors' questionnaire, which is considered acceptable for the study. The Cronbach alpha reliabilities for the two versions of the questionnaire were .88 for the students' questionnaire and .90 for the instructors' questionnaire.

Procedures of the Study. After getting the approval of the university to distribute the questionnaires on the participants of the study in the Preparatory Year Program at Taif University, the researcher identified the population and the sample of the study and carried out the process of questionnaires validity and reliability.

Then, I asked a number of colleagues to distribute 425 questionnaires on the students, and received 375 questionnaires, so the response rate is 88%. The researcher excluded 39 questionnaires where many items were missing. Meanwhile, the researcher distributed 55 questionnaires on the instructors and received them all. Finally, the researcher analyzed the results and drew conclusions and recommendations based on the results of the study.

Statistical Analysis. In order to answer the first and the second questions related to the teaching-learning challenges facing Taif University students from their own perspectives and from the instructors' perspectives, descriptive statistics were used. To answer the third question concerning whether or not there were any statistically significant differences at ($\alpha = 0.05$) between students and instructors due to the domains of the teaching-learning challenges, Independent t-test was used.

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

This part shows the findings of the present study in terms of the three questions highlighted in the study.

With regard to the first question related to the teaching-learning challenges facing Taif University students in the Preparatory Year Program from their instructors' point of view, the table 1 shows the means and standard

Table 1:

Means and Standard Deviation of the Instructors' Responses to the Five Domains from Their Points of View

Domain	Means	Std. Deviation
The First Domain: Organization and Structure of the EFL Course	2.19	.37
The Second Domain: Teaching and Learning English	1.90	.30
The Third Domain: Students and Teachers	1.51	.33
The Fourth Domain: Assessment and Other Set Work	1.99	.33
The Fifth Domain: Physical Learning Environment	2.78	.53

Table 2:

Percentages of the Instructors' Responses to the Five Domains

Number	Domain	Agree	Don't Agree
1	Organization and Structure of the EFL Course	25.45	75.55
2	Teaching and Learning English	61.82	38.18
3	Students and Teachers	94.55	5.45
4	Assessment and Other Set Work	56.36	43.64
5	Physical Learning Environment	10.91	89.09

Table 3:

Means and Standard Deviation of the Students' Responses to the Five Domains from their Points of View

Domain	Means	Std. Deviation
The First Domain: Organization and Structure of the EFL Course	2.26	.47
The Second Domain: Teaching and Learning English	2.14	.48
The Third Domain: Students and Teachers	1.88	.51
The Fourth Domain: Assessment and Other Set Work	2.13	.49
The Fifth Domain: Physical Learning Environment	2.56	.72

deviation of the instructors' responses to the five domains included in the questionnaire distributed to them.

The table 1 indicates that the fifth and the first domains include most of the teaching-learning challenges facing Taif University students in the Preparatory Year Program from the instructors' point of view.

The table 2 gives more details on the percentages of the instructors' responses to the five domains of the teaching-learning challenges facing students.

It is clear from the table 2 that instructors don't agree mostly with the fifth and the first domains, which represents a teaching-learning challenge for the students.

With regard to the second question related to the teaching-learning challenges facing Taif University students in the Preparatory Year Program from their own points of view, the table 3 shows the means and standard

deviation of the instructors' responses to the five domains included in the questionnaire distributed to them.

The table 3 indicates that with the exception of the third domain, all the other domains represent teaching-learning challenges facing students from their own points of view. In addition, tables 1 and 4 indicate that there is an agreement between the instructors and students in terms of ranking the fifth and the first domains as having most of the teaching-learning challenges facing students. They also agree that the third domain include the least challenges facing students from the instructors' as well as the students' points of view.

The table 4 gives more details on the percentages of the students' responses to the five domains of the teaching-learning challenges from their own points of view.

It is clear from the table 4 that the fifth and the first domains received the highest

Table 4:
Percentages of the Students Responses to the Five Domains

Number	Standards	Agree	Don't Agree
1	Organization and Structure of the EFL Course	31.29	68.71
2	Teaching and Learning English	42.33	57.67
3	Students and Teachers	60.43	39.57
4	Assessment and Other Set Work	45.09	54.91
5	Physical Learning Environment	23.00	77.00

Table 5:
Means and Standard Deviation of the Instructors' and students' Responses to the Items from Their Points of View

Domain No.	Item No.	Means for Instructors	Item No.	Means for Students
1	2	2.56	11	2.78
	5	2.52	9	2.73
	10	2.36	14	2.41
	7	1.96	8	1.98
	1	1.92	7	1.96
	3	1.83	1	1.91
2	16	2.58	17	2.67
	27	2.30	19	2.23
	15	2.29	27	2.23
	22	1.61	24	2.00
	24	1.52	22	2.00
	23	1.52	26	1.96
3	31	2.03	34	2.81
	32	1.89	38	1.95
	30	1.60	36	1.92
	33	1.34	37	1.75
	40	1.29	29	1.69
	29	1.27	28	1.67
4	41	2.81	41	2.88
	46	2.18	44	2.21
	43	2.18	43	2.19
	48	1.72	50	1.92
	49	1.69	48	1.91
	50	1.49	45	1.82
5	59	3.45	59	2.99
	55	3.32	55	2.86
	52	3.10	60	2.65
	58	2.52	51	2.42
	56	2.29	57	2.38
	54	2.05	54	2.35

percentages in terms of students' disagreement, which represents a teaching-learning challenge facing them from their own point of view.

The table 5 displays the items that represent most of the teaching-learning challenges facing the students from their instructors' as well as students' points of view.

The table 5 displays the first three highest

and the least three means of the instructors' and students responses to the items of the teaching-learning challenges facing students, and that all the items that got a mean of 2 or more represent a teaching-learning challenge for students. It is evident that all the items included in the fifth domain related to the physical learning environment include represent a teaching-

Table 6:
Means and Standard Deviation of the Instructors' and Students' Responses to the Five Domains of the Teaching-Learning Challenges

Domain	Means for Instructors	Mean for Students	t. Value	Df	Sig.
1. Organization and Structure of the EFL Course	2.19	2.26	-.949	379	.343
2. Teaching and Learning English	1.90	2.14	-3.626	379	.00
3. Students and Teachers	1.51	1.88	-5.238	379	.00
4. Assessment and Other Set Work	1.99	2.13	-2.164	379	.031
5. Physical Learning Environment	2.78	2.56	1.134	379	.073
Total Average	2.07	2.19	-2.22	379	.02

learning challenge for students from instructors' as well as students' views.

In addition, it is clear from the fifth domain that there is an agreement between the instructors and students in terms of ranking items number 59 and 55 as having most of the teaching-learning challenges facing students. They also agree that item number 54 represents the least challenge in the fifth domain of the challenges facing students from the instructors' as well as the students' points of view.

To answer the third question related to whether or not there were any statistically significant differences between the instructors' and the students' views due to the domains of the teaching-learning challenges, the table 6 shows means and standard deviation of the instructors' and students' responses to the five domains of the challenges.

It is clear from the table 6 that there were statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) between instructors' and students views of the teaching-learning challenges facing students in the Preparatory Year Program at Taif University due to the five domains of the teaching-learning challenges.

However, there were no statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) between instructors' and students views in the first and fifth domains, which comes in agreement with previous results indicating a consensus of instructors and students on ranking these domains as having most of the teaching-learning challenges for students.

DISCUSSIONS

As for the first question related to the teaching-learning challenges facing students

from the instructors' points of view, it is clear that the fifth and the first domains represent most of the teaching-learning challenges. The fifth domain related to the physical learning environment got the highest rank of challenges as all the items represent a challenge for students.

The instructors seem to reflect a realistic situation since the physical learning environment is inappropriate enough. According to them, the most salient challenges include classrooms which are neither equipped for the disabled nor with effective teaching aids. In addition, the seating arrangements are inflexible for pair work and group work.

In addition, the first domain concerning the organization and structure of the EFL (English as a Foreign Language) course got the second rank in terms of the challenges facing students from the instructors' point of view. The textbooks have been adopted for the preparatory year students regardless a careful assessment analysis of their academic or language needs.

The most salient concerns include issues related to the facts that most of the instructors believe that students are not given a good deal of choice over how they go about learning in the course. Many instructors added that the course doesn't sharpen their analytical skills and does not help students to develop their ability to plan for their own work. All in all, students don't feel relaxed to do well in the course.

With regard to the second question about the teaching-learning challenges facing students from their own point of view, it was clear that with the exception of the second domain, all the other domains represent a

challenge for students. They ranked the fifth and the first domains as having most of the challenges. This comes in agreement with the instructors' views in these two domains in general, which may support the point that the domains of physical learning environment and the organization and structure of the EFL course should be revisited.

As for the third question which showed that there were no statistically significant differences between instructors and students due to the five domains of the teaching-learning challenges, it can be stated that although there was a consensus between instructors and students on the fifth and the first domains, the results indicated that there were major differences between the instructors' and students' views.

Firstly, instructors indicated that there were only two domains that showed teaching-learning challenges for students, namely: (1) the physical learning environment; and (2) the organization and structure of the course. Meanwhile, students indicated that with the exception of the third domain about students and teachers, all the other domains represent a challenge for them.

Besides, it can be claimed that instructors and students are two heterogeneous groups having different mentalities, belonging to different age groups and educational and cultural backgrounds. Instructors are mature enough to consider and evaluate issues scientifically and objectively; they have got the experience required to judge the items of the domains according to scientific standards. This might help explain why they only found two domains of challenges faced by students.

Meanwhile, students might not have the knowledge and experience to judge the items according to internationally recognized standards used by their instructors. Besides, they are in their first year of this academic environment at university in which they have not adapted themselves enough to it. This might help explain the results indicating that they consider most of the domains as challenges for them.

To sum up, the previous studies share this study in that they all discuss one or more of a teaching-learning challenge that face students

at university level. For example, some studies discussed challenges related to academic language skills needed by students at university (Cassanave & Hubbard, 1992; Braine, 2002; Huang, Cunningham & Finn, 2002; Batt, 2008; and Nguyen, 2011).

Others discussed challenges of background knowledge (Moje & O'Brien, 2000; Ambe, 2009; and Ambe, 2011). Another study was about the difficulties of learning environment (Ambe, 2011). Other studies were conducted to investigate challenges related to cultural issues (Uckun & Buchanan, 2008; and Almanza, Schonewise & Klingner, 2012).

In addition, a study found out that students have difficulties in critical thinking, being passive, not being able to mix, and ineffectiveness of progressive teaching methods (Biggs, 2003). Some of the challenges discussed above were included in the present study such as the learning environment (Ambe, 2011).

CONCLUSION

However, the present study was carried out to investigate a more comprehensive set of teaching-learning challenges students face in their first year of studying at university. It tried to investigate challenges related to the EFL (English as a Foreign Language) course, teaching learning process, student and teachers, assessment, and the physical learning environment in which all the teaching-learning process is implemented.

Based on the results of the study, the researcher recommends the following:

First, policy makers as well as instructors should pay more attention to preparing a suitable physical learning environment that enable students to maximize their opportunities of learning English in the Preparatory Year Program at Taif University.

Second, the curriculum committee should consider all the items of the questionnaire while reviewing and revising the course as both instructors and students agreed that the course being used represent a challenge for students.

Third, other studies should be conducted to investigate the teaching-learning challenges facing female students in the Preparatory Year Program at Taif University.

Fourth, professional development workshops for instructors on the domains that reflected teaching-learning challenges facing students from their own of view, namely organization and structure of the EFL course, teaching and learning English, assessment, and physical learning environment.

REFERENCES

- Almanza, E., de Schonewise & Janette K. Klingner. (2012). "Linguistic and Cultural Issues in Developing Disciplinary Literacy for Adolescent English Language Learners" in *Top Lang Disorders*, 32(1), pp.51-68.
- Ambe, B. (2009). "Literacy Skills Acquisition and Use: A Study of an English Language Learner in a U.S. University Context" in *Adult Basic Education and Literacy Journal*, 3(1), pp.24-33.
- Ambe, B. Elizabeth. (2011). "Post-Secondary Learning: Recognizing the Needs of English Language Learners in Mainstream University Classroom" in *Adult Basic Education and Literacy Journal*, 4(1), pp.13-19.
- Batt, G. Ellen. (2008). "Teachers' Perceptions of EFL Education: Potential Solutions to Overcome the Greatest Challenges" in *Multicultural Education*. Buckingham: Caddo Gap Press.
- Biggs, J.B. (2003). *Teaching for Quality Learning at University*. Buckingham: The Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.
- Bovill, C., Cathy J. Bulley & Kate Morss. (2011). "Engaging and Empowering First-Year Students through Curriculum Design: Perspectives from Literature" in *Teaching in Higher Education*, 16(2), pp.197-209.
- Braine, G. (2002). "Academic Literacy and Non-Native Speaker Graduate Students" in *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 1, pp.59-68.
- Bryson, C. & L. Hand. (2007). "The Role of Engagement in Inspiring Teaching and Learning" in *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 44, pp.349-362.
- Cassanave, C.P. & P. Hubbard. (1992). "The Writing Assignments and Writing Problems of Doctoral Students: Faculty Perceptions, Pedagogical, and Needed Research" as cited in J. Huang, J. Cunningham & A. Finn. "Teacher Perceptions of ESOL Students' Greatest Challenges in Academic English Skills: A K-12 Perspective" in *IJAES: International Journal of Applied Educational Studies*, 8(1), pp.68-80.
- Entwistle, N., Velda McCune & Jenny Hounsell. (2002). "Approaches to Studying and Perceptions of University Teaching-Learning Environments: Concepts, Measures, and preliminary Findings" in *ETL Project: Teaching and Learning Research Program*. Coventry and Durham: University of Edinburgh.
- Flores Juarez, J.B. (2005). "Promoting Student Success: Students' Perceptions of the Factors that Influence their Engagement at a Mexican University". *Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation*. Austin: University of Texas. Available [online] also at: <http://repositories.lib.utexas.edu/handle/2152/1546> [accessed in Taif, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: January14, 2013].
- Holmquist, M. et al. (2002). *Large-Class Teaching/Learning: A C-Selt Project*. Sweden: Chalmers University of Technology.
- Huang, J., J. Cunningham & A. Finn. (2002). "Teacher Perceptions of ESOL Students' Greatest Challenges in Academic English Skills: A K-12 Perspective" in *IJAES: International Journal of Applied Educational Studies*, 8(1), pp.68-80.
- Moje, D. & D. O'Brien. (2000). "Reexamining Roles of Learners, Text, and Context in Secondary Literacy" in *Journal of Educational Research*, 93(3).
- Nguyen, C.T. (2011). "Challenges of Learning English in Australia towards Students Coming from Selected Asian Countries: Vietnam, Thailand, and Indonesia" in *Canadian Center of Science and Education*, 4(1), pp.13-21.
- Srichanyachon. (2010). "Goal Setting for Learning English of EFL Students". Paper presented in the V Worldwise Forum on Education and Culture, in Rome, Italy.
- Tinto, V. (2006-2007). "Research and Practice of Student Retention: What Next?" in *Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory, and Practice*, 8, pp.1-19.
- Uckun, B. & Jessica Buchanan. (2008). "Investigation of Cross-Cultural Communication between Native English-Speaking Lecturers and Their Students in Turkish Tertiary Education" in *University of Gaziantep Journal of Social Sciences*, 9(1), pp.101-129.
- Yi-Chang, H. (2011). "The Effect of Situational and Contextual Variables on Taiwanese University Students' Self-Perceived Language Learning Anxiety Levels in the EFL Classroom" in *Pro Quest Dissertations and Theses*.
- Yorke, M. & B. Longden. (2007). *The First-Year Experience of Higher Education in the UK: Report on Phase 1 of a Project Funded by the Higher Education Academy*. London, UK: HEA [Higher Education Academy]. Available [online] also at: http://www.heacademy.ac.uk/assets/York/documents/ourwork/research/FYE/web0573_the_first_year_experience.pdf [accessed in Taif, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: September 10, 2013].
- Yorke, M. & B. Longden. (2008). *The First-Year Experience of Higher Education in the UK: Final Report*. London, UK: HEA [Higher Education Academy]. Available [online] also at: <http://www.heacademy.ac.uk/assets/York/documents/resources/publications/FYEFinalReport.pdf> [accessed in Taif, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: January 23, 2014].

Appendice A:

Dear, students/instructors.

The researcher intends to conduct a study to investigate the instructors' and students' perceptions of teaching-learning challenges facing students in learning EFL in the Preparatory Year at Taif University.

To conduct this study, the researcher will distribute a questionnaire to identify your present level of the teaching-learning challenges you face while learning English in the Preparatory Year at Taif University.

You are kindly requested to read the items and indicate the degree of your agreement on the challenges you face.

Please note that your contribution will be dealt with professionally and for research purposes only.

Thanks for your highly appreciated cooperation.

The researcher

Please, put (√) in the box that corresponds to your point of view when learning English.

No.	Domain	Degree			
	The First Domain: Organization and Structure of the EFL Course	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	It is clear to me what I am supposed to learn in this course.				
2	I am given a good deal of choice over how I go about learning in this course.				
3	The course units are well organized and run smoothly.				
4	The course helps me to develop my problem-solving skills.				
5	The course sharpens my analytical skills.				
6	The course helps me to develop my ability to work as a team-member.				
7	The course improves my skills in written communication.				
8	I am generally given enough time to understand the topics I have to learn.				
9	I feel relaxed to do well in this course.				
10	The course helps me to develop my ability to plan my own work.				
11	The course is easy to cover, which makes it possible to comprehend thoroughly.				
12	The course strengthens my ability to discuss with others in a reasonable way.				
13	The course encourages me to relate what I learn to issues in the wider world.				
14	Overall, I am satisfied with the quality of the course.				
	The Second Domain: Teaching and Learning English				
15	The different types of teaching (lectures, tutorials, labs, etc.) support each other well.				
16	I always have a positive role in lectures.				
17	The lectures are mostly an innovation of the course content.				
18	The lectures are effective and clear.				
19	I am encouraged to look for links between the course units.				
20	The handouts and other materials I am given help me to understand the course units.				
21	The teaching encourages me to rethink my understanding of the aspects of the course.				

Domain	Degree			
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
23	I am prompted to think about how well I am learning and how I may improve.			
24	I am not just given information; the teacher explains how knowledge is developed in this course.			
25	The teaching helps me to think about the evidence underpinning different views.			
26	The teacher helps me to see how I am supposed to think and reach conclusions in this course.			
27	I find most of what I learn really interesting.			
The Third Domain: Students and Teachers				
28	The teacher tries to share his enthusiasm about the course with us.			
29	The teacher is patient in explaining the topics which seem difficult to grasp.			
30	My views are valued in this course.			
31	We support each other and try to give help when it is needed.			
32	Talking with other students help me to develop my understanding.			
33	The teacher motivates me to do my best in the course.			
34	The teacher seems more interested in testing what I have understood than what I have memorized.			
35	The teacher makes a real effort to understand difficulties I may be having in my work.			
36	The teacher normally gives me helpful feedback on how I am going.			
37	The teacher is very good at explaining the topics.			
38	The teacher encourages me to try my own ideas.			
39	The teacher lectures the content in a clear way.			
40	The teacher makes a real effort to have me actively taking part in lectures.			
The Fourth Domain: Assessment and Other Set Work				
41	There are too many examination tasks on complex facts.			
42	In the examinations, I am expected not only to show what I have learnt, but also to apply my knowledge practically.			
43	The examinations help me to understand the content better.			
44	It is clear to me what is expected in the assessed work for this course.			
45	I have to really understand the topics to get good marks in this course.			
46	To do well in this course, I have to think critically about the topics.			
47	The teacher encourages me to think about how best to tackle the set work.			
48	The feedback given on my work helps me to improve my ways of learning and studying.			
49	The feedback given on my set work helps to clarify things I have not fully understood.			
50	The teacher gives me the support I need to help me complete the set work for this course.			
The Fifth Domain: Physical Learning Environment				
51	The number of seats is adequate in relation to classroom display.			

Domain	Degree			
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
53	The number of students suites pair and group work.			
54	Lighting is enough for effective learning.			
55	Classroom is equipped with effective teaching aids.			
56	Ventilation is appropriate for effective learning.			
57	Classroom space and size are adequate for the number of students.			
58	Space of display is enough for effective learning.			
59	Classroom is equipped for the disabled.			
60	Classroom is clean enough for effective learning.			



Main Campus of Taif University
(Source: www.google.com, 13/12/2013)

The first two questions were concerned with the instructors' and students' extent of agreement on the challenges students face while learning English in the preparatory year at Taif University from students' and instructors' points of view. These findings could be due to the fact that instructors and students are two heterogeneous groups having different mentalities, belonging to different age groups and educational and cultural backgrounds.

ROSIDA TIURMA MANURUNG,
DADANG SUGANDA & DAVIDESCU CRISTIANA

NEGATIVE LABELING TOWARDS TEACHERS AS EXPRESSION OF VIOLENCE IN MODERN LITERATURE

ABSTRACT: Previous to 1960, the literatures recognized teachers as highly respected figures. Upon seeing a teacher from far away, a student would hurriedly run to reach him/her and would lead his/her bike. It was considered an honor to help teachers in one way or another. Time and time in the past literature, teachers are labeled in such ways that the students would kiss their teachers' hands to show them respect. The students would not hesitate to give their selves away to help cut their teachers' grass. However, it is no longer the case in today' literatures. The literatures repeatedly make fun of teachers, as well harassing and paralyzing them. It is ironical. Teachers have lost their positive label and are labeled negatively as the product of indecent behavior from the part of the students. Schools are becoming the fields for channeling violent attitude and behaviors to ruin the good image of a teacher. In this work, teachers labeling in the past and today' literature are compared. Literatures from 1960s and 2000s become the sources of data. Language expression is analyzed with the help of Critical Discourse Analysis using the method of contrasted descriptive and analysis, while data are collected by the technique of library study and interviews. It is expected that the result of the research help put the teachers' label (already fading away, corrupted, and falling onto pieces) on its early respected place again. Teachers with positive image are always needed and cannot be compromised. With the positive label of teachers, the process of studying and teaching can be performed more conducive, effective, interactive, and optimum. Positive labeling of teachers need to be started in today literature. Poets and authors have the central role to give appreciation for the teachers.

KEY WORDS: Teachers labeling, violent expression, 1960s' literature, today' literature, contrasted analysis, and critical discourse analysis.

INTRODUCTION

In today literature, teacher figure has shifted. Formerly, it was high, noble, and respected; now, it is corrupted, even poisoned. Where does the positive label go? Most students show no respect now to their teachers, as well underestimate and look down on them. What's going wrong to have caused such negative labeling where the profession is highly burdened? They must teach and share their knowledge with sincerity, while still having to be patient with their students and transform them into useful human beings for the nation. It is a too burdened a job considering having to still make them (the students) smart while facing indecent act from the part of the

students. A job that sucks.

In the past, teaching was a highly respected profession. Teachers used to live in wellbeing. During the Dutch administration in Indonesia, teachers used to receive more income as opposed to government officers. Their profession was highly prestigious. Their position was considered high.

What has been happening from 2000s up to now? The profession of teaching is viewed as insignificant and marginalized. A teacher with teaching hour 24 hours weekly is only paid IDR 900,000 (nine hundred thousand Rupiah Indonesia or less than USD 90) monthly. Just slightly higher than the national basic/standard payment of labor.

Rosida Tiurma Manurung is a Ph.D. Student at the Postgraduate Program of Literature Science, Majoring in Linguistic UNPAD (Padjadjaran University) in Bandung, West Java, Indonesia; and Prof. Dr. Dadang Suganda and Prof. Dr. Davidescu Cristiana are the Lecturers at the Faculty of Humanities UNPAD Bandung. Corresponding author is: rosidatm@gmail.com

What about honorary teachers? Theirs must be even worse. Teachers are also demanded to plant good values in their students' life besides teaching them. When students are behaving indecently, teachers are the first to be blamed by the society, not the students or the parents. It is also the case when the students fail the national exam. Teachers become like scapegoats. It is too ironic.

NEGATIVE LABELING AS EXPRESSION OF VIOLENCE

Language is also used as a tool to express self. Language expression is a tool to reveal openly everything in our minds, at least to establish our existence. The motivations behind the expression of self is various, among others is to get attention from people and to release emotional tensions.

Discourse can be utilized as a ware to determine someone' or a group status who is under a certain authority or social order. Discourse can be used to register A as immoral, B as moral, C as the violator, D as the enforcer, E as civilian, etc. It is clear that discourse is used to label status, authority, sanction, or punishment, etc. In discourse, status legitimating is done by labeling.

Jalaluddin Rakhmat (2005:108) mentions that labeling is a form of euphemism, with significant difference. If euphemism is inoffensive as a substitute for uninteresting phrase, (for example "effort to control and rehabilitate" to substitute for the phrase *exiling*), labeling is on the other hand applying offensive phrase to a person, a group, or a symptom.

During the era of Nazi in Germany, for example, the Jews were labeled as "parasites", "troubling animals", and "bacteria". By so doing, Jews were considered no human being, but disease that must be busted and terminated.

In Indonesia, labeling also happens all the time. Language expression, inside which labeling occurs, for example, labeling to indicate insignificance, such as *kroco* (slave), *wong cilik* (lay people), or *tikus got* (mouse). Labeling in authority is showing when they use the phrases, such as *anti-Pancasila* (anti-ideology), *koruptor* (corruptor), *ekstrem kiri* (left

extremist), *ekstrem kanan* (right extremist), *anti-pembangunan* (anti-development), *anti-reformasi* (anti-reform), *pro-kapitalis* (pro-capitalist), and so on (Depdikbud RI, 2004).

Language is strongly used as a tool to express. A philosopher, John Dewey, reveals that words can express idea (cited in Rakhmat, 2005). So, it's not only words submit to our mind. Our mind also submits to words. Hence, words can influence how we think, remember, and perceive.

In America, labeling has always been phenomenal. For instance, the terms like *nigger*, *darky*, *honky* "orang kulit putih" (white man), *white boy*, *the little woman*, and *broad* "wanita" (women) are labeling on status that ridicule and humiliate.

Based on its application, labeling is done with certain intention, be it positive or negative. Some examples of labeling positively are *gagah* (handsome), *bersih* (clean), *jujur* (honest), *pemberani* (bravemen), *aktif* (active), and *kreatif* (creative). Some examples of labeling negatively are *lemah* (weak), *ceroboh* (careless), *pasif* (pasive), *pemabuk* (drinker), *pemalsu* (counterfeiter), *pembalak* (loggers), and so on (Depdikbud RI, 2004).

During 1960s, positive labeling towards teachers was bold. Teachers were adored and respected. Their attitude and way of thinking were taken as examples of good ones. Their words were considered orders to be taken. The students honored them higher than their parents. They didn't stare at their teachers when speaking with them. Instead, they bowed and spoke with low voice, always nervous and sweat.

Students of today have changed and their behavior shift into labeling their teachers negatively. Teachers are no longer figures to be followed. The students are inclined to look down on their teachers due to great money they have paid for the teachers. Teachers are viewed no more than paid people. This becomes a dilemma on the part of the teachers. In one hand, they eagerly seek to be labeled positively by the students, but on the other hand, they have to eat, to rent a house besides many bills to pay. They still have to work extra hours by giving extra courses in various places.

In some places, teachers don't hesitate

to drive people on a bike for money. Hence, economic problem is one reason behind the downfall of teacher's image. In addition, bad influence of culture coming from abroad and technology advances are also believed to cause the shift on students' behavior which manifest itself in forms such as fight, bikers gang vandalism, drugs use, and immorality. The spirit of labeling teachers negatively seems to have dominated the students now.

To gain back the positive label, teachers are required to have big hearts to fight for improved performances, competences, and professionalism. Smart and broad minded teachers can always "hypnotize" and amaze their students. In return, their students will respect them. Pursue of money has always been keeping them from doing so and causing the negative labels. *Will the teachers be left alone?* In no way. The noble duty of teachers should be paid with high appreciation. No longer can no-payment-over-their-work be let happen.

To quote Fairclough & Ruth Wodak (1997), critical discourse analysis seek through languages used how existing social groups fight and propose their own versions. Based on critical discourse analysis order, texts of today's literatures will be analyzed from language expression perspective. Texts will be interpreted and represented by using power expression.

Language is a tool for expressing political power, putting aside people, political jokes, realizing political violence agenda, selling out conflicts, chaos and spirit of sectarianism. Language expression is searched with the use of critical discourse analysis model by Fairclough & Ruth Wodak (1997), with language unit taken from political discourses, violence expression, critical texts study, and inter-textual analysis which covers texts level, discourse practice, and socio-cultural in representing parties in conflict who are inclined to use language expression containing violence.

Materials for study in this work take the form of violence expression in various literatures as found in newspapers. Language expression containing violence will be analyzed based on Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA).

When perceived from CDA in formal settings, various kinds of terms to persuade positive expression concerning unity,

orderliness, nation advancement, ideology of unity, archipelago perspective, taking off, national discipline, introspection, self-awareness, openness, and so on (CS, 2000).

In the opposite, there are terms which sell out words expressing violence state, such as conflict, enmity, chaos, and sectarian spirit. For example, anti-development, left and right extremes, GPK (*Gerombolan Pengacau Keamanan* or Disorder and Troublemaker Group), SARA (*Suku, Agama, Ras, dan Antar-golongan* or Tribe, Religion, Race, and Inter-groups), involved, non-native, embarrassing nation, disturbance on peace, subversion, unconstitutional attitudes, inconsistent, outsider movement, steering, to steer, free ride, pitting, delirious, social jealousy, etc.

As Dom Camara Helder (2000) put it, it seems that when violence meets violence, it is very much like a circle with no obvious point to cut off. Violence is "*any avoidable impediment to self-realization*" (Galtung, 1990:37).

Violence is everything that keeps people from actualizing self naturally from which he/she can actually escape him/herself besides to put aside the violence directly and indirectly, be it personal or collective including violence in language. In this work, today literatures are prone to violence expression

STUDY ON TEACHERS LABELING IN LITERATURES

By reading literatures, sketches of life happening around us will be obvious to our eyes, besides we can detect values. At the opposite, negative elements and immorality occurring around the globes can be recorded in literatures. Literatures from 1960s era and today differ significantly when put in contrast to each other.

In this study, it is found that teachers labeling in 1960s and today are opposite to each other. The following data and analysis shows us about them.

First, Positive Labeling on Teachers in Era of 1960s. Literatures from era of 1960s shows as following:

"There I saw Mr. *Ajar*, an angel, standing in front of the class, and his students, young angels. Wow, what a wonderful scene to see" (cited in *NM*, p.42).

Table 1:
 Data on Teachers Labeling in the Eye of Students as Found in Literatures from Era 1960s

No.	Positive Labeling on Teachers	Students Behavior	Representation and Interpretation about Teachers
1.	Very much like angels (holy)	Peaceful and exciting	Teachers are labeled angels (holy), which raises meaning that teachers have holy and soft hearts, have certain characters on their faces. Students feel secure around their teachers, along with peace, being calm, and free from any fear.
2.	Called as Master	Uphold their Masters very highly	Labeled as Masters, teachers are considered leaders, place for service, figures that have many faithful followers who will give their selves away to service, and highly respected.
3.	Rewards await those who help their teachers	Help teachers with enthusiasm	Teachers labeled as place for those who have rewards in heaven is a noble way of interpreting. Doing so is the dream of every student.
4.	Highly respected	Place where students can ask everything	The label “highly respected people” implies that teachers are charismatic, authoritative, a figure that makes students bow, obey, respect, and afraid of making them disappointed and hurt.
5.	Helpers	Owe their teachers	Labeling teachers as helpers implies that teachers have ability to ease their students’ burdens, figure willing to help in trouble, ready to help fix problems and difficulties, and to get rid of pain in any time. Teachers with good manners of speaking and behaving always have idea to help solve students with problem. Teachers are associated with curing drugs.
6.	Their advice are worth listening	Their advice calm the mind of the students	The label implies that whatever the teachers say has some wisdom and virtue in it. Their words and thinking have valuable lessons worth caring, listening, carrying into action. Teachers are considered godly whose advices worth listening and following up.
7.	Worth respecting	Kiss their hands with respect	The label implies meaning that they are loved, adored, needed, upheld, and respected. The students can also reflect on the virtues.

A young man desired to master sword skill. Someone had told him that there was a famous sword Master who had never been beaten. The Master now stayed alone on top of a high mountain. Becoming so determined, the young man managed to make a long trip and hiked the rugged mountain to reach the Master. He finally reached the place, and learned that the Master was already very old, skinny, but full of authority. “*Master, please teach me your sword skill*” (Anonym). “Then, everyone will mind, Teacher. No one would give away himself over to help work the land. But, for you, Teacher, we will do whatever you tell us. For us, we know for sure that there are great rewards awaiting those who help his teacher” (cited in *K1*, p.34).

“We all can feel that Teacher is no longer here. No one else can do as much as he does. Only to him in this village we pay respect. Yes, it’s only to him. That’s it, Teacher” (cited in *K1*, p.75).

“I owe you, Teacher. I will never afford to payback till the day I die. Please, give me some more time to pay you back your kindness” (cited in *K1*, p.94).

Bang Maing was very happy to listen to Teacher Rahim, while he was admonishing him. [...] *Bang* Maing returned home with clear mind ever since (cited in *BdP*, p.8).

Teacher Rahim still smiled after *Koding* kissed her hands, then she asked them to sit (cited in *BdP*, p.109).

My Grandpa used to teach [...]. I still remember that he was respected highly by his village citizens. Everyone would bow respecting him when they met him on the street (cited in *PK*, p.32).

From the above data, we can make analysis on how the students represent their teachers which as follows (table 1).

Second, Negative Labeling towards Teachers Today. Today’ literature, especially well-liked fictions novel and teenage short story, recognize following data:

“He worries about me? For what reason? She thinks Mr. Daud will pounce me like a tiger?” (cited in *DM*, p.13).

[...] most teachers he knows are ferocious and rigid (cited in *K2*, p.13).

“This ain’t yours, you say? This is your bag! Oh, I know, all this time you play this robot toy”, snapped Mrs. Narlyn. “Sometimes also plays karambol, Mam!”, Samsul responded. “Geeerrrr

Table 2:
Data on Teachers Figure, *Guru*, in the Eye of the Students as Found in Today' Literature

No.	Negative Labeling towards Teachers	How Students Act	Representation and Interpretation concerning Teachers
1.	Fierce	Avoid	Teachers labeled "fierce" by their students usually speak loudly, has fierce face, and are quick to get angry. Most students don't like teachers such as them. The students always daydream about skipping classes with fierce teachers. They don't expect their coming. This negative labeling leads to disobedience on the part of the students and to skip classes. Once in a while, students dare to ambush teachers of that kind on the street and hurt them, even to the point of humiliating them.
2.	Rigid	Uncomfortable	"Rigid" labeling results in a figure characterized with inflexibility, stubbornness, and carelessness to the students and to the surrounding. A figure that is highly hated by the students. However, the students actually mistake consistency, obedience, and orderliness by the teachers with rigidity.
3.	Garrulous	Not care to the teachers; class in chaos	"Garrulous" negative labeling result in image that always cause dizziness. The students believe that this kind of teachers have fun in making up comment on everything every day. From the study material, to home assignment, to students' fashion, to class setting, and to the students characters. They consider those comments as forms of getting involved with their problem.
4.	Horrifying	Scared	"Horrifying" labeling cause uneasiness to the students, besides dread and reluctance to associate personally with the teachers.
5.	Horrible	Nightmare	"Horrible" labeling emerges rude and impolite meaning. Horrible teachers mean teachers whose comings are not expected. They must get rid of them because they are bad. They can damage peace, cause students to worry and relent.
6.	Talkative	Don't like	"Talkative" labeling is worrying, since teachers are considered nerd, arrogant, proud, and talkative.

...", the class became noisy and chaotic like in the traditional market. Mrs. Narlyn became mad (cited in *O & F*, p.55).

"If Mrs. Nunik is our head class teacher, then we are in trouble. We know she is such garrulous. It's a nightmare" (cited in *BG*, p.17).

"How I long to choke her (Mrs. Nunik) on her neck. She is going to sit us on separate chairs" (cited in *BG*, p.17).

"I am not color blinded. She is the one who is old-fashioned. Witch, *Nenek Lampir*, Villager" (cited in *BG*, p.43).

"If *Nenek Lampir* had canine tooth, her bite will surely infect me. I smile to myself imagining she get crazy to bite me" (cited in *BG*, p.44).

"Not only once or twice I went through nightmares with her. Suddenly, the horror music start to play in my mind" (cited in *BG*, p.138).

The above data shows expression of violence in the form of harassing teachers,

making fun of them, and humiliating them. The following analysis shows it (table 2).

When visited from labeling perspective, teacher figure shows significant difference as found in literatures from 1960s and 2000s. Literatures from 1960 still radiate positive labeling. Students still adored their teachers, respected them, and placed them in the high places. Students raced in helping their teachers for rewards from heaven. Teachers were place for seeking answers for asking questions about lessons, family, or even about fields. Thus, teachers were still considered experts, possessing much knowledge, and wise. In the eyes of the students and the society, teachers were higher than the parents, even other leading figures in the society. Having an opportunity to communicate and interact with them was still an honor. Hence, in literatures from 1960s, teachers' image was positive.

However, it is not the case today. Teachers labeling shows a shift into negative trend.

Teachers are ridiculed, humiliated, and become figure to be put shunned. Students no longer consider their teachers as partners to work with. They place them in negative places. Teachers are symbolized as horrible, evil, and dreadful figures. Teachers labeling by students is not a rumor. They set them as targets for violence.

Once, there was a student beating his teacher badly only because hurt of being reproved in front of class. In other time, there was a student caused his teacher's tire flat because given bad score on his lesson. In another time, a student threatened his teacher with knife to be passed on his exam. Moral corruption is accused to have caused the behavior degrade.

Young generation today seems to not care of everything, see money as more important than religion, and set aside good characters. Cultures from abroad and technology advances also have role in diverting teens' behavior. Noble characters are replaced with apathetic attitude, extremism, egoism that leads to crime, adultery, and sadistic acts.

Parents and teachers have moral and absolute obligation to filter influences of cultures and technology that bring negative effect, especially to teenagers (Djamarah, 2005). They must have such sensitivity to detect anxiety and emotional instability of teenagers. Parents and students must be close to each other and interact in harmony. Students don't need rigid rule but discipline that educate and personal approach that is sympathetic. Parents can persuade teenager to think seriously about their future and prepare to be responsible about it.

Teachers must fight seriously to make progress in their images. Negative, rigid, and terrifying label on their figure must be removed. The only way is to treat students as subjects not objects, that is by considering them as partners to work with in the learning and teaching process. Teachers must have positive label, be wise, and have wisdom. Anger can never help a teacher to be effective. He must invite his students to discuss problems in open sphere in order that problems be solved (Kusnandar, 2007).

Teachers labeling is a determining factor in education process. Teachers with no positive label will find it real hard to create conducive settings in the class and experience downturn in his value in the eyes of the students. Students will perceive them no more than paid people. The phrase "hero without award" will leave as they lose their positive label.

To encourage positive labeling, authors of today' literature are suggested to create examples on good values and morality in their writings so that their readers, especially the students, can improve their diverted behavior. Put the teachers on its place. Do not make fun of them.

In addition, every teacher must improve their performance and professionalism. Teachers are necessary to be proactive to advance their understanding and competences to get positive reception from the students. Smart teachers can always amaze their students and make them adore and uphold their teachers (Soetjipto, 2004).

CONCLUSION

From the research, some following findings can be achieved:

In literatures of 1960s, positive labeling towards teachers was bold and teacher figure was pictured positively, teachers were central and key to education. Teachers were labeled as though they were angels, esteemed, masters, worth to be honored for their words.

In this research, it is found that today' literature project a lot negative labeling towards teachers as expression of violence. Teachers are pictured as negative figure with no place. They are labeled as furious, garrulous, rigid, horrible, and terrifying.

Negative labeling towards teachers result in representation and interpretation that put teachers as victims of violence. Positive labeling on teachers can be established if only teachers are willing to approach the students personally and spiritually.

Negative labeling on teachers can actually be removed if only teachers expand their knowledge and proficiency to be more valuable. Technology advances and the coming of foreign cultures join in triggering the change and shift in young generation' morality.

REFERENCES

- BdP*, *Berita dari Pinggiran* (News from Periphery Area), by Toha Mohtar.
- BG*, *Bad Girl*, by Vierna Mariska.
- CS [Cultural Studies]. (2000). *Teori Sastra: Pengantar Komprehensif*. Jakarta: Jalasutra EgletonTerry.
- Depdikbud RI [Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan Republik Indonesia]. (2004). *Kamus Besar Bahasa Baku*. Jakarta: Balai Pustaka.
- Djamarah, Syaiful Bahri. (2005). *Guru dan Anak Didik*. Jakarta: Rineka Cipta.
- DM*, *Daun Muda* (Young Leaves), by El Ovio.
- Fairclough & Ruth Wodak. (1997). "Critical Discourse Analysis" in Teun A. van Dijk [ed]. *Discourse as Social Interaction: Discourse Studies a Multi-Disciplinary Introduction*, Vol.2. London: Sage Publication.
- Galtung, Johan. (1990). "Cultural Violence" in *Journal of Peace Research*, 27(3), pp.291-305.
- Helder, Dom Camara. (2000). *Spiral of Violence: Spiral Kekerasan*. Yogyakarta: Komunitas Aparu, Translation.
- Kusnandar. (2007). *Guru Profesional*. Jakarta: Rajawali Press.
- K1*, *Kemarau* (Drought), by A.A. Navis.
- K2*, *Kencana* (Gold), by Sitta Karina.
- NM*, *Nyanyian Malam* (Night Song), by Ahmad Tohari.
- O & F*, *Ony & Friends*, by Ferry A.F.
- PK*, *Pohon Keramat* (Sacred Tree), by Yus R. Ismail.
- Rakhmat, Jalaluddin. (2005). *Retorika Modern*. Bandung: Remaja Rosda Karya.
- Soetjipto. (2004). *Profesi Keguruan*. Jakarta: Rineka Cipta.



The Teachers of Indonesia

(Source: Photo Album of ASPENSI, 10/12/2013)

Negative labeling towards teachers result in representation and interpretation that put teachers as victims of violence. Positive labeling on teachers can be established if only teachers are willing to approach the students personally and spiritually. Negative labeling on teachers can actually be removed if only teachers expand their knowledge and proficiency to be more valuable.

MINH-QUANG DUONG

A COMPARISON OF FACTORS INFLUENCING THE JOB SATISFACTION AMONG ACADEMIC MEMBERS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY AND THE UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE IN VIETNAM

ABSTRACT: Since the late 1950s, a number of researchers have theorized about the nature of job satisfaction and developed models which attempt to explain differences of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is a major concern of managers in business, executives in industry, and teachers and administration in educational organization. It is clear that very little research on university faculty job satisfaction has come from the developing world like Vietnam. This aim of this study was to determine the specific factors that affected the job satisfaction of academic members both universities. The study used a questionnaire to survey with 141 academic members from two public universities of Ho Chi Minh City in Vietnam which selected as a statistical sample. The study showed that academic members of two universities were only a moderate level of job satisfaction. However, faculty members in the University of Technology were more satisfied than faculty members in the University of Science. The present analysis found that no significant differences existed job satisfaction of academic members among the two universities; but, there were significant difference between male and female faculty. In addition, male faculty members were generally more satisfied than female colleagues. The study also recognized that job satisfaction of academic members were significantly affected by their work time and institutional characteristics.

KEY WORDS: Job satisfaction, Vietnamese higher education, academic members, work time, institutional characteristics, and developing country.

INTRODUCTION

Since the late 1950s, a number of researchers have theorized about the nature of job satisfaction and developed models which attempt to explain differences of job satisfaction (Sseganga & Garrett, 2005). Job satisfaction is a major concern of managers in business, executives in industry, and teachers and administration in educational organization. Although there is no universal definition of the concept (Evans, 1997), most of the definitions that exist in literature have a common theme. Different authors have different approaches towards defining job satisfaction.

The most used definition of job satisfaction in organizational research is that E.A. Locke (1976), who described job satisfaction as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences and as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values (cited also in Nguni, Slegers & Denessen, 2006). A more definitive describes job satisfaction an attitude developed by an individual towards the job and job conditions (Luthans, 1994). P.E. Spector (1997) refined the definition of job satisfaction to constitute an attitudinal variable that measures how a person feels about his or her job, including different facets of the job.

Minh-Quang Duong is a Lecturer at the Faculty of Education, University of Social Sciences and Humanities VNU-HCMC (Vietnam National University – Ho Chi Minh City), 10-12 Dinh Tien Hoang Road, District 1, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam. E-mail: mqduong.ussh@yahoo.com

There is a relationship between job satisfaction and very different variables. They include *life satisfaction* (Ho & Au, 2008); *demographic, job, and personality characteristics* (Miller, Mire & Kim, 2009; and Telman & Unsal, 2004); *performance* (Luthans, 1994); *organizational characteristics* (Glisson & Durick, 1988); and *leadership, climate, and culture of the university* (Grunwald & Peterson, 2003; Hagedorn, 2000; and Zhou & Volkwein, 2004).

Several studies of higher education sector are used different factors to measuring job satisfaction of academic members. T. Oshagbemi (1997) employed eight scales designed to measure satisfaction of university teachers in the United Kingdom, namely: (1) teaching, (2) research, (3) administration and management, (4) present pay, (5) promotions, (6) supervision/supervisor behaviour, (7) behavior of co-workers, and (8) physical conditions/working conditions.

The study of F. Kusku (2003) measured the job satisfaction of academics in a university in Turkey using the seven determinants: (1) general satisfaction, (2) management satisfaction, (3) colleagues, (4) other working group satisfaction, (5) job satisfaction, (6) work environment, and (7) salary satisfaction.

According to K. Sseganga & R.M. Garrett (2005), measured the job satisfaction of academics of higher education in Uganda using nine general elements of their work comprising: (1) teaching, (2) research, (3) governance, (4) remuneration, (5) opportunities for promotion, (6) supervision, (7) co-worker's behavior, (8) working environment, and (9) the job in general.

A study of S.H. Chen *et al.* (2006) measured the job satisfaction of teachers in a private university in China using six satisfaction factors, namely: (1) organization vision, (2) respect, (3) result feedback and motivation, (4) management system, (5) pay and benefits, and (6) work environment.

Although C.J. Cranny, P.C. Smith & E.F. Stone (1992) estimated that over 5,000 articles and dissertations have examined the topic of job satisfaction and it is a continuing topic for research. Most of the research that has been conducted in the field of job satisfaction has focused on organizational

business and industrial setting (Platsidou & Diamantopoulou, 2009).

However, in recent years, a clear increase has been observed in the number of studies related to the job satisfaction of academics (Neumann, 1978). Unfortunately, evidence from job satisfaction of academic members in higher education of the developing countries is seriously lacking and is a gap which needs to be filled (Garrett, 1999; Hean & Garrett, 2001; Sseganga & Garrett, 2005; and Eyupoglu & Saner, 2009). Furthermore, very little research has focused on science, technology, engineering, and mathematic (Verret, 2012).

Hence, this study was conducted to explore factors influencing the job satisfaction among academic members both universities within technology and science fields. The present study was designed to answer the following research questions: (1) What is the general level of job satisfaction of academic members both universities in Vietnam?; (2) Do any significant differences exist in the level of job satisfaction with regard to discipline and gender characteristics?; and (3) How are job satisfaction of academic members affected by their work time and institutional characteristics?

STUDIES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND FACULTY HIGHER EDUCATION

There are several recent studies that addressed job satisfaction among academic members serving in the higher education context. The study of T. Oshagbemi (1997) comprised academics from 23 universities in the United Kingdom that teaching, research-related activities, and several miscellaneous dimensions of the jobs contribute significantly to both job satisfaction and dissatisfaction of university academics. For job satisfaction among academic staff from thirteen universities in Turkey, H. Saygi, T. Tolon & H. Tekogul (2011) found that co-workers and promotions were considered more important than the pay. The most important factor in job satisfaction was co-workers, with working as a team and sharing also rated as important.

In another study, M. Springfield-Scott (2000) showed that sex and rank affected faculty job satisfaction; while age, race, and

tenure did not affect faculty job satisfaction in Piedmont, North Carolina University. In North Cyprus, S.Z. Eyupoglu & T. Saner (2009) explored that the job facets advancement, compensation, co-workers, and variety were found to be statistically significant with job satisfaction. Beside, this study also explained that academic in North Cyprus indicate only a moderate level of overall job satisfaction.

In their study with academic members of ten private universities in Bangladesh, T. Ali & I. Akhter (2009) recognized that faculty members are overall satisfied with their present condition, except the factors like training facilities, and some physical facilities and distribution of courses. Further, it has been found that there is no significant difference between male and female faculty members regarding job satisfaction.

In Asia–Pacific area, regarding the relationship between faculty job satisfaction and demographic variable of academics in a public higher education in Singapore, E.P. Paul & S.K. Phua (2011) indicated that satisfaction over interpersonal relationships with students and co-workers, the autonomy and flexibility that the job offered. Conversely, they expressed dissatisfaction over the amount of administrative/non-academic work they had to shoulder, heavy workload, salary, presence of “red tape” and other corporate practices, and dealing with disruptive students. Age and job position affected the job satisfaction levels of the respondents.

However, variables such as gender, academic qualification, length of employment, and marital status showed no significant difference. The study of F. Noordin & K. Jusoff (2009) comprised two hundred and thirty-seven of academics from a public university in Malaysia that overall the academic staff of the university has a moderate level of job satisfaction. In addition, current status, marital status, age, and salary appear to have significant impact on the respondents’ level of job satisfaction.

In their research with 173 teaching staff from three private universities in Malaysia, A.S. Santhapparaj & S.S. Alam (2005) found also that pay, promotion, working condition, and support of research have positive and

significant effect on job satisfaction. On the other hand, benefits and support of teaching have negative effect, and female staff are more satisfied than their counterpart.

Regarding the relationship between incentives, rewards, and recognition on employee motivation and job satisfaction of two hundred and nineteen of academic member of Hue University in Vietnam, N.C. Nguyen *et al.* (2013) found that significantly positive relationship between reward and recognition, satisfaction with supervision and the job characteristics, with job satisfaction as well as a very positive and significant relationship was also observed between job satisfaction and personal motivation.

In another study, M. Gautam, K. Mandal & R.S. Dalal (2006) surveyed faculty members of Faculty of Veterinary Sciences and Animal Husbandry, Sher-e-Kashmir University of Agricultural Sciences and Technology of Jammu, India that job satisfaction is a multidimensional phenomenon with a number of factors operating simultaneously. The overall job satisfaction of the faculty members is fair and moderate. Moreover, the younger faculty members are more satisfied as compared to those with a longer service period although the relationship is not linear.

Again, the study of R.D. Sharma & J. Jyoti (2006 and 2010) comprised one hundred and twenty faculty members of Jammu University in India that professors were more satisfied than lecturers and job satisfaction decline in the middle age. Addition, intrinsic, extrinsic, and demographic factors were effecting academic staff’s job satisfaction. Unfortunately, very few studies have been conducted in the area of job satisfaction in Vietnamese higher education as well as other developing countries.

METHOD

Dependent and Independent Variables.

Job satisfaction has been identified as the dependent variable in this study. This study measured the job satisfaction of academics of higher education in Vietnam using six satisfaction factors, namely: (1) recreation and sport equipment, (2) medical facility, (3) in-service teaching training, (4) bonus and

welfare, (5) curriculum reform and evaluation, and (6) teaching load.

In this study, factor loading and Cronbach's alpha coefficient were conducted to assess the validity and reliability of this constructed measurement for job satisfaction of academic members (see table 1). According to J.F. Hair *et al.* (2006), the selected criteria are: factor loading ≥ 0.6 , cumulative explanation ≥ 0.6 (60 per cent), and instruments used in exploratory study have reliability of 0.6 and 0.7 or more (cited also in Nunnally, 1978). The Cronbach alpha estimated for this study shows acceptable level of 0.898. Hence, based on the validation of construct reliability which is concluded that research construct of job satisfaction is reliable.

The independent variables of this study include two blocks. The first block is work time per week, including teaching time, research time, community service time, and private time. The second block is institutional factors, including development aim, leadership style, campus landscape, and administration efficiency.

Sample. The population for this study was comprised of academic members from two public universities of Ho Chi Minh City in Vietnam. They consist of University of Technology and University of Science. Those universities are member of Vietnam National University of Ho Chi Minh City (VNU-HCMC). A random sample of 141 questionnaires administered to potential subjects selected from the two universities. Participants were currently working on campus.

It is notable from table 2 that demographic data of responding academics was wide ranging. Of the 141 respondents, 29% were female and 79.4% of male faculty. Almost respondents consisted of 64.5% faculty were from 31 to 40 years old. Regarding marital status, 67% were single, 73% academics were married. In terms of their academic qualification, 36.9% had master's degrees, and 51% faculty had attained a doctoral degree.

Almost 91.5% of the respondents were lecturers and only 0.7% and 7.8% academic were associate professor and teaching assistant, respectively. The 39% faculty had from 6 to 10 years, 23.4% had from 11 to 15 years, and only

8.5% academic members had from 16 or more years teaching experience.

Data Analysis Method. Questionnaire survey was used to gather data in this study. The participants are weighted on a 4-point Likert's scale to measure job satisfaction of academic members and institutional factors which impact job satisfaction (1 = very dissatisfaction, 2 = dissatisfaction, 3 = satisfaction, and 4 = very satisfaction). For work time factors, however, there are used working hours per week to measure the influence of job satisfaction of academic (1 = 0 hour, 2 = 1 to 5 hours, 3 = 6 to 10 hours, 4 = 11 to 15 hours, 5 = 16 to 20 hours, 6 = 21 to 25 hours, and 7 = over 26 hours).

All data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 13.0 software. The statistical methods employed to analyze data are included. Descriptive analysis is computed to examine the general level of job satisfaction of academic members. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) is enabled to examine the difference between job satisfaction and discipline, and gender. To study the key factors of work time and institutional factors which significantly affect job satisfaction, multiple regression analysis is used for this study.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

First, the Level of Job Satisfaction of Academic Members among Different Universities. The results of table 3 display Means (*M*), Standard Deviations (*SD*), and ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) of job satisfaction of academic members in two universities and to answer the first and apart of the second research question of this study. As shown in table 3, the *M* and *SD* job satisfaction level of the respondents were 2.69 and 0.82, respectively. This result indicated that academic members were only a moderate level of job satisfaction, mirroring the results of the studies by S.Z. Eyupoglu & T. Saner (2009) and N. Malik (2011).

According to S.H. Chen *et al.* (2006), quality in teaching and learning can only enhanced if the faculty members are satisfied and content; and the health of an educational institution depend on the job satisfaction of its employees

Table 1:
The Results of Dependence Variable in this Study

Dimensions of Job Satisfaction	Factor Loading	Cumulative Explanation	Cronbach's Alpha
Recreation and sport equipment	.858		
Medical facility	.854		
In-service teaching training	.848	66.630	0.898
Bonus and welfare	.812		
Curriculum reform and evaluation	.804		
Teaching load	.711		

Table 2:
Demographics Data of the Sample

Characteristics	n	Percentage (%)
Gender:		
Male	112	79.4
Female	29	20.6
Age (Years Old):		
Under 30	31	22
31 – 40	91	64.5
Over 40	19	13.5
Marital Status:		
Single	67	47.5
Married	73	51.8
Widowed	1	0.7
Academic Qualification:		
Bachelor's Degree	17	12.1
Master's Degree	52	36.9
Doctoral Degree	72	51.0
Academic Rank:		
Teaching Assistant	11	7.8
Lecturer	129	91.5
Associate professor	1	0.7
Length of Employment (Years):		
Less than 1	17	12.1
1 – 5	24	17.0
6 -10	55	39.0
11 – 15	33	23.4
16 or more	12	8.5

(Wood, 1976). Furthermore, job satisfaction has serious implications for relations between the academics and the management of the higher educational organizations they belong to (Eyupoglu & Saner, 2009). Thus, university management should invest more resources in enhancing the job satisfaction of academic members in designing institutional policies.

For job satisfaction of academic members in two universities, academic members in the University of Technology ($M = 2.79$, $SD = 0.89$) were more satisfied than academic members in the University of Science ($M =$

2.58 , $SD = 0.73$). However, the results of table 3 also found that there were no significant differences of academic members' job satisfaction among the two universities ($F = 2.198$, $p = 0.140 > 0.05$).

Second, Job Satisfaction and Gender of Academic Members among Different Universities. The findings of table 4 showed that a significant difference has been found between the level of job satisfaction of male and female academic members in the two campus ($F = 7.032$, $p = 0.009 < 0.01$), mirroring the results of studies by D.A.

Table 3:

Means (*M*), Standard Deviations (*SD*), and ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) Results of the Job Satisfaction Level in Two Universities

Universities	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
University of Technology	2.79	0.89	2.198	.140
University of Science	2.58	0.73		
Average of two universities	2.69	0.82		

Note: The mean difference is significant at the $p \leq .05$

Table 4:

ANOVA Results between Job Satisfaction and Different Universities

Universities	Male	Female	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>		
University of Technology	2.86 (0.43)	2.26 (0.91)	7.032	.009
University of Science	2.67 (0.79)	2.37 (0.55)		

Note: The mean difference is significant at the $p \leq .01$

Pearson & R.E. Seiler (1983); M. Springfield-Scott (2000); S. Schulze (2006); N. Malik (2011); F. Mehboob, M.A. Sarwar & N.A. Bhutto (2012); and M.M. Ghafoor (2012). However, male academic members both universities are generally more satisfied with their job than the female academic members in this study, supported by the studies of T. Bas & K. Ardic (2002) and O.E. Olorunsola (2010).

As shown in table 4, male faculty members in the University of Technology had the highest job satisfaction ($M = 2.86$, $SD = 0.43$). The difference of job satisfaction among female academic members of the University of Technology ($M = 2.26$, $SD = 0.91$) and the University of Science ($M = 2.37$, $SD = 0.55$) were negligible in general. In addition, female academic members both universities were less more satisfied than male counterparts.

Third, Regression between Job Satisfaction and Work Time, and Institutional Characteristics. The regression model wielded rather different explanation power for job satisfaction of academic members among the two universities. The results of table 5 showed the regression model proposed by this study explained 58.7% of job satisfaction of academic members in the University of Technology ($R^2 = 0.587$) and 46.6% of the University of Science ($R^2 = 0.466$).

As shown in table 5, job satisfaction of academic members in the University of Technology had a significant positive effect on

community service time ($\beta = .346$, $p < 0.01$), private time ($\beta = .234$, $p < 0.05$), leadership style ($\beta = .436$, $p < 0.001$), and administration efficiency ($\beta = .586$, $p < 0.001$); however, job satisfaction of academic members had negative effect on teaching time ($\beta = -.269$, $p < 0.05$), and development aim of university ($\beta = -.428$, $p < 0.001$). Both private time ($\beta = -.417$, $p < 0.001$) and development aim of university ($\beta = -.287$, $p < 0.05$) had significant negative effect on job satisfaction of academics at the University of Science.

According to N. Hensel (1991), the average professor in higher education sectors works approximately 55 hours per week; and when added to home duties, it can grow 70 hours. There had no significant impact teaching, community service (Bameka, 1996) and research (Sseganga & Garrett, 2005) on job satisfaction academics. Research, teaching, and service are different dimensions of faculty work that often compete for faculty members' time and commitment and are in conflict with one another (Linsky & Straus, 1975; Fox, 1992; Hattie & Marsh, 1996; and Fairweather, 2005).

According to D. Olsen, S.A. Maple & F.K. Stage (1995), academics expressed greater satisfaction with teaching are less likely to receive support and recognition from their peer in their department. M.C. Liu (2001) found that academic members spend a greater percentage of time on teaching express greater dissatisfaction with their work; and faculty in

Table 5:
Regression Analysis Results between Job Satisfaction and Independent Variables at the Each University

Independent Variables	University of Technology	University of Science
	Beta (β)	
<i>Work Time (Per Week):</i>		
Teaching	-.269*	
Research		
Community Service	.346**	
Private	.234*	-.471***
<i>Institutional Characteristics:</i>		
Development Aim	-.428***	-.287*
Leadership Style	.436***	
Campus Landscape		
Administration Efficiency	.586***	
R²	.587	.466

Note: The mean difference is significant at the * $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .01$, *** $p \leq .001$

the natural and engineering were more likely to spend time conducting research than teaching. M.F. Fox (1992) and H.W. Marsh & J. Hattie (2002) indicated that increased time spent on research positively impacts job satisfaction of faculty, however, their study was inconsistent with this study.

In addition, the results of this study are supported some suggestions by J.D. Kelly (1989) and K. Sseganga & R.M. Garrett (2005) that most frequently perceived as responsible for low satisfaction is university policy/aim. Morale is highest when faculty members participate in governance and decision making (Rice & Austin, 1988). The studies of T.N. Kyamanywa (1996); E.J. Venter (1998); and T. Ali & I. Akhter (2009) showed that leadership style significantly affected job satisfaction of academic members in higher education institution.

A research conducted by S.H. Packard & D.R. Kauppi (1999) found that employees with supervisors having democratic management styles experienced higher level of satisfaction than with autocratic leadership style. Furthermore, the important role management can play in the job satisfaction of academics. According to L.L. Van Tonder (1993), a manager could modify his/her management style to ensure that staff enjoyed maximum satisfaction and thrived emotionally and professionally. Specifically, job satisfaction of academics may affect their perceptions of the

effectiveness of the school as an organization (Schulz & Teddlie, 1989; Hemmasi, 1992; Maghrabi, 1999; and Judge & Church, 2000).

CONCLUSION ¹

It is clear that the findings of this study have practical implication for university management and policy makers in Vietnamese higher education. This aim of this study was to determine the specific factors that affected the job satisfaction of academic members from two public universities of Ho Chi Minh City in Vietnam. Through the findings described in this study, academic members in the University of Technology were more satisfied than faculty members in the University of Science.

The present analysis found that no significant differences existed job satisfaction of academic members among the two universities; but, there were significant difference between male and female faculty. In addition, male faculty members were generally more satisfied than female colleagues. This study also recognized that job satisfaction of academic members both universities were significantly affected by their work time and institutional characteristics.

The findings of this study show that academic members both universities were

¹**ACKNOWLEDGMENT:** I would like to acknowledge my sincere gratitude to anonymous, kindest support and help, valuable advice, synthesized comments on revision, and detailed editing throughout.

moderate satisfied in their job. Thus, policy makers and management of university need to re-examine their reward structures, value systems, and expectations placed on faculty work in order to keep highly productive faculty more satisfied with their jobs. In addition, each university management and policy makers should take more position factors than other factors in the process of policy development for institution.

It is hoped that the barrier to the job satisfaction of academic members are found in this study may be useful for management institutes to develop work environment and culture that would allow higher levels of faculty job satisfaction and can contribute to a great extent to improve the level of academic members in developing countries in general and Vietnamese higher education in particular.

The data of this study obtained through questionnaires were all self-reports from the participants; hence, the findings may be subject to response consistency effect. On the other hand, this study would not be generalized to all academic members across Vietnamese higher education. The findings of this study are restricted to the two public universities of Ho Chi Minh City which the samples were drawn.

REFERENCES

- Ali, T. & I. Akhter. (2009). "Job Satisfaction of Faculty Members in Private Universities: In Context of Bangladesh" in *International Business Research*, 2(4), pp.167-175.
- Bameka, P. (1996). "Factors Affecting Academic Staff Productivity at Makerere University". *Unpublished Master's Dissertation*. Makerere: Makerere University.
- Bas, T. & K. Ardic. (2002). "Impact of Age on Job Satisfaction to Turkish Academician" in *G.U.II.B.F. Dergisi*, pp.89-102.
- Chen, S.H. et al. (2006). "The Development of an Employee Satisfaction Model for Higher Education" in *TQM Magazine*, 1(5), pp.484-500.
- Cranney, C.J., P.C. Smith & E.F. Stone. (1992). *Job Satisfaction: How People Feel about Their Jobs and How it Affects Their Performance*. New York: Lexington Books.
- Evans, L. (1997). "Addressing Problems of Conceptualization and Construct Validity in Researching Teachers' Job Satisfaction" in *Educational Research*, 39(3), pp.319-331.
- Eyupoglu, S.Z. & T. Saner. (2009). "The Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Academic Rank: A Study of Academicians in Northern Cyprus". *Paper presented at the World Conference on Educational Sciences*, North Cyprus, 4-7 February.
- Fairweather, J.S. (2005). "Beyond the Rhetoric: Trends in the Relative Value of Teaching and Research in Faculty Salaries" in *The Journal of Higher Education*, 76(4), pp.401-422.
- Fox, M.F. (1992). "Research, Teaching, and Publication Productivity: Mutuality Versus Competition in Academia" in *Sociology of Education*, 65(4), pp.293-305.
- Garrett, M.R. (1999). "Teacher Job Satisfaction in Developing Countries" in *Educational Research Supplemental Series: ERIC Document Reproduction Service*, No.ED 459 150.
- Gautam, M., K. Mandal & R.S. Dalal. (2006). "Job Satisfaction of Faculty Members of Veterinary Sciences: An Analysis" in *Livestock Research for Rural development*, 18(6).
- Ghafoor, M.M. (2012). "Role of Demographic Characteristics on Job Satisfaction" in *Far East Research Centre*, 6(1), pp.30-45.
- Glisson, C. & M. Durick. (1988). "Predictors of Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment in Human Service Organizations" in *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 33(1), pp.61-81.
- Grunwald, H. & M.W. Peterson. (2003). "Factors that Promote Faculty Involvement in and Satisfaction with Institutional and Classroom Student Assessment" in *Research in Higher Education*, 44, pp.173-204.
- Hagedorn, L.S. (2000). "Conceptualizing Faculty Job Satisfaction: Components, Theories, and Outcomes" in *New Directions for Institutional Research*, 105, pp.5-20.
- Hair, J.F. et al. (2006). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Hattie, J. & H.W. Marsh. (1996). "The Relationship between Research and Teaching: A Meta-Analysis" in *Review of Educational Research*, 66(4), pp.507-542.
- Hean, S. & R. Garrett. (2001). "Source of Job Satisfaction in Science Secondary School Teachers in Chile" in *Compare*, 31, pp.363-379.
- Hemmasi, M. (1992). "Correlates of Pay and Benefit Satisfaction: The Unique Case of Public University Faculty" in *Public Personnel Management*, 21(4), pp.429-443.
- Hensel, N. (1991). *Realizing Gender equality in Higher Education: The Need to Integrate Family/ Work Issues (1991 ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report 2)*. Washington DC: George Washington School of Education and Human Development.
- Ho, C.L. & W.T. Au. (2008). "Teaching Satisfaction Scale: Measuring Job Satisfaction of Teachers" in *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 66, pp.172-185.
- Judge, T.A. & A.H. Church. (2000). "Job Satisfaction: Research and Practice" in C.L. Cooper & E.A. Locke [eds]. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology: Linking Theory with Practice*. Oxford, UK: Backwell, pp.166-198.
- Kelly, J.D. (1989). "Gender, Pay, and Job Satisfaction of Faculty in Journalism" in *Journalism*, 66(2), pp.446-452.

- Kusku, F. (2003). "Employee Satisfaction in Higher Education: The Case of Academic and Administrative Staff in Turkey" in *Career Development International*, 8(7), pp.347-356.
- Kyamanywa, T.N. (1996). "Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction in Tertiary Institutions in Uganda: A Study of Uganda Polytechnic Kyambogo and National College of Business Nakawa". *Unpublished Masters Dissertation*. Makerere: Makerere University.
- Linsky, A.S. & M.A. Straus. (1975). "Student Evaluations, Research Productivity, and Eminence of College Faculty" in *The Journal of Higher Education*, 46(1), pp.89-102.
- Liu, M.C. (2001). "The Adaptation and Experience of Foreign-Born Faculty Members in the United States". *Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis*. Claremont, USA: Claremont Graduate University.
- Locke, E.A. (1976). "The Nature and Causes of Job Satisfaction" in M.D. Dunnette [ed]. *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*. Chicago: Rand McNally, pp.1297-1349.
- Luthans, F. (1994). *Organizational Behavior*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Maghrabi, A.S. (1999). "Assessing the Effects of Job Satisfaction on Managers" in *International Journal Value-Based Management*, 12, pp.1-12.
- Malik, N. (2011). "Study on Job Satisfaction Factors of Faculty Members at University of Balochistan" in *International Journal of Academic Research*, 3(1), pp.267-272.
- Marsh, H.W. & J. Hattie. (2002). "The Relation between Research Productivity and Teaching Effectiveness: Complementary, Antagonistic, or Independent Constructs?" in *The Journal of Higher Education*, 73(5), pp.603-641.
- Mehboob, F., M.A. Sarwar & N.A. Bhutto. (2012). "Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction among Faculty Member" in *Asian Journal of Business and Management Sciences*, 1(12), pp.1-9.
- Miller, H.A., S. Mire & B. Kim. (2009). "Predictors of Job Satisfaction among Policy Officers: Does Personality Matter?" in *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 37, pp.419-426.
- Neumann, Y. (1978). "Predicting Faculty Job Satisfaction in University Departments" in *Research in Higher Education*, 9(1), pp.261-275.
- Nguni, S., P. Slegers & E. Denessen. (2006). "Transformational and Transactional Leadership Effects on Teachers' Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Primary Schools: The Tanzanian Case" in *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 17(2), pp.145-177.
- Nguyen, N.C. et al. (2013). "Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction of Teachers of Hue University in Vietnam" in *Journal of Research in International Business and Management*, 33(5), pp.169-174.
- Noordin, F. & K. Jusoff. (2009). "Levels of Job Satisfaction amongst Malaysian Academic Staff" in *Asian Social Science*, 5(5), pp.122-128.
- Nunnally, J.C. (1978). *Psychometric Theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Olorunsola, O.E. (2010). "Job Satisfaction and Gender Factor of Administrative Staff in South West Nigeria Universities" in *EABR & ETLC Conference Proceedings Dublin*. Ireland, pp.91-95.
- Olsen, D., S.A. Maple & F.K. Stage. (1995). "Women and Minority Faculty Job Satisfaction: Professional Role Interests, Professional Satisfactions, and Institutional Fit" in *The Journal of Higher Education*, 66(3), pp.267-293.
- Oshagbemi, T. (1997). "The Influence of Rank on the Job Satisfaction of Organizational Members" in *Journal Managerial Psychology*, 12(8), pp.511-519.
- Packard, S.H. & D.R. Kauppi. (1999). "Rehabilitation Agency Leadership Style" in *Rehabilitation Counseling Bulletin*, 43(1), pp.5-7.
- Paul, E.P. & S.K. Phua. (2011). "Lecturers' Job Satisfaction in a Public Tertiary Institution in Singapore: Ambivalent and Non-Ambivalent Relationships between Job Satisfaction and Demographic Variables" in *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 33(2), pp.141-151.
- Pearson, D.A. & R.E. Seiler. (1983). "Environmental Satisfiers in Academe" in *Higher Education*, 12(1), pp.35-47.
- Platsidou, M. & G. Diamantopoulou. (2009). "Job Satisfaction of Greek University Professors: Is it Affected by Demographic Factors, Academic Rank and Problem of Higher Education?" in G.K. Zarifis [ed]. *Conference Proceedings on Educating the Adult Educators: Quality Provision and Assessment in Europe*. Thessaloniki: ESREA-ReNADET, Grafima Publications, pp.535-545.
- Rice, E.R. & A.E. Austin. (1988). "Faculty Morale: What Exemplary Colleges Do Right" in *Change*, 20(2), pp.51-58.
- Santhapparaj, A.S. & S.S. Alam. (2005). "Job Satisfaction among Academic Staff in Private Universities in Malaysia" in *Journal of Social Sciences*, 1(2).
- Saygi, H., T. Tolon & H. Tekogul. (2011). "Job Satisfaction among Academic Staff in Fisheries Faculties at Turkish Universities" in *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 39(10), pp.1395-1402.
- Schulz, I.L. & C. Teddlie. (1989). "The Relationship between Teachers' Job Satisfaction and Their Perceptions of Principals' Use of Power and School Effectiveness" in *Education*, 109(4), pp.461-468.
- Schulze, S. (2006). "Factors Influencing the Job Satisfaction of Academics in Higher Education" in *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 20(2), pp.318-335.
- Sharma, R.D. & J. Jyoti. (2006). "Job Satisfaction of University Teachers: An Empirical Study" in *Journal of Service Research*, 9(2).
- Sharma, R.D. & J. Jyoti. (2010). "Job Satisfaction among School Teachers" in *IIMB Management Review*, 18(4), pp.349-363.
- Spector, P.E. (1997). *Job Satisfaction: Application, Assessment, Causes, and Consequences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Springfield-Scott, M. (2000). "Faculty Job Satisfaction in a University Work Environment" in *Thresholds in Education*, pp.25-32.

MINH-QUANG DUONG,

A Comparison of Factors Influencing the Job Satisfaction

- Sseganga, K. & R.M. Garrett. (2005). "Job Satisfaction of University Academics: Perspectives from Uganda" in *Higher Education*, 50, pp.33-56.
- Telman, N. & P. Unsal. (2004). *Calisan Memmuniyeti*. Istanbul: Epsilon Publishing.
- Van Tonder, L.L. (1993). "Die Bestuur van Bevredegingsaspekte aan 'n Tegnieuse Kollege". *Unpublished M.Ed. Dissertation*. Johannesburg: Rand Afrikaans University.
- Venter, E.J. (1998). "Gehalte van Werklewe van Dosente aan die Universiteit van die Oranje Vrystaat". *Unpublished M.BA. Degree*. Potchefstroom: Potchefstroom University for CHE.
- Verret, L.B. (2012). "Factors Affecting University STEM Faculty Job Satisfaction". *Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation*. Louisiana: Louisiana State University.
- Wood, O.R. (1976). "A Research Project: Measuring Job Satisfaction of the Community College Staff" in *Community College Review*, 3(3), pp.56-64.
- Zhou, Y. & J.F. Volkwein. (2004). "Examining the Influences on Faculty Departure Intentions: A Comparison of Tenured Versus Non-Tenured Faculty at Research Universities Using NSOPF-99" in *Research in Higher Education*, 45, pp.139-176.

EKO PRIYANTO

IMPROVING DEMOCRATIC VALUES IN CIVIC EDUCATION LEARNING THROUGH GROUPED-DISCUSSION METHOD FOR THE STUDENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTION

ABSTRACT: This study was aimed at improving the students' democratic values among the students in higher education institution through a grouped-discussion method. This was triggered by a lack of understanding on democratic values among the students in the university level. They also indicated less-democratic attitudes and behavior. This was an action research study following the model of Stephen Kemmis & Robin McTaggart (1988). The subject of the research was the fourth-semester students at the Study Program of Indonesia and Local Languages Education, Faculty of Education and Teacher Training UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java, Indonesia. There were 60 students. The action (treatment) given was an application of grouped-discussion in the Civic Education courses. The data collection was through observation from which the results was noted in an observation guide. In addition, it was also done through testing of essay questions and an interview. Two types of data were collected, i.e. qualitative data from document, results of observation, and recorded interview; and the quantitative data were from testing of pre- and post-test. Based on the analysis, it was proved that the democratic values among the students can be improved through grouped-discussion method applied in Civic Education course. Their average learning score was 63.75 before the treatment and it increased to 72.77 after the first cycle. At the end of the second cycle, it became 80.68. Besides, another increase was indicated from their democratic attitude and behavior. They acknowledged that every individual has a freedom of giving his/her opinion, of making a group of organization, and participating in any organization, appreciating citizen and gender equity, and respecting other people's opinion.

KEY WORDS: Democratic values, grouped-discussion, civic education, students, democratic attitude and behavior, and good citizen of Indonesia.

INTRODUCTION

The issues emerging in the globalization time among others include democracy, human right, civil society, and environment. Those issues, for the international society, are made into parts of requirements to be accepted in the international relation. The countries who do not comply with them will be seen to be isolating themselves and they are regarded as abnormal and violating the rules (Allen White, 2000; Rodriguez *et al.*, 2000; and Winataputra, 2006).

Democracy, as one of the global issues, is viewed by many as a social system that will enable the people to pursue a good living (Branson, 1999; Azra, 2002b; and

Budimansyah, 2007). Going in the line with the belief, many countries, including Indonesia, have made countless efforts to transform their states to lead into a democratic society—particularly for Indonesia, after its three decades of experience under an authoritarian ruler (Ibnu Chamim *et al.*, 2003:vi).

Manifesting democracy in a society and a state is not something easy to do; it is, in fact, a complicated process which possibly comes into a dead-end, meaning it fails to achieve. Among the factors for such failure is a lack of main prerequisite to be, i.e. the democratic culture and socio-politics.

Gabriel Almond explained that a nation developing their democratic culture shall

Eko Priyanto is a Lecturer at the Faculty of Education and Teacher Training UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto), Jalan Raya Dukuwaluh, Purwokerto City, Central Java, Indonesia. E-mail: ahmadump@yahoo.co.id

undertake two following stages (cited in Ibnu Chamim *et al.*, 2003:viii). The first stage is to develop democratic institutions. At this stage, it is aimed at creating a social condition and individual personalities which will promote the democracy. The second stage is a process to nurture individual attitudes supporting democracy. The first stage is to set a democratic social-structure and political-culture.

Indonesia is a democratic state. This can be seen from the formal and judicial evidences of its Constitution or UUD (*Undang-Undang Dasar*) 1945, as it is ruled in Chapter 1 on the Form and the Authority, Article 1 paragraph (2) saying that “*the authority is on people and it is conducted according to the Constitution*” (Ubaidillah *et al.*, 2000). Based on its historical experience, democracy as a system of state rules a balance relation between the government, state, and people. These three parties control each other in conducting their rights and obligations. The balance position and inter-controlling are to avoid an anarchy and tyranny which may be done by one of the parties (Dahl, 1971; Budiardjo, 1977; Sartori, 1987; and Wuryani & Syaifullah, 2006).

This time, Indonesia is at the stage of coming into the learning process of applying democracy in all aspects of nation and state run after its long waiting for the momentum. In national conference held by Central Committee of Muhammadiyah on Board of Higher Education, Research and Development (*Majelis Pendidikan Tinggi, Penelitian dan Pengembangan, Pengurus Pusat Muhammadiyah*), Zamroni argued as follows:

This can be well understood since the past legacy either of the Old Order or of the New Order did not promote the democratization process, and the lack of education contribution to nurture the democratic culture. Evenmore, the education have gone against it; it has made the cultural democracy a means to eliminate the democracy itself (Zamroni, 2001:xvii).

The break of Reform waves in 1990's has brought a new hope of demoracy development and of realizing a civil society in Indonesia, though it left many unresolved social phatologies in the transition periods. Building a strong foundation of democracy and civil society, particularly in the transition times,

should not only be fought; it shall be nurtured, grown through well-planned efforts targetted to all layers of the whole society (Ubaidillah *et al.*, 2000).

This is to make sure that “the tree of democracy and civil society” starting to grow, along with the “big wave” of democracy, human rights, and civil society in the world will not be withered and dry-dead even before it is rooted well. To this point, Azyumardi Azra explains that:

One of the democartic infrastructures having an important effect on realization of democracy, democratic culture, and even civil society is education. It is not a ready-to-use product which needs only to be *taken for granted*. In fact, it needs to be learned and is sustainably practiced (Azra, 2002a:6).

Civic Education (CE) subject in the higher education has a strategic position in nurturing the understanding of democratic basic concepts, including the democratic values. It also teaches the application of the concepts and the values in society and in government. It is a step to grow the students' awareness to practice the democratic concepts and values in the academic and social life of their educational setting and in the society in which they live (Azizy *et al.*, 2002).

Thus, the CE strategic learning is needed to establish a safe and critical atmosphere. This also functions to maintain a dialogue and participation of the students in the class. To achieve the objectives, some important aspects need to consider in planning and implementing the learning process. Those include objectives, materials, method, media, learning facilities, learning atmosphere, and the students (Djajadisastra, 1981; Ali, 1987; and Ahmadi & Prasetya, 1997).

The CE learning should employ a participative learning method and approach, i.e. learning approach and method to interest tthe students' motivation to actively participate in the learning process. On the topics of democratic values, the right method to apply is a grouped-discussion. In practice, the usual method taken tended to indoctrinate, like a usual lecture with a little question and answer session. In such a process, students were only passive objects of learning. In fact, they should

be active subjects in the learning. This will put bad impacts on the students on the learning of democratic living which later will guide them in handling the problems in social life. They should be prepared to anticipate the complex and dynamic problems of realities which need right solutions (Rosyada, 2003).

The CE learning ideally is done in a democratic atmosphere. It refers to a class which provides all students with freedom to hold an open and fear-free discussion in criticizing actual social problems concerning the implementation of democratic values. It also have to entertain them with an active participation in the learning. Thus, the role of the lecturer is only a facilitator to ease the students in learning a democratic life and he/she is also a motivator to encourage them to learn actively a democratic living (Numan Somantri, 2001).

Based on the reasons above, a grouped-discussion is an appropriate method to apply in the learning of democratic values. It is to train the students to practice a democratic life in the classroom, in the society where they live, and in Indonesia as a nation-state. Through its application, it was expected that the democratic values among the students would be improved: they would understand the values of civic knowledge more deeply, they would have a civic disposition, and they could implement the values (civic skills) in the daily practices.

RESEARCH METHOD

This is a classroom-action research adopting the model of Stephen Kemmis & Robin McTaggart (1988). The method used is qualitative and quantitative descriptive method. The data of the research were collected through testing, observation, interview, questionnaire, and documentation (Arikunto, 1998; and Muhyadi, 2008). The instruments of the data collection include: (1) evaluation instrument, post-treatment testing; (2) observation guide; (3) interview guide; and (4) questionnaire.

The subject of the research was the fourth-semester students at the Study Program of Indonesia and Local Languages Education, Faculty of Education and Teacher Training

UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java, Indonesia. There were 60 students. The action (treatment) given was an application of grouped-discussion in the Civic Education courses. The researcher here was also the actor of the treatment and two of his colleagues became the observers.

The data collection was through observation from which the results was noted in an observation guide. In addition, it was also done through testing of essay questions and an interview. Two types of data were collected, i.e. qualitative data from document, results of observation, and recorded interview; and the quantitative data were from testing of pre- and post-test. They were then analyzed through descriptive-quantitative method to analyze the learning achievements of democratic values, and the qualitative-descriptive was also applied to analyze the data driven from the observation and the interview. The formula used to analyze the quantitative data is as follows:

$$\text{Percentage (\%)} = \frac{\text{Frequence (F)}}{N} \times 100$$

Note:

Frequence (F) = the sum of the students' score.
N = the number of students (subject of the research)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

First, the Analysis of Average Score of the Democratic Values Learning. The result of improvement of students' democratic values among the subjects from the pre-treatment, post-treatment of first cycle, and post-treatment of second cycle is displayed in table 1.

Based on the table 1, it can be concluded that the average score of the learning of democratic values among the subject indicated a consistent improvement. The evaluation of pre-treatment gave an average score of 63.75. From the second test given after the first cycle, it increased to 72.77 and it went up more after the second cycle, 80.68. In other words, the improvements in the stages were 14.15% (from the first cycle) and 10.87% (from the second cycle). The improvement of students' score on democratic values learning is depicted in the diagram 1.

Table 1:
 The Improvement of Students' Democratic Values

	Pre-Test	Post-Test of Cycle 1	Post-Test of Cycle 2
Average score	63.75	72.77	80.68
% improvement		14.15	10.87

Table 2:
 The Students' Learning Mastery at the Pre-Treatment

No	Total	Score Below the Required Standard	Score Above the Required Standard
N	60	54	6
%	100%	90%	10%

Second, an Analysis of Students' Learning Mastery. The bottom limit of learning mastery in UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java, Indonesia is 70, based on the Rector's Decree (Rektor UMP, 2008). The data analysis of the students' learning mastery can be seen in the table 2.

As it is seen in the table 2, the students' understanding on the democratic values is low as it is indicated by the small percentage of those achieving the score above the required standard of learning mastery, 70. Finding this fact, the researcher did an evaluation with two collaborators. It was done through observation on the learning process. The result of the observation revealed that the students had no much involvement in the learning process. This fact was seen in the students' few responses after the lecturer's presentation. Only 3 students (5%) gave comment/question. Some students were seen to chat with others, especially among those in the back row. The lecturer, then, warned and asked a question to regain their attention on the material discussed.

Based on the evaluation result, it is found that the alternative solution for the problems in learning the subject, especially on the democratic values, is a proper learning method. It is a method which goes in line with its material characteristics. It was, then,

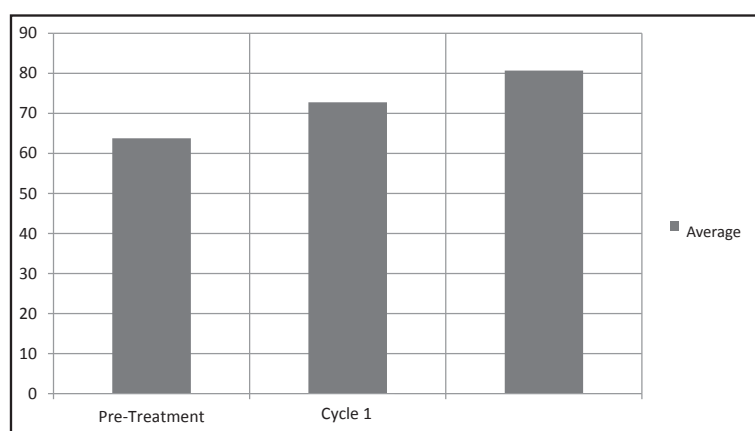


Diagram 1:
 A Diagram of Students' Learning Score of Democratic Values among the Subjects

decided that the right method is a grouped-discussion method. The method is rarely put, and even, is never used in the CE (Civic Education) learning, especially in the class as the subject of this study. It used to use a lecture method complemented with question-answer method (Djajadisastra, 1981; and Ahmadi & Prasetya, 1997).

Thus, it was then concluded that the grouped-discussion method is the most appropriate method to be used in the CE subject, especially in the topic of democratic values (freedom, equality, responsibility, cooperation, belief, and legal obedience).

From the table 3, it is seen a dramatic increase in which most students (90%) had made scores equal to or above the required standard of learning mastery. This was in contrast to the previous condition of pre-

Table 3:
The Students' Learning Mastery at the Post-Treatment of Cycle 1

No	Total	Score Below the Required Standard	Score Equal/Above the Required Standard
N	60	6	54
%	100%	10%	90%

Table 4:
The Students' Learning Mastery at the Post-Treatment of Cycle 2

No	Total	Score Below the Required Standard	Score Equal/Above the Required Standard
N	60	2	58
%	100%	3.33%	96.66%

treatment in which 90% of them were unable to reach the minimum score.

Based on the on-spot observation, during the treatment of the first cycle, it was noted that all three meetings had changed in terms of the behavior of the students and the lecturer (observation notes I, 17/4/2013). As it has been known that, in the pre-treatment classes, the students were passive and they were reluctant to engage in the learning process; they did not ask any question and some even chatted to each other. The class was not conducive. It was only a one-way communication in which the lecturer always feeded in everything and the students were only passive audience. In short, the lecturer was the center of the learning process (Ali, 1987; and Sudjana, 1989).

In the first cycle of the treatment, the condition had changed. The chances for the students to actively engage were there by opening a grouped-discussion sessions. The atmosphere was so conducive and much better than the pre-treatment. The students focused on the class work and they were involved more actively in the learning process. This could be seen from their activities in the discussion either the members of the presenting group or those of the audience group. This proved an increase of democratic values implemented by the students.

Seen from their average score of 72.77, which was more than the previous score of 63.75, it was obviously found that the academic improvement was really there. The data of the students having gained a score

equal to or more than the required standard of learning mastery was displayed in the table 3.

As it was seen in table 4, the students who achieved below the standard were only minor, 3.33%. Most of them (96.66%) had successfully achieved the standard score. In sum, the increase of the students' learning of democratic values between three stages was 80% and 6.67%. There was a very dramatic increase from the pre-treatment to the post-treatment of the first cycle, as follows: (1) Pre-treatment = 10%; (2) Post-treatment of first cycle = 90%; and (3) Post-treatment of second cycle = 96.67%.

The observation on the second cycle is basically the same as the one on the first. It was targeted to the activities of lecturer and students during the learning, particularly on the learning of democratic values using grouped-discussion method. The lecturer took a role of facilitator, motivator, and the drive (observation notes II, 24/4/2013).

The role of the lecturer as facilitator is to facilitate the discussion implementation like planning the learning activities and the grouped discussions, designing the rules of grouped discussion, guiding the paper writing, explaining the aspects of evaluation, providing the references for the students, and suggesting the students to actively update the information/news in electronic media as well as those reported in the printed media (journals, magazines, and newspapers), and also preparing the learning media.

Lecturers as a motivator is encouraging students to get involved in the learning

process, namely the implementation of grouped-discussion on the actual social problems associated with democratic values (Kirschenbaun, 1995). The ways taken by lecturer to motivate the students were through reinforcement, such as giving a reward and punishment. The prizing can be in the words of praise and in giving a score; meanwhile the punishment can be in the form of reducing the score or even cancelling the score of the subject.

The lecturer as a dynamic factor is to ensure that the discussion can run well and it can achieve the targetted objective. In acting the role, the lecturer became a moderator of the discussion and gave a review of the discussions by providing case examples of actual social problems associated with democratic values (Zamroni, 2003; and Wantoro, 2008). The lecturer could make some humors in between, so the learning activities and group discussions can run more interesting and fun.

However, it is undeniable that there are still some students who have not been involved in the learning process optimally and the grouped-discussion in teaching the democratic values. Hence, they could not gain the learning objectives. The students, in the implementation of the second cycle, looked more active and creative. This can be seen from the students' learning motivation which is generally better than that of the first cycle. More activities and higher motivation were proved in both groups (observation notes II, 24/4/2013).

The presenting group was better than the one in the first cycle, in terms of their mutual cooperation in the presentation, their topic mastery, their self-control/emotional control, their ability to respect the different opinion of others, and their reaction to answer the questions in polite way. The same improvement also appeared in the audience groups. They have a higher motivation to involve in the discussion as it was seen from the increased number of students who ask questions or respond comments from the audience, their questions were also about the topics discussed.

Their questions also explored the actual social problems. Their competence was good: the ability to respect other ideas, the ability to control emotions, and the ability to use of

the language properly and politely. Thus, the interaction between the groups of students who presented papers and other groups of students who responded as well as among fellow students in the class was good and it created a conducive condition.

The data in table 5 is depicted in a diagram 2.

Based on the percentage of learning mastery in each cycle, it proved that there was a very significant increase as the result of the second cycle shows a high proportion of 96.67% which can categorized as excellence. Considering this achievement, the research was decided to be in two cycles only.

Discussion. Through the grouped-discussion method, the students were trained to have a freedom of thinking, a freedom of giving opinion, and a freedom of participating. They were also trained to control their behavior; and their emotion and to respect others' opinion, though their opinion was perhaps different from theirs. Hence, they were trained not to be egocentric, and they learned to see thing in others' perspectives.

The application of the group discussion method in CE (Civic Education) learning can increase the students' democratic value in the Study Program of Indonesia and Local Languages Education, Faculty of Education and Teacher Training UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java, Indonesia, since a group discussion is the decision-making process through consultation among several groups in order to solve problems that arise due to problems of common interest in order to reach an mutually agreed decision.

The group discussions for students can increase their courage to put forward the ideas and opinions about the alternatives of solving a problem (solution) of the actual social problems discussed in the paper as well as to propose the arguments in proper manner. It has improved the students' critical thinking and sensitivity to social problems that require the actual solution, widened their insights related to social life, of the nation and of the state by means of studying the actual social problems (Gutmann, 1999; Cipto *et al.*, 2000; and Muhaimin, 2002). It also has improved their

Table 5:
The Data of Students' Scores between Three Stages

No	Evaluation	Below the Standard of Learning Mastery	Equal and Above the Standard of Learning Mastery
1	Pre-Treatment	54	6
2	Cycle 1	6	54
3	Cycle 2	2	58

self-confidence and self-control ability, improved their ability to respect the other people's opinion, and fostered a sense of great responsibility. Finally, the grouped discussion has improved the students' ability to cooperate with others in a same group or with other groups.

The grouped discussion also can educate the students to understand and to have a willingness to implement the democratic values in society: the public of their class, the college community, the community in which the students live, to the wider community of the Unitary State of the Republic of Indonesian. Their understanding and application of democratic values as parts of the citizens will be able to strengthen the enforcement of Indonesian state life, hinged at the democracy as stipulated in Article 1, Paragraph 2 of the Constitution or *Undang-Undang Dasar 1945* (Budiardjo, 1977; Daroeso, 1986; and Taniredja, Harmianto & Priyanto, 2010).

The students who have mastered thoroughly were given a remedial teaching and teachers also interviewed them. Based on interviews, it was concluded that both students had a low motivation to attend the course/the learning of CE, especially in the democratic values. This was proved from the facts that they were not actively involved in the discussion. They, evenmore, preferred chatting with other friends to listening to the explanation of the course material given by the lecturer and to the on-going discussions.

For them, writing paper was only for meeting the teacher's instruction; they did not

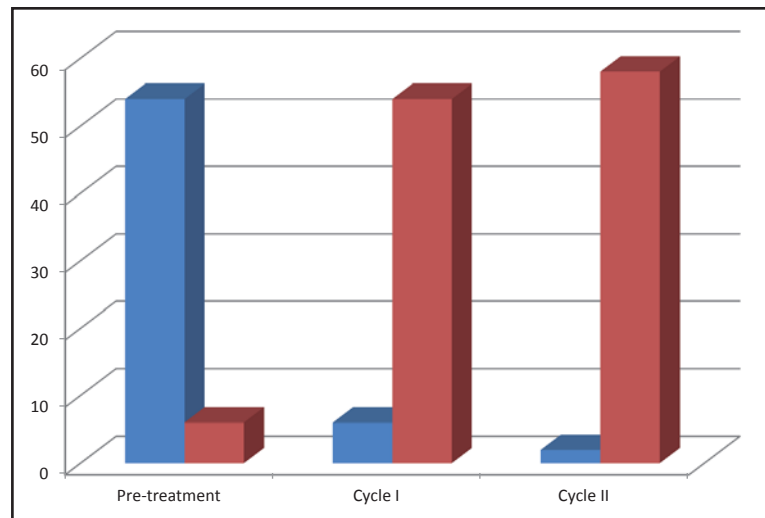


Diagram 2:
Diagram of Students' Learning Mastery in Three Stages

put their best efforts to it. They were found out to frequently leave their classes. They did not like to read references, even the books were available (interview with the students, 24/4/2013). In fact, one of the students argued as follows:

[...] the material of CE (Civic Education) is always the same from the past to the present; and I did not have any willingness to read literature books of new civics which have been modified to accord to the development demands in the reform and the globalization eras (interview with student A, 30/4/2013).

Seen from their learning achievement, both students had not mastered the civic knowledge, the civic disposition, and the civic skill. This was seen from their understanding on the material; they did not master the topics so well in presenting their paper. They could not explain the terms in their paper, and they also failed in three tests given. From their civic

disposition, both had not showed democratic attitudes, i.e. they did not respect others and even ignored them by having a chat with others during the discussion process, they did not accept the differences of opinion, and they were not responsible in doing their academic tasks. From their civic skill, both students were not skillful in finding the actual social problem in the society and could not give a good alternative solution (Basrie *et al.*, 2000; Dirjendikti Depdiknas RI, 2000; and Azizy *et al.*, 2002).

CONCLUSION

Based on the analysis and discussion in the previous sections, it can be drawn the conclusion as follows:

The grouped-discussion method can increase the students' democratic values among the fourth-semester students at the Study Program of Indonesia and Local Languages Education, Faculty of Education and Teacher Training UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java, Indonesia. This is proved from a significant increase (86%) of the students who achieved the required score of standard learning mastery.

The grouped-discussion method can improve the students' civic disposition reflecting the democratic values in their daily practices. They have implemented and practiced the freedom of giving opinion and the freedom of participation, and they have actively participated in discussion. They have respected others' opinion, the equality of individuals, and the rules of the discussion.

REFERENCES

- Ahmadi, Abu & Joko Tri Prasetya. (1997). *Strategi Belajar-Mengajar*. Bandung: Pustaka Setia.
- Ali, Muhammad. (1987). *Guru dalam Proses Belajar-Mengajar*. Bandung: Sinar Baru.
- Allen White, Willam. (2000). "Core Democratic Values in Americans Constitution". Available [online] also at: www.google.com [accessed in Purwokerto, Indonesia: September 15, 2003].
- Arikunto, Suharsimi. (1998). *Prosedur Penelitian: Suatu Pendekatan Praktek*. Jakarta: Rineka Cipta.
- Azizy, Qodri A. *et al.* (2002). "Pengembangan Civic Education di Kampus dalam Proses Demokratisasi dalam Rangka Menuju Masyarakat Madani". Paper presented in the National Seminar II on Civic Education in Higher Education, at Hotel Lombok Raya, Mataram, Indonesia, on 22-23 April.
- Azra, Azyumardi. (2002a). *Pendidikan Kewarganegaraan untuk Demokrasi Indonesia*. Yogyakarta: Warta PTM.
- Azra, Azyumardi. (2002b). "Pendidikan Demokrasi dan Demokratisasi di Dunia Muslim". Paper presented in the National Seminar II on Civic Education in Higher Education, at Hotel Lombok Raya, Mataram, Indonesia, on 22-23 April.
- Basrie, Chaidir *et al.* (2000). *Model Acuan Proses Pembelajaran Mata Kuliah Pengembangan Kepribadian (MKPK) Pendidikan Kewarganegaraan*. Jakarta: Dirjendikti Depdiknas RI [Direktorat Jenderal Pendidikan Tinggi, Departemen Pendidikan Nasional Republik Indonesia].
- Branson, S. Margaret. (1999). *Belajar Civic Education dari Amerika*. Yogyakarta: Penerbit LkiS, translation.
- Budiardjo, Miriam. (1977). *Dasar-dasar Ilmu Politik*. Jakarta: PT Gramedia Pustaka Utama.
- Budimansyah, Dasim. (2007). "Pendidikan Demokrasi sebagai Konteks Civic Education di Negara Berkembang" in *ACTA CIVICUS: Jurnal Pendidikan Kewarganegaraan*, 2(1), pp. 11-26.
- Cipto, Bambang *et al.* (2000). *Pendidikan Kewarganegaraan (Civic Education)*. Yogyakarta: Penerbit LP3-UMY [Lembaga Penelitian dan Pengembangan Pendidikan – Universitas Muhammadiyah Yogyakarta].
- Dahl, Robert A. (1971). *Polyarchy, Participation, and Opposition*. New Haven and London: Yale University Press.
- Daroeso, Bambang. (1986). *Dasar dan Konsep Pendidikan Moral Pancasila*. Semarang: Aneka Ilmu.
- Dirjendikti Depdiknas RI [Direktorat Jenderal Pendidikan Tinggi, Departemen Pendidikan Nasional Republik Indonesia]. (2000). *Penyempurnaan Garis-garis Besar Program Pengajaran (GBPP) Mata Kuliah Pengembangan Kepribadian (MKPK) Pendidikan Kewarganegaraan pada Perguruan Tinggi di Indonesia*. Jakarta: Departemen Pendidikan Nasional Republik Indonesia.
- Djajadisatra, Jusuf. (1981). *Metode-metode Pembelajaran*. Jakarta: PT Bumi Aksara.
- Gutmann, Amy. (1999). *Democratic Education*. New Jersey: Princeton University Press.
- Ibnu Chamim, Asykuri *et al.* (2003). *Pendidikan Kewarganegaraan (Civic Education)*. Yogyakarta, Indonesia: LP3 UMY, revised edition.
- Interview with Student A at the Study Program of Indonesia and Local Languages Education, Faculty of Education and Teacher Training UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java, Indonesia, on 30th April 2013.
- Interview with the Students at the Study Program of Indonesia and Local Languages Education, Faculty of Education and Teacher Training UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java, Indonesia, on 24th April 2013.
- Kemmis, Stephen & Robin McTaggart [eds]. (1988). *The Action Research Planner*. Victoria, Australia: Deakin University Press.
- Kirschenbaun, Howard. (1995). *100 Ways to Enhance Values and Morality in Schools and Youth Settings*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

- Muhaimin, Yahya. (2002). *Pendidikan Kewarganegaraan di Perguruan Tinggi*. Yogyakarta: Suara PTM.
- Muhyadi. (2008). "Model-model Penelitian Tindakan Kelas". Available [online] also at: <http://staff.uny.ac.id> [accessed in Purwokerto, Indonesia: February 8, 2013].
- Numan Somantri, Muhammad. (2001). *Menggagas Pembaharuan Pendidikan IPS (Ilmu Pengetahuan Sosial)*. Bandung: PT Remaja Rosdakarya.
- Observation Notes I at the Study Program of Indonesia and Local Languages Education, Faculty of Education and Teacher Training UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java, Indonesia, on 17th April 2013.
- Observation Notes II at the Study Program of Indonesia and Local Languages Education, Faculty of Education and Teacher Training UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java, Indonesia, on 24th April 2013.
- Rektor UMP [Universitas Muhammadiyah Purwokerto]. (2008). "Surat Keputusan Rektor UMP, No.A12.I.012-S.Kep/UMP/I/2008". *Unpublished Letter*. Purwokerto: Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto.
- Rodriguez, Kenneth *et al.* (2000). *Learning about Foundation of Democracy*. Los Angeles: Center for Civic Education (CCE) University of California.
- Rosyada, Dede. (2003). "Menciptakan *Experimental Democracy* Melalui Pembelajaran CE (*Civic Education*)" in *Warta PTM*, 7/VI [July]. Yogyakarta: Majelis Diktilitbang PP Muhammadiyah.
- Sartori, Geovani. (1987). *The Theory of Democracy Revisited*. Chatham, New Jersey: Chatham House Publishers, Inc.
- Sudjana, Nana. (1989). *Cara Belajar Siswa Aktif dalam Proses Belajar-Mengajar*. Bandung: Sinar Baru Algensindo.
- Taniredja, Tukiran, Sri Harmianto & Eko Priyanto. (2010). "Development of Civic Education Campus-Based at Muhammadiyah Universities in Central Java, Indonesia" in *EDUCARE: International Journal for Educational Studies*, 3(2), pp.153-170. Available [online] also at: www.educare-ijes.com [accessed in Purwokerto, Indonesia: March 5, 2013].
- Ubaidillah, A. *et al.* (2000). *Pendidikan Kewargaan, Demokrasi, Hak Asasi Manusia, dan Masyarakat Madani*. Jakarta: IAIN [Institut Agama Islam Negeri] Jakarta Press.
- Wantoro, Tri. (2008). "Profil Pengembangan Pendidikan Kewarganegaraan sebagai Pendidikan Demokrasi" in *ACTA CIVICUS: Jurnal Pendidikan Kewarganegaraan*, 2(1), pp.215-222.
- Winataputra, Udin S. (2006). *Pendidikan Demokrasi dan Hak Asasi Manusia sebagai Wahana Demokratisasi: Perspektif Metodologi*. Bandung: Rizqi Offset.
- Wuryani, Sri & Syaifullah. (2006). *Ilmu Kewarganegaraan (Civic)*. Bandung: Laboratorium Pendidikan Kewarganegaraan, Fakultas Pendidikan Ilmu Pengetahuan Sosial UPI [Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia].
- Zamroni. (2001). "*Civic Education* di Perguruan Tinggi: Urgensi dan Metodologi" in *Warta PTM*, Edisi I Tahun XVI. Yogyakarta: Majelis Diktilitbang PP Muhammadiyah.
- Zamroni. (2003). "Pendidikan Kewarganegaraan: Tradisi dalam Memelihara Kehidupan Majemuk" in *Warta PTM*, 7(XV). Yogyakarta. Majelis Diktilitbang PP Muhammadiyah.



Democracy in Indonesia: Between Hope and Reality
(Source: www.google.com, 15/9/2013)

The break of Reform waves in 1990's has brought a new hope of demoracy development and of realizing a civil society in Indonesia, though it left many unresolved social phatologies in the transition periods. Building a strong foundation of democracy and civil society, particularly in the transition times, should not only be fought; it shall be nurtured, grown through well-planned efforts targetted to all layers of the whole society.

FUNGAI HAMILTON MUDZENGERERE & EDMORE MBOKOCHENA

THE DELICATE DROPPING OF RELIGIOUS STUDIES AT ORDINARY LEVEL BY STUDENTS IN HIGH DENSITY URBAN SCHOOLS OF HARARE, ZIMBABWE

ABSTRACT: *With the new developments in technology worldwide, science subjects are dominating in the curricular and given special preference as compared to the arts subjects. This study examined some of the factors that influence pupils to drop Religious Studies at Ordinary Level in Harare Education Province in Zimbabwe. The research focused on aspects such as social problems, intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors on the student as well as the influence from the teachers and school authorities. Four schools were selected for the study and interviews were done to students sitting for the ordinary level examinations to determine the reasons for dropping religious studies. Key informants interviews were done to respective teachers, school authorities to get their views on the dropping of religious education in schools. The other research instruments used were questionnaires, interviews, and the document analysis in order to gather as much data as possible both from students and school authorities. The research found out that pupils in high density secondary schools of Harare are badly burdened by the poor financial background, lack of learning resources, and uncertainty of the future careers of the subject when they finish school. This was found to affect the schools enrolments for Religious Studies at Ordinary Level as well as sitting for the final ordinary level examinations which was shown to have drastically declined. The study, thus, recommended the promotion of modern and dynamic methods in the teaching of Religious Studies with a new changed path for multi-faith approach in lesson delivery as well as the use of technologies to make the learning exhilarating.*

KEY WORDS: *Students, school, religious studies, teacher, urban, pupils, ordinary level examinations, social problems, and intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors.*

INTRODUCTION

Religious Studies in Zimbabwe have always been part of the curricula both in rural and urban areas. According to B.R.S. Chivore (1990), its origin can be traced to the advent of the white missionaries who started formal education. Religious Studies was then introduced in the secondary school curriculum by the white missionaries and become one of the core subjects in any missionary school.

The teaching of Religious Studies was a preserve of the white minority missionaries who wanted to convert African children to Christianity. According to M. Haar (1990), Religious Studies was taught only by the white missionaries and very few indigenous people

were qualified to teach it and this resulted in the subject becoming compulsory in the colonial education system. At this juncture, it is interesting to note that Religious Studies was only confined to few missionary schools and later it was also introduced to a few selected government schools in urban areas.

As pointed out by G. Haar, A. Moyo & S.J. Nondo (1992), at independence in 1980, the new Zimbabwean government inherited a curriculum at secondary schools level structured on the British elitist model, which was designed to alienate the majority of black children. Since its introduction in the secondary school curriculum, Religious Studies at Ordinary Level has not witnessed

any significant change in forms of content and methodology. Though effort has been exerted to introduce and promote the multi-faith approach in teaching Religious Studies, the implementation phase has been piecemeal; hence, the traditional and orthodox methods of teaching Religious Studies are still prevalent in most missionary and government schools throughout Zimbabwe, which has negatively affected pupils' interest and enthusiasm in the subject.

SCOPE OF THE STUDY, RESEARCH METHOD, AND STUDY AREA

The research aimed at seeking to find the principal factors which have influenced pupils to drop Religious Studies at Ordinary Level in large numbers. It involved determining the dropout rate for Religious Studies in four High-Glen cluster Secondary Schools in Harare Education Province. In trying to justify the dropout, the research also established the reasons why pupils are dropping out and hence trying to solve the problem by highlighting some recommendations on how this can be resolved for the benefit of the community. The research also seeks to determine the attitude of students towards Religious Education, the availability of learning resources, as well as the instructional approach employed by Religious Studies teachers in imparting the knowledge to the pupils.

The research tools used were interviews, questionnaires, and primary and secondary data sources. The researchers used two types of triangulation, that is, data triangulation and methodological triangulation whereby data triangulation involved the collection of data over some period and from one person at more than one location so as to check on consistency and validity. P.D. Leedy (1983) regards validity as the degree to which correct references can be made on the basis of results obtained from an instrument.

Method of triangulation involves the use of more than one method of obtaining information (Gunda, 2011). Thus, in this research different times of interviewing as well as data collecting environments were varied so as to reduce the bias. This research utilised both qualitative and quantitative methods

where the researchers tried to simplify what has been observed for the purposes of data analysis and interpretation. Case study was also done on the selected schools so that detailed data was obtained pertaining to the dropout of religious studies by the pupils. Interviews were done both to students, teachers, and administrators so as to get their views on the dropout of religious studies.

According to K.S. Sidhu (1984), interviews are crucial in getting the facial and body language in collection which makes it reliable as data collection technique. For students, group interviews were done; and key informants interviews were conducted on administrators and educationists. The researchers used both individual and group interviews to probe information from Heads of Departments, Religious Studies teachers, and pupils who had dropped Religious Studies at Form Four in Harare province of the Ministry of Education, Sport, and Culture in Zimbabwe.

For effective collection of data, research instruments like questionnaires were used as these helped to control responses (Cohen, 1985). Documentary analysis was also done on checking the documents for those who were taking religious studies and later dropped. This was done to cater for the non-participatory observation (Jackson, 2004). Four high schools were selected in the High-Glen District of the Ministry of Education, Sport, and Culture of the Harare Region in Zimbabwe. The sample size comprised of 90 students, 30 teachers, and four heads of departments. School leavers were also part of the target population.

Data collected was analysed and then summarised in tables, graphs and pie charts, frequency distributions, and percentages assigned in relation to frequencies of response type. In this state, data became easy to compare. Tables were used in analysing population sizes and responses. Frequency distributions and percentages of samples, similarities, and differences of responses were also analysed.

The research project was confined to High-Glen District of the Harare Region of the Ministry of Education, Sport, Arts and Culture in Zimbabwe. Four High schools were

selected for study to ascertain the dropout in religious studies by students. High-Glen district comprises the high density areas of Highfield, Gen-Norah, and Glenview. The areas comprised of people whose livelihoods depend on formal employment in the industrial areas, informal employment, and some who are not employed at all.

The catchment area of the schools is the local area though there are some who travel from other residential areas and some students from this study area also study elsewhere. In terms of educational administration, there is a district education office in the area which then refers other issues to the regional office and head office in the city of Harare.

LITERATURE REVIEW

With the continuous review of the curriculum, there is still a dispute within the Curriculum Development Unit (CDU) about what may be considered legitimate curriculum content in Religious Studies. According to H. Cohen (1985), there is a problem in determining the Religious Studies curriculum and the students' Christian beliefs. Thus, Christian beliefs should not be taught as body of established truth knowledge in Religious Studies, but Religious Studies must be considered as a subject when it is being taught.

As pointed out by E.O. Iheoma (1986), Religious Studies content should understand the language, history, and customs of society with the aim of preserving the society's identity and social existence. E. Ezewu (1986) also supports the same idea by saying that the nature of society in which the child lives is of paramount significance with regard to the scope of content.

Some scholars are of the opinion that Religious Studies content must be based on the interest and inclinations of pupils themselves (Gunda, 2011). Thus, the curriculum content should satisfy the inherent interests and preferences of the pupils rather than become an imposition of the value judgment of the society as this in the end will affect the pupil's interest in the subject which can then lead to dropping the subject (Cohen, 1985).

In Religious Studies, thus, the child centered approach in lesson delivery should be

employed. This can be done through building the content around the needs and interest of children as well as changing the curriculum which remains static over a long period of time. S. Nondo (1991) has questioned the continuous dominance of Christianity in Religious Studies lessons at the expense of other religious and African traditional religion. This alone undermines the importance of Religious Studies in the school curriculum. The Religious Studies content and syllabus should be relevant and reflective of societal aspirations of the Zimbabwean people besides teaching the Christianity values.

According to S. Schoeman (2006), teaching methods are those strategies or techniques adopted by teachers as the most efficient means of achieving lesson objectives. These teaching methods play a crucial role in disseminating information as well as instilling interest and motivation to the students.

Currently, Religious Studies teaching is basically Bible Knowledge and little emphasis is given to the traditional culture. In the education system at schools and colleges what goes on by the name of Religious Education are lessons in Bible-Knowledge whereby teachers use the Bible content approach and not child-centred approach (Sanders, 1984). Religious Studies is basically now viewed as the transmission of knowledge of the Bible and the Christian faith.

Traditional teaching methods characterised by teacher and book domination are prevalent in most secondary schools in Zimbabwe. P. Kasambira (1998) believes that the persistence of orthodox and conventional methods of teaching Religious Studies have been necessitated by the aims and objectives of the subject and the methods of assessment. There is an assumption that the teaching of Religious Studies is more of indoctrination whereby besides the objective of grasping the concepts, the religious beliefs of the students are also affected as in the end they are to be converted to Christians.

The adequate provision of teaching and learning resources enhances academic performance and motivation of pupils (Duncan, 1989). Deprivation of basic educational resources such as textbooks, affects

pupils' performance, and this in the end may cause pupils to dropout some subjects. However, E. Ezewu (1986) argues that the provision of teaching resources does not necessarily improve pupils' performance as performance is based on ability and attitude. However, there is need for making sure that learning resources are provided so as to motivate students in taking up Religious Studies and improve on their performance.

According to J. Duncan (1989), the general feeling or belief towards Religious Studies is that it is easy and is an option offered to slow learners in schools. Pupils, then, develop a negative attitude towards the subject as they don't want to be associated with cheap subjects. M. Haralambos (1985) rightly confirms that the manner in which teachers react to individual pupils can affect their educational career and feeling towards the subject. The system of streaming practiced by most school has worsened the situation as Religious Studies is offered to the slow learners; hence the fast learners end up dropping the subject. Streaming results in pupils perceived as having low ability being actually denied knowledge which is essential for educational success.

DISCUSSIONS AND FINDINGS

First, on the Qualifications of the Religious Studies Teachers. Figure 1 shows that most teachers who teach Religious Studies attained ordinary level as their highest qualification of learning. Trained teachers comprise 50% with the female teachers dominating from the interviews conducted. The teachers' qualifications are necessary to show competence in the subject areas as this plays a role in ensuring quality education.

M. Hanson (1979) says that the training of teachers and administrators in the education system improves on quality and confidence in the execution of the duties. Students will have confidence in their teachers through the qualifications they hold.

Second, on the Reasons for Dropouts of Religious Studies. To some extent, the school administrators who are the headmasters and

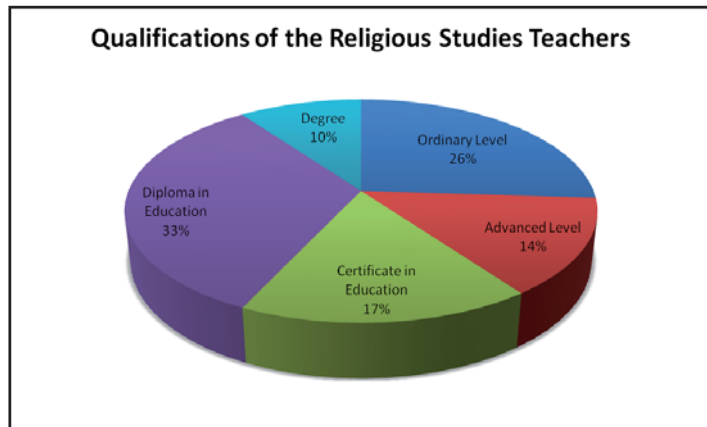


Figure 1:
Distribution of Teachers by Qualification

the teachers contribute as well to the dropout of Religious Studies. About 10% of the students quit Religious Studies because of streaming. Streaming of pupils according to ability is one of the reasons why pupils do not attend certain subjects or take it seriously for they are considered incapable of doing some subjects and content.

According to R. Jackson (2004), lack of interest and poor academic performance at primary level are some of the reasons which adversely affect school performance and, thus, end up dropping Religious Studies as a final resort. According to the teachers interviewed on the reasons for the dropouts, 25% attributed lack of relevance of syllabus and 20% cited inappropriate objectives of the subject which lead to pupils dropping it at ordinary level (interview with the teachers, 9-16/10/2012). Figure 2 shows the responses by the teachers on the reasons for the dropouts.

The headmasters interviewed attributed the dropout to lack of relevance of the syllabus as well as lack of motivation of the students on the subject (interview with the headmasters, 18-25/10/2012). Thus, carrier guidance needs to be done in schools so as to motivate students and letting them know the future carriers they can do with Religious Studies (Ndlovu, 2013).

The histogram shows that about 26% of the Religious Studies dropout in the four schools have a feeling that pupils' dropout is due to the restrictions of the relevance of the syllabus. This implies that the content in the syllabus

seems to be too difficult for pupils' perception. About 20% of the teachers believe that the current Religious Studies syllabus is predominantly Christian in nature and does not include non-Christian sects. They felt that the syllabus should be amended without delay so that it incorporates the students' needs in their learning. The teachers felt that objectives of the subject were not well revised in that though they tended to be measurable within the thirty-minute lesson they hardly have lasting effects (interview with the teachers, 9-16/10/2012).

Lack of motivational background and lack of interest from pupils in general both have 14% responses. Pupils lacked motivation from parents who hardly encouraged them to do homework at home. Pupils' sentiments were that home backgrounds were not conducive to learning. About 10% of the teachers agreed that streaming of pupils is one of the factors which influenced the subject drop-out. D.C. Sanders (1984) also points out that streaming of students have an implication on the performance of the students as it labels students.

Third, on the Teaching Method Used. From figure 3 shows that about 10% of the Religious Studies teachers from the high density schools in Harare use dictation method when teaching the pupils. It is an indication that teachers hardly use varied teaching methods. Discovery method through group work was used by about 20% of the teachers and 30% of the teachers use the lecture and chalk board method. From the teachers interviewed, about 40% of the teachers give notes to the pupils either by dictation or by chalk-board writing. The teachers stated that shortage of basic resources and the non-availability of revision practice books influenced teachers into giving notes to pupils (interview with the teachers, 9-16/10/2012).

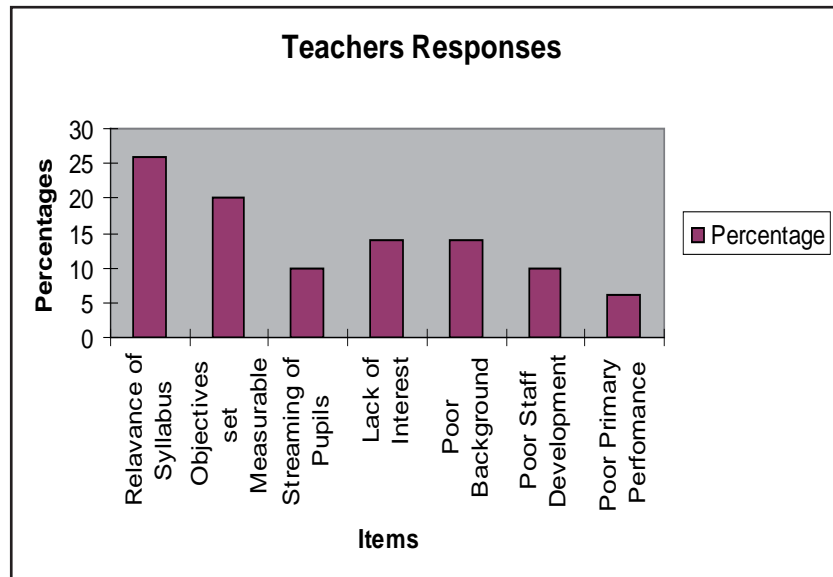


Figure 2:
Responses by Teachers on the Dropout of Religious Studies

The research found out that the problem of text books shortage is common in all the schools under study. Discovery learning, according to P. Obanya (1985), affirms that teachers should encourage researching, reasoning, and presentation of accounts by pupils. Most teachers interviewed agreed that most of the pupils are of mixed abilities who find it difficult to make their own notes but need to be spoon fed (interview with the teachers, 9-16/10/2012).

M.R. Gunda (2011) regards drama as essential in Religious Studies lessons. He argues that it provides opportunities for active participation in lesson being taught at Ordinary Level and it will be easy for the pupils to recall the information dramatized. There is need to adopt and implement the new approaches in Religious Studies teaching that makes the subject interesting.

As shown in figure 4, about 40% of the Heads of Departments of the four schools confirmed that the lecture method was used by most teachers because of the format of assessment of Religious Studies examinations stressed retention and the regurgitation of stories. The Heads of Department also agreed that note giving is often used by some teachers although they agreed that such scenario make the Religious Studies lessons to be

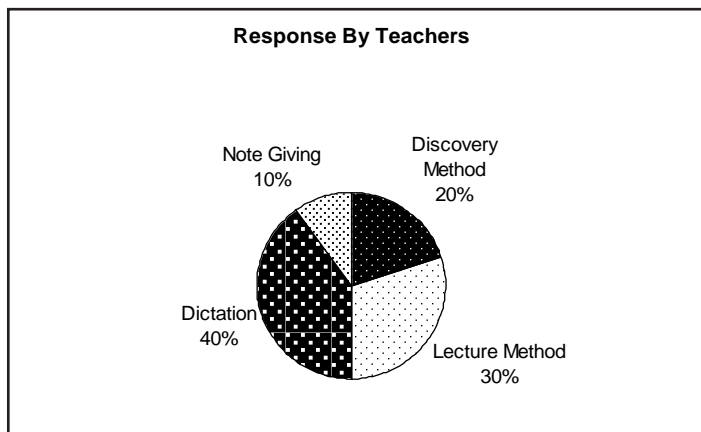
dull, monotonous, and uninspiring; consequently, pupils drop the subject at Ordinary Level. Least number of Heads of Department agreed that discovery method and dictation was barely used by teachers during lesson delivery, since most pupils are of below average and cannot grasp anything either by discovery method or by dictation (interview with the heads of departments, 1-8/11/2012).

Fourth, on the Reasons by Students for Dropping Religious Studies. Figure 5 shows that about 22% of pupils drop the Religious Studies subject due to unconfirmed transfers as revealed in class registers of the four schools. About 28% of the pupils lacked financial support from parents or guardians for them to sit for all the subjects at Ordinary Level. The research found out that the pupils' guardians dictated to them the subjects they would enrol. About 33% of the pupils dropped the subject for no apparent reason. About 7% dropped the subject from school to go and become housemaids, tuck-shop keepers due to lack of financial support from their guardians.

This has been triggered by the high cost of living which most parents are failing to cope depending on their type of employment. Only about 2% of the girl-child dropped from writing the Religious Study subject due to early marriages. The writers felt that this was due to lack of parental guidance. About 5% of the pupils dropped from writing the subject owing to ill health problems as they were at hospital or recuperating from home.

According to R. Jackson (2004), student's dropout from schools due to social problems can as well be attributed to early socialization where the community takes little value in the education. Thus, motivation for pupils to continue studying can begin at the family level if meaningful results are to be attained as the family is the centre for primary socialization.

Fifth, Need to Change the Syllabus. From the information on figure 6, about 60% of the Heads of Department from the four



N = 30

Figure 3:
 Distribution of Respondents View on Teaching Methods Used

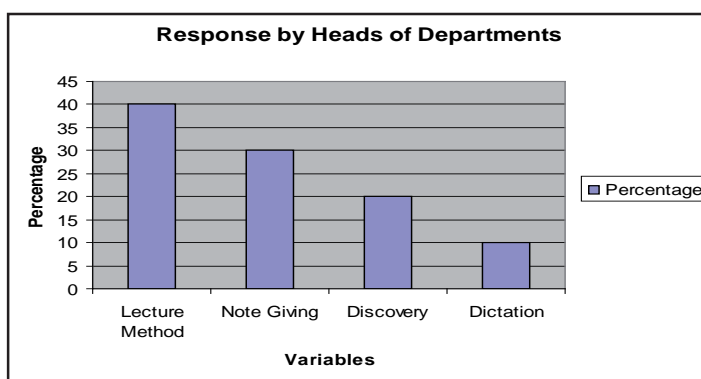


Figure 4:
 Responses by Head of Departments

schools were for the idea that the current syllabus needs to be changed completely so as to incorporate the content that makes the subject interesting. Some key informants from the Ministry of Education officials beg to differ saying that world religions and African Traditional Religions were well catered for, especially at Junior Certificate Level and other subjects like history and sociology. About 30% of the Heads of Departments felt that the current Religious Studies syllabus needs slight alterations.

The research found out that the respondents only wanted other religions other than Christianity to be integrated into it so that there is a balance between Christianity and other religions and traditional beliefs. Some key informants lamented on the lack of relevance in the current syllabus and were for the idea of complete overhaul of the syllabus. This could have been sighted due to poor

performance by most pupils with the current syllabus (interview with the heads of departments, 1-8/11/2012; and interview with the Ministry of Education officials, 9-16/11/2012). B.R.S. Chivore (1990) points also out that curriculum development is crucial and it must take into consideration the pupils and other stakeholders.

Sixth, on an Availability of Teaching Resources in Religious Studies. Though the schools had different capacities to source teaching or learning resources, they experienced a critical shortage of Bibles and commentaries. In all the four schools, the *Revised Standard Version Bibles* were readily available. From the information shown in the diagram, figure 7, about 60% of the resources used are Bibles which are mainly imported into the country. Barely 20% of the Bible commentaries were available from all the four schools. About 80% of the teachers indicated that there was a critical shortage of Bibles in the schools making the learning resources limited which to some extent contributes to the dropout of Religious Studies by the students.

From the key informants interviews done on the school heads and the Ministry of Education officials, textbook pupil ratios ranged from 1:3 to 1:10 or more. Having such a ratio distribution of resources, most pupils can hardly carry out their homework or assignments (interview with the headmasters, 18-25/10/2012; and interview with the Ministry of Education officials, 9-16/11/2012). H. Cohen (1985) says that learning resources helps to improve the performance and need to be provided for the benefit of the students.

According to L. Ndlovu (2013), most school libraries are poorly equipped in terms of Bibles, Commentaries, and others resources for use; and this is a drawback to those who would want to excel in the subject. From the focus group discussions done on teachers and

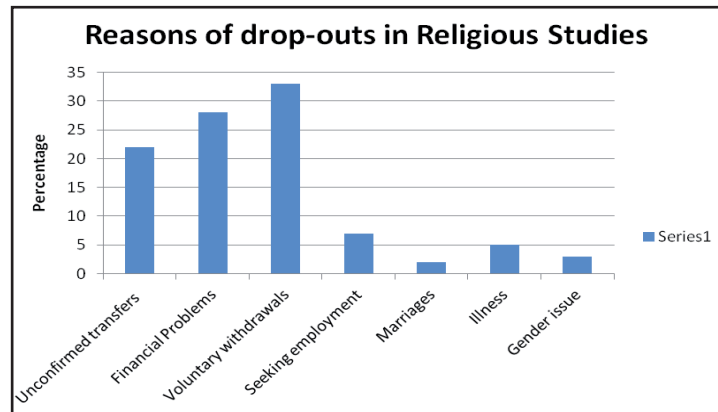


Figure 5:
Distribution of Respondents on Possible Reasons/Causes of Drop-Outs in Religious Studies

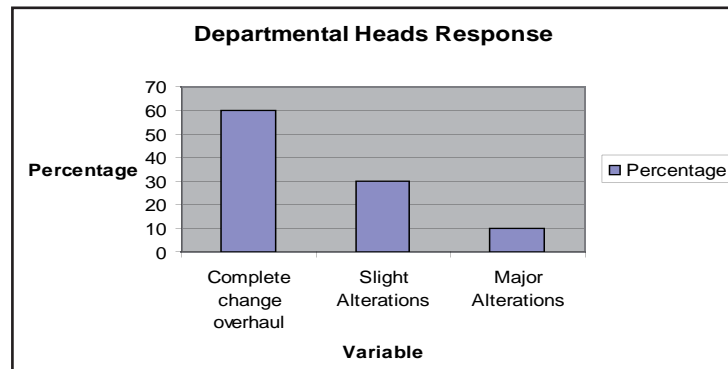


Figure 6:
The Responses of the Heads of Department on Syllabus Changes

pupils, poor performance in the subject was a result of inadequate learning resources and non-availability of revision practice books which makes the pupils well equipped for the examinations. About 33% of teachers interviewed said that inadequate learning materials, coupled with non-supporting home backgrounds, down-graded the status of urban pupils as fully pledged pupils (interview with the teachers, 9-16/10/2012).

From table 1, absenteeism by pupils from the documentary analysis of four schools stood at 27% whilst low teacher morale stood at 20%. This was probably due to lack of teaching/learning resources in the four schools. Pupils could hardly be given homework due to lack of learning resources and most pupils' guardians could hardly afford to buy them personal textbooks since they come from the low income earning families.

Table 1:
 Distribution of Respondents on Possible Reasons for Poor Performance

Possible Reasons	Percentage Frequency	
	Teachers	Heads of Departments
Inadequate Resource Learning	33	50
Poor Staffing	20	0
Absenteeism	27	25
Low teacher morale	20	25
Total	100	100

Staffing issues with the massive exodus of teachers to greener pastures outside the country had impacted negatively on the performance of the students. The remaining teachers, whose morale is low due to poor working conditions, also has an impact on performance of the students; hence, this leads to the dropping of Religious Studies and other subjects. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is crucial for both the teacher and the student in achieving goals (Haralambos, 1985).

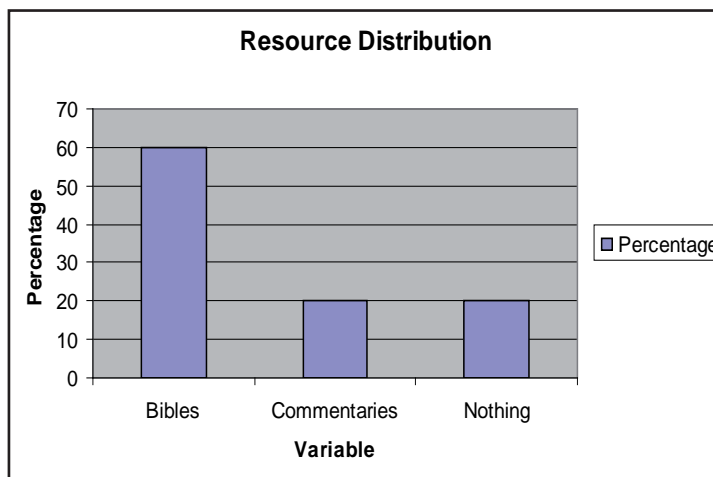


Figure 7:
 The Impact of Resource Shortages on Pupils' Performance

CONCLUSION

The research found out that most Religious Studies teachers were qualified and have had long experience with the pupils' social needs and concerns. Thus, dropping of students in Religious Studies and poor performance is attributed to many factors, among which are: streaming of pupils according to ability which de-motivate pupils from performing better results; pupils' lack of interest to learning; poor background and poor primary performance which was found to have negative impact on the pupil's performance; and development thus dropping out of certain subjects such as Religious Studies. Thus, pupils with such poor family background need assistance from teachers, well wishers, and other social organisations such as churches so as to be afforded the opportunity to go to school.

There is also a prevalence of a wide range of problems in organisations such as syllabus changes or alterations, and varied teaching methods used by teachers and lack of teaching or learning resources. There is hardly time given to Religious Studies teachers on staff

development to counsel the absconding pupils as compared to other science subjects with variety of teaching methods and technological advancements. Thus, pupils end up dropping Religious Studies due to lack of such innovations. There is, therefore, need to advocate for up to date teaching methods, resources, and technologies which makes learning more interesting and child centered.

The following recommendations regarding teaching of Religious Studies have been made:

First, there is need to restructure the Religious Studies syllabus so that it caters for other aspects like traditional beliefs and other religions to see similarities and differences.

Second, financial assistance need to be provided to pupils whose parents and guardians who cannot meet the required amount to register for all subjects at Ordinary Level for example by Hupenyu Hutsva Orphanage and the Nazarene church all in Highfield area. Pupils orphaned due to the

current AIDS (Acquired Immuno-Deficiency Syndrome) pandemic should be followed up and assisted by AIDS organisations so that they complete their academic studies, for example the SOS (Save Our Souls) Children Village and the Mashambanzou Care Centre in Waterfalls, usually pay up fees for registered orphaned children.

Third, parents and teachers should educate children on the importance of a positive attitude toward schoolwork, for productive learning to take place in Religious Studies.

Fourth, the School Development Committee, as the arm of school's development machinery, need to staff develop its Religious Studies teachers to enable professionalism and effective operations by inviting relevant Educational Officers in the subject and conducting seminars on new teaching methods.

Fifth, teachers, especially the newly trained, need constant support from the Head Teachers and from the supervision team, the Heads of Department to guide the teachers and pupils in their learning.

Sixth, the community should be involved in motivating pupils' interest to learn Religious Studies by inviting professionals such as prominent Pastors and Evangelists of various Religions sects to assist in narrowing the syllabus and motivating students to take the subject.

Finally, *seventh*, the Ministry of Education, Sports, and Culture, through the Education District Officials, should be involved in processing speedy methods of importing relevant textbooks needed in schools or provide cheaper photocopying stations for schools in High Glen, so that all pupils benefit from available resources.

REFERENCES

Chivore, B.R.S. (1990). *Curriculum Evaluation in Zimbabwe*. Harare: Books for Africa.
 Cohen, H. (1985). *An Introduction to the Sociology of Education*. London: Macmillan.
 Duncan, J. (1989). *The Education of the Ordinary Child*. New York: The Ronald Press.

Ezewu, E. (1986). *Sociology of Education*. London: Longman.
 Gunda, M.R. (2011). "From Text to Practice: The Role of the Bible in Daily Living of African People Today" in *Bible in Africa Studies*, 4.
 Haar, M. (1990). *Sociology: Themes and Perspectives*. London: Unwin-Hyman, 3rd edition.
 Haar, G., A. Moyo & S.J. Nondo. (1992). *African Traditional Religions in Religious Education: A Resource Book with Special Reference to Zimbabwe*. Utrecht: University of Utrecht.
 Hanson, M. (1979). *Educational Administration and Organisational Behaviour*. Massachusetts: Allyn and Babylon.
 Haralambos, M. (1985). *Sociology: Themes and Perspectives*. London: Bell and Hyman.
 Iheoma, E.O. (1986). "The Role of Religion in Moral Education" in *Journal of Moral Education*, 15(2), pp.139-149.
 Interview with the heads of departments, at four High-Glen cluster Secondary Schools in Harare Education Province, Zimbabwe: November 1-8, 2012.
 Interview with the headmasters, at four High-Glen cluster Secondary Schools in Harare Education Province, Zimbabwe: October 18-25, 2012.
 Interview with the Ministry of Education officials, at the Ministry of Education, Sport, and Culture in Zimbabwe: November 9-16, 2012.
 Interview with the teachers, at four High-Glen cluster Secondary Schools in Harare Education Province, Zimbabwe: October 9-16, 2012.
 Jackson, R. (2004). *Rethinking Religious Education and Plurality: Issues in Diversity and Pedagogy*. London: Routledge Falmer.
 Kasambira, P. (1998). *Educational Administration and Management*. Harare: College Press.
 Leedy, P.D. (1983). *Practical Research Planning and Design*. New York: Macmillan, 5th edition.
 Ndlovu, L. (2013). "Religion Education Teaching in Zimbabwe secondary Schools: The Search for an Authentic Values-Oriented Multi-Faith Religion Education Pedagogical Model" in *British Journal of Religious Education*, DOI:10.1080/01416200.2013.781500.
 Nondo, S. (1991). *Multifaith Issues and Approaches in Religious Education with Special Reference to Zimbabwe*. Utrecht: RijksUniversiteit.
 Obanya, P. (1985) *Teaching Methods Across the Curriculum*. London: Billing and Sons Ltd.
 Sanders, D.C. (1984). *Elementary School: Organisation and Administration*. New York: Meredith Publishing Company.
 Schoeman, S. (2006). *Learning Area Didactics: Teaching Life Orientation*. Pretoria: University of South Africa.
 Sidhu, K.S. (1984). *Methodology of Research in Education*. New Delhi: Sterling Publishers.



Religious Studies at the School of Zimbabwe

(Source: www.google.com, 15/12/2013)

The Ministry of Education, Sports, and Culture in Zimbabwe, through the Education District Officials, should be involved in processing speedy methods of importing relevant textbooks needed in schools or provide cheaper photocopying stations for schools in High Glen, so that all pupils benefit from available resources.

INFO-EDU-TAINMENT

Volume 5, Number 1, October 2013

ISSN 2085-0980

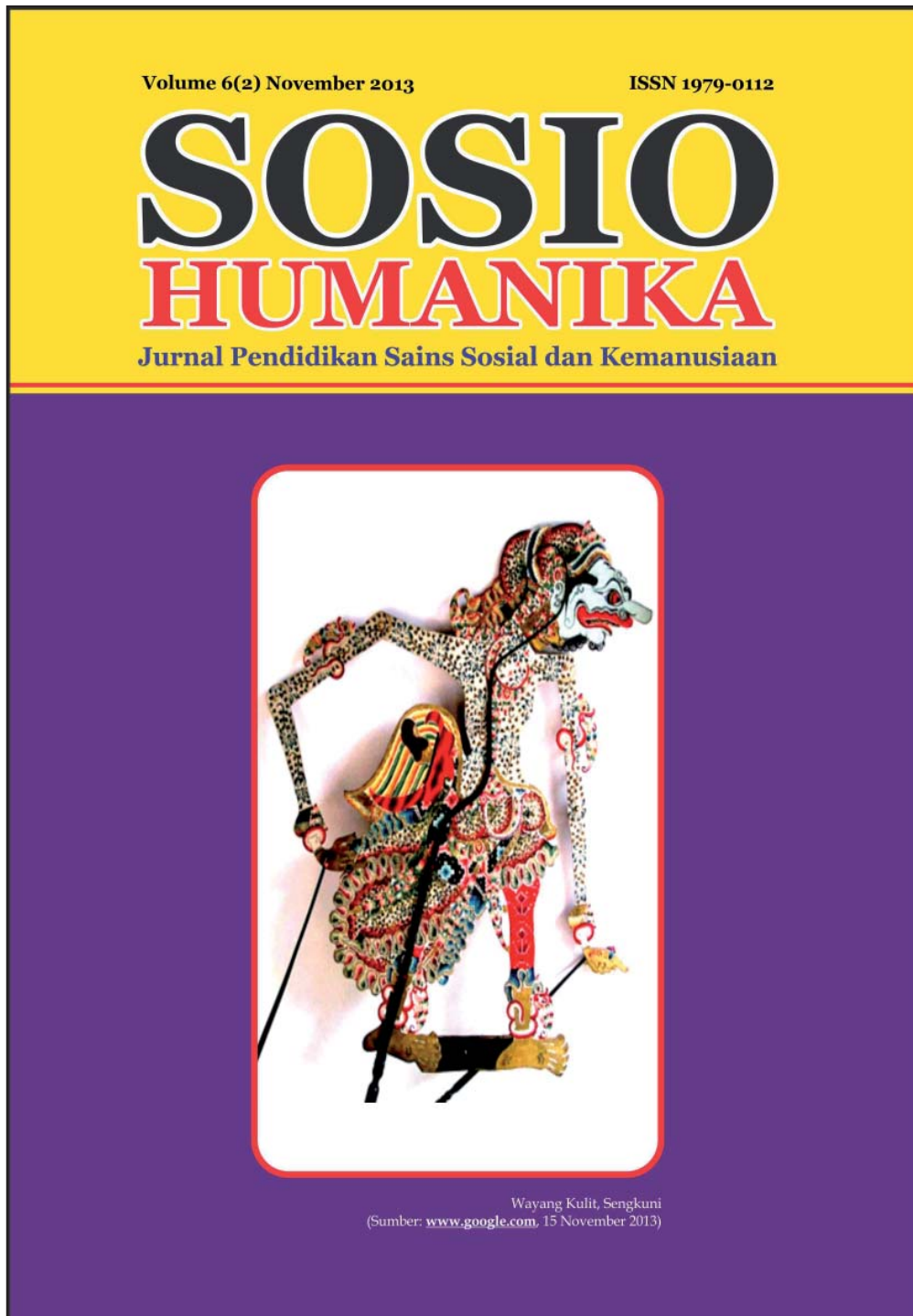
TAWARIKH

International Journal for Historical Studies

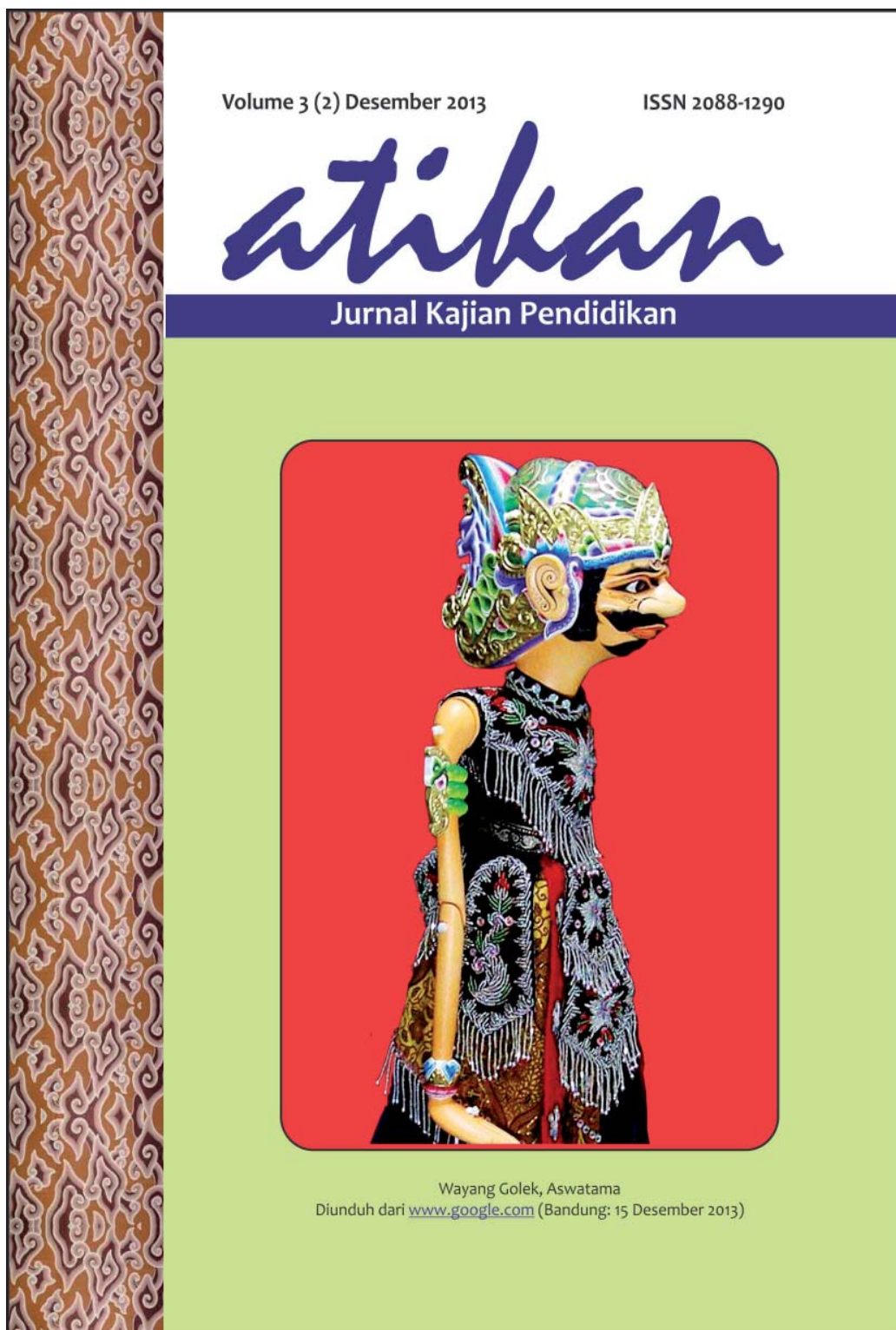


"Cartoon on Disaster in Indonesia"
(Source: www.google.com, 28 October 2013)

TAWARIKH: International Journal for Historical Studies. This journal was firstly published on October 28, 2009. Since April 2012 issue, it has been joining publication between ASPENSI (Association of Indonesian Scholars of History Education) in Bandung, West Java and the Department of History Education UVRI (Veteran University of the Republic of Indonesia) in Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. Starting issue of October 2013, the *TAWARIKH* journal will be published by Minda Masagi Press, as one of the publishers owned by ASPENSI in Bandung, West Java, Indonesia. Published twice a year i.e. every October and April. For further information, please searching it at: www.tawarikh-journal.com and www.aspensi.com E-mail address: tawarikh.journal2009@gmail.com and aspensi@yahoo.com



SOSIOHUMANIKA: Jurnal Pendidikan Sains Sosial dan Kemanusiaan (Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences Education). This journal was firstly published on May 20, 2008. Published by ASPENSI (Association of Indonesian Scholars of History Education) in Bandung, West Java, Indonesia and having joint publication with UPI (Indonesia University of Education) in Bandung; with UMS (Malaysia University of Sabah) in Kota Kinabalu; and with UNIPA (University of PGRI Adibuana) in Surabaya, East Java, Indonesia for period of 2009 to 2011. Starting issue of May 2014, the *SOSIOHUMANIKA* journal will be published by Minda Masagi Press, as one of the publishers owned by ASPENSI in Bandung, West Java, Indonesia in collaboration with UMS-KAL (Malaysia University of Sabah – Labuan International Campus) in Malaysia and Laboratory of History and Culture UNHAS (Hasanuddin University) in Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. Published twice a year i.e. May and November. For further information, please searching it at: www.sosiohumanika-jpssk.com and www.aspensi.com E-mail address: sosiohumanika@gmail.com and aspensi@yahoo.com



ATIKAN: Jurnal Kajian Pendidikan (Journal of Educational Studies). This journal was firstly published on June 1, 2011. Since June 2012 issue, it has been joining publication between Faculty of Education and Teacher Training UNSUR (University of Suryakencana) in Cianjur, West Java, Indonesia and ASPENSI (Association of Indonesian Scholars of History Education) in Bandung. Starting issue of June 2013, the *ATIKAN* journal has been published by Minda Masagi Press, as one of the publishers owned by ASPENSI in Bandung, West Java, Indonesia. Published twice a year, every June and December. For further information, please searching the journal website at: www.atikan-jurnal.com and www.aspensi.com E-mail address: atikan.jurnal@gmail.com and aspensi@yahoo.com



SUSURGALUR: Jurnal Kajian Sejarah & Pendidikan Sejarah (Journal of History Education & Historical Studies). This journal was firstly published on March 24, 2013. Since September 2013 issue, it has been joining publication between ASPENSI (Association of Indonesian Scholars of History Education) in Bandung and the Lecturers of PPB UBD (Center of Bruneian Studies, University of Brunei Darussalam) and History Program, Faculty of Letters and Social Sciences UBD in Bandar Seri Begawan, Negara Brunei Darussalam. Starting issue of March 2014, the *SUSURGALUR* journal has also been published by Minda Masagi Press, as one of the publishers owned by ASPENSI in Bandung, West Java, Indonesia, and also joining publication with Department of History Education UNIGAL (University of Galuh) in Ciamis City, West Java, Indonesia. Published twice a year, every March and September. For further information, please searching the journal website at: www.susurgalur-jksps.com and www.aspensi.com E-mail address: susurgalur.jurnal2013@gmail.com and aspensi@yahoo.com



Signing ceremony of MoA (Memorandum of Agreement) between UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto), UMS-KAL (Malaysia University of Sabah – Labuan International Campus), and Minda Masagi Press as a publisher owned by ASPENSI (Association of Indonesian Scholars of History Education) in Bandung, West Java, Indonesia, on 27th December 2013. “*We are really professional managers of the scientific journals*”.



One of the ASPENSI (Association of Indonesian Scholars of History Education)'s agendas is not only publishing the scientific journals but also attending the workshop and conference. Showing in the picture is Andi Suwirta, as Chairperson of ASPENSI and Lecturer of UPI (Indonesia University of Education) with his colleagues from Southeast Asian countries, in the Workshop and Symposium on ASEANness Citizenship Education in Nagoya University, Japan, on February 20-23, 2014. Pictures from L to R are: Souphany Heuangkeo of Lao, Sim Boon Yee Jasmine of Singapore, Sumlee Thongthew of Thailand, Gian Tu Trung of Vietnam, Andi Suwirta of Indonesia, Seng Sary of Cambodia, Kamaraguru Ramayah of Malaysia, Sallimah Salleh of Brunei Darussalam, and Jerick C. Ferrer of the Philippines.

LIST OF AUTHORS AND ARTICLES

PUBLISHED IN *EDUCARE:*
INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL FOR EDUCATIONAL STUDIES,
VOLUME 6, NUMBER 1 (AUGUST 2013) AND NUMBER 2 (FEBRUARY 2014)

No	Author	Institution	Title of Article	Vol/Pages
1	Abbas Madandar Arani, Lida Kakia & Batol Moazani	LU (Lorestan University), Iran; SU (Sofia University), Bulgaria; and School in Tehran, Iran	A Comparative Study of Muslim and Western Pedagogues' Educational Perspectives: Contextualization of Comparative Education as a University's Discipline	6(2), 111-118
2	Ajit Mondal & Jayanta Mete	UoK (University of Kalyani), Kalyani, West Bengal, Pin- 741235, India	Education for Peace in the Light of National Curriculum Framework – 2005	6(2), 129-136
3	Akhmad Jazuli	UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto), Jalan Raya Dukuwaluh, Purwokerto City, Central Java, Indonesia	Description of Mathematical Creative Thinking and Reasoning Ability of SMP Students in Islamic Culture- Based Learning	6(1), 81-90
4	Alias Azhar	UUM (University of Utara Malaysia), 06010 Sintok, Kedah Darul Aman, Malaysia	Contemporary <i>Fiqh</i> Learning Module at Mosques in Malaysia	6(1), 69-80
5	Eko Priyanto	UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto), Jalan Raya Dukuwaluh, Purwokerto City, Central Java, Indonesia	Improving Democratic Values in Civic Education Learning through Grouped- Discussion Method for the Students in Higher Education Institution	6(2), 179-188
6	Fungai Hamilton Mudzengerere & Edmore Mbokochena	NUST (National University of Science and Technology), P.O. Box AC 939 Ascot, Bulawayo, Zimbabwe; and WUA (Women's University in Africa), Harare, Zimbabwe	The Delicate Dropping of Religious Studies at Ordinary Level by Students in High Density Urban Schools of Harare, Zimbabwe	6(2), 189-198
7	Hilal Ahmad Wani, Andi Suwirta & Joseph Fayeye	UoI (University of Ilorin), Ilorin, Nigeria; UPI (Indonesia University of Education), Bandung, West Java, Indonesia; and UoI in Ilorin, Nigeria	Untold Stories of Human Rights Violations in Kashmir	6(1), 55-68
8	Minh-Quang Duong	VNU-HCMC (Vietnam National University – Ho Chi Minh City), 10-12 Dinh Tien Hoang Road, District 1, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam	A Comparison of Factors Influencing the Job Satisfaction among Academic Members of the University of Technology and the University of Science in Vietnam	6(2), 169-178
9	Mohammad Parvez & Mohd Shakir	AMU (Aligarh Muslim University), Aligarh 202002, UP (Uttar Pradesh), India	Higher Education System in India: Are We Heading towards Right Direction?	6(1), 35-42
10	Namitha Elizabeth Jacob & Baby Shari	UC (University of Calicut), Kerala, India	Organizational Effectiveness in Educational Institutions	6(1), 17-26
11	Rahimah Muhammad Nor & Zakaria Mustafa	UM (University of Malaya), 50603 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia	Socio-Cultural Adaptation in Japan: How Malaysian International Students Deal with Challenges?	6(1), 91-102

No	Author	Institution	Title of Article	Vol/Pages
12	Ramlee Mustapha	UPSI (Sultan Idris University of Education), Tanjong Malim, Perak Darul Ridzuan, Malaysia	Transforming Education toward K-Economy in Malaysia	6(1), 1-16
13	Rita Destiwati & Junardi Harahap	POLTEK (Telkom Polytechnic), Jalan Telekomunikasi, Terusan Buah Batu, Bandung, West Java, Indonesia; and UNPAD (Padjadjaran University), Jalan Raya Bandung-Sumedang Km.21, Jatinangor, West Java, Indonesia	Implementation of Competency-Based Curriculum in Bandung Natural School	6(1), 27-34
14	Rosida Tiurma Manurung, Dadang Suganda & Davidescu Cristiana	UKM (Maranatha Cristian University), Bandung, Indonesia and UNPAD (Padjadjaran University) Bandung, West Java, Indonesia	Negative Labeling towards Teachers as Expression of Violence in Modern Literature	6(2), 161-168
15	Suwartono	UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto), Jalan Raya Dukuhwaluh, Purwokerto City, Central Java, Indonesia	Student's Voices in Reflective Suprasegmental Features Pronunciation Teaching	6(2), 137-144
16	Thaer Issa Tawalbeh	TU (Taif University), Taif, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia	Teaching-Learning Challenges Facing Students of English in the Preparatory Year at the Taif University, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia	6(2), 145-160
17	Yayat Sudaryat	UPI (Indonesia University of Education), Jalan Dr. Setiabudhi No.229 Bandung 40154, West Java, Indonesia	The Interpretation of Sundanese Educational Philosophy in Traditional Idiomatic Expressions	6(2), 119-128
18	Yayu Heryatun	IAIN (<i>Institut Agama Islam Negeri</i> or State Islamic Religion Institute) "Sultan Maulana Hasanuddin" in Banten, Indonesia	How Students Make Meaning from Literary Text?	6(1), 43-54

INDEX OF AUTHOR

- Aldrich, R. 114, 118.
Ali, T. & I. Akhter. 171, 175-176.
Ambe, B. 146, 149-150, 155-156.
Azra, Azyumardi. 179-180, 186.
- Bameka, P. 174, 176.
Bray, Mark. 117-118.
Bryman, Alan. 139, 143.
Bryson, C. & L. Hand. 145, 156.
Budiardjo, Miriam. 180, 185-186.
- Caspary, W.R. 114, 117-118.
Cassannave, C.P. & P. Hubbard. 146, 155-156.
Cercone, K. 138, 143.
Chinara, Benudhar. 131, 136.
- Danandjaja, James. 121, 126.
Daroeso, Bambang. 185-186.
Delors, J. 129, 136.
Djamarah, Syaiful Bahri. 166-167.
Duong, Minh-Quang. 169-178.
- Enan, M.A. 111, 118.
Entwistle, N., V. McCune & J. Hounsell. 151, 156.
Evans, L. 169, 176.
- Fairclough & Ruth Wodak. 163, 167.
Fakhry, M. 113, 118.
Flores Juarez, J.B. 145, 156.
Fox, M.F. 174-176.
- Galtung, Johan. 163, 167.
Gay, L.R. & P.W. Airasian. 139, 143.
Ghafoor, M.M. 174, 176.
Grant, N. 113, 118.
Gutmann, Amy. 184, 186.
- Halabi, A.E. 114, 118.
Haugen, Einar. 120, 127.
Helder, Dom Camara. 163, 167.
Hemmasi, M. 175-176.
Holmquist, M. *et al.* 151, 156.
- Ibnu Chamim, Asykuri *et al.* 179-180, 186.
Iheoma, E.O. 191, 197.
Issa Tawalbeh, Thaer. 145-160.
- Jackson, R. 190, 192, 194, 197.
Judge, T.A. & A.H. Church. 175-176.
- Kelly, J.D. 175-176.
Khoi, Le Thanh. 117-118.
Kirschenbaun, Howard. 184, 186.
Kumar, Sanjeev. 135-136.
Kusnandar. 166-167.
- Ladefoged, Peter. 137, 143.
Leedy, P.D. 190, 197.
Liu, M.C. 174, 177.
- Madandar Arani, A., L. Kakia & B. Moazani. 111-118.
Mayuni, Ilza. 138, 143.
Moje, D. & D. O'Brien. 146, 155-156.
Mondal, A. 130, 136.
Mondal, Ajit & Jayanta Mete. 129-136.
Moseley, A. 114, 117-118.
Mudzengerere, F.H. & E. Mbokochena. 189-198.
Mulyati, Sri. 122, 127.
- Ndlovu, L. 192, 195, 197.
Neumann, Y. 170-171, 177.
Nguyen, C.T. 149-150, 155-156.
Nofal, N. 112, 118.
Nunan, David. 139, 144.
- Obanya, P. 193, 197.
O'Neal, George. 137, 144.
Oshagbemi, T. 170, 177.
Oweiss, I.M. 111, 118.
- Pandey, S. 129, 131, 136.
Pearson, D.A. & R.E. Seiler. 177.
Priyanto, Eko. 179-188.
- Rajae, F. 112, 118.
Rakhmat, Jalaluddin. 162, 167.
Ramani, S. 135-136.
Rice, E.R. & A.E. Austin. 175, 177.
- Schulze, S. 174, 177.
Simpson, M. 116-118.
Srichanyachon. 149-150, 156.
Sudaryat, Yayat. 119-128.
Sumardjo, Jakob. 120, 127.
Suwartono. 137-144.
- Tarigan, H.G. 121, 127.
Telman, N. & P. Unsal. 170, 178.
Tinto, V. 145, 156.
Tiumra Manurung, R., D. Suganda & D. Cristiana. 161-168.
Trask, R.L. 137, 144.
- Uckun, B. & J. Buchanan. 148, 150, 155-156.
Udaykumar, S.P. 130, 136.
- Van Tonder, L.L. 175, 178.
Venter, E.J. 175, 178.
Verret, L.B. 170, 178.
Vitanova, Gergana & Ann Miller. 139, 144.
- Warnaen, Suwarsih *et al.* 121, 127.
Wilson, D.N. 111, 118.
Wood, O.R. 173, 178.
- Yi-Chang, H. 150, 156.
- Zamroni. 180, 184, 187.
Zarinkob, A.H. 113-114, 118.
Zhou, Y. & J.F. Volkwein. 170, 178.

INDEX OF SUBJECT

- Academic language skills. 146.
Actional quotient. 123, 125-126.
Approach to education for peace. 133.
Al-Ghazali. 111, 113-117.
Availability of teaching resources. 195-196.
- Background knowledge. 146.
Big wave of democracy. 180.
British elitist model. 189.
- Central Java. 179, 181-182, 184, 186.
Character building. 119.
Civic education. 179-182, 184-185.
Comparative education. 111-113, 117-118.
Critical discourse analysis. 161, 163.
Curriculum Development Unit. 191.
- Day for the Disabled. 135.
Democratic values learning. 181-182.
Diary. 137, 139, 142.
Dropouts of religious studies. 192-193.
Dutch administration. 161.
- Education for peace. 129, 131-135.
Emotional quotient. 123, 125-126.
English as a foreign language. 145, 147-148, 150.
Expression of violence. 162-163.
- Faculty higher education. 170-171.
Female academic members. 173-174.
First teacher. 114.
- Gender of academic members. 173-174.
Girl Child Day. 135.
Goal setting. 150.
Grouped-discussion method. 179, 181-186.
- Harare Education Province. 189-190.
Hero without award. 166.
Ho Chi Minh City. 169, 172, 175-176.
Human moral towards time. 124-126.
Human Rights Day. 135.
- India. 129-130.
Institutional characteristics. 174-175.
Interesting lessons. 140-141.
Iran. 111-114.
- Jammu University in India. 171.
John Dewey. 111, 113-117.
Junior Certificate Level. 194.
- Kemmis and Taggart's model. 139.
Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. 145.
Knowledge and skills. 148.
- Level of job satisfaction. 172-173.
Life satisfaction. 170.
Local wisdom. 119, 125.
- Mahatma Gandhi. 129, 136.
Middle East. 111-112, 117-118.
Modern literature. 161, 163.
Monologue video clips. 141.
Muslim educators. 111, 117.
- National curriculum framework. 129-135.
Need to change the syllabus. 194-195.
Negative labeling. 162, 164-166.
New insights/knowledge. 141-142.
Not wholly positive responses. 140, 142.
Nusantara languages. 119-120.
- Observation note. 183-184.
Ordinary level. 189-190, 193-194, 196.
Organizational characteristics. 170.
- Peace activities for students. 134-135.
Philosophical value. 121-122.
Position of education. 115-116.
Positive labeling. 163-165.
Preparatory year program. 145, 147-148.
- Qualitative and quantitative data. 139.
Quality of Sundanese people. 123.
Questionnaires. 120-121, 172.
- Radha Krishnan Commission. 130.
Reasons for dropouts. 192-193.
Religious studies. 189-197.
- Second teacher. 114-115.
Simplistic approach. 133.
Spiritual quotient. 123, 125-126.
Students' learning mastery. 182-184.
Studies of job satisfaction. 170-171.
Sundanese educational philosophy. 119-121, 123, 125.
Suprasegmentals. 137-139, 141-143.
- Taif University. 145, 147, 150-152, 154-155.
Teachers labeling. 163-166.
Teaching-learning challenges. 145, 147.
Traditional idiomatic expression. 119, 121-122.
Turkish academic. 148-149.
- United Nations. 131, 135, 170.
Unity in diversity. 124.
University of Science. 169, 173-174.
Using appropriate strategies. 133.
- Value of knowledge. 126.
Vietnam. 149, 169, 172, 175-176.
Violator. 162.
- West Java. 119, 128.
White man. 162.
Working environment. 170.
- Zimbabwe. 189-190.

EDUCARE:
International Journal for Educational Studies

This journal was firstly published on August 17, 2008. Since issue of February 2009, the *EDUCARE-IJES* journal has been joining publication between Faculty of Education and Teacher Training UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) in Central Java and ASPENSI (Association of Indonesian Scholars of History Education) in Bandung, West Java, Indonesia; and for period 2014 to 2016, the *EDUCARE-IJES* journal has also been joining publication with UMS-KAL (Malaysia University of Sabah – Labuan International Campus) in Labuan, Malaysia.

This journal is published twice a year i.e. every August and February. Starting from issue of August 2013, the *EDUCARE-IJES* journal has been published by Minda Masagi Press as a publisher owned by ASPENSI in Bandung, West Java, Indonesia.

EDITORIAL BOARD

Honorable Patron:

Dr. Haji Syamsuhadi Irsyad (Rector of UMP, Purwokerto, Indonesia)

Editor-in-Chief:

Prof. Dr. Haji Tukiran Taniredja (UMP, Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto)

Vice Editor:

Dr. Furqanul Aziez (UMP, Purwokerto, Indonesia)

Assistant Editor:

Ahmad, M.Pd (UMP, Purwokerto, Indonesia)
Andi Suwirta, M.Hum. (ASPENSI, Bandung, Indonesia)

Expert Reviewer Board for February Issue:

Prof. Dr. M. Syaom Barliana (UPI, Indonesia University of Education, Bandung)
Prof. Dr. Ramlee Mustapha (UPSI, Sultan Idris University of Education, Malaysia)
Prof. Dr. Gonzalo Jover (UCM, Universidad Complutense de Madrid, Spain)

Expert Reviewer Board for August Issue:

Prof. Dr. Haji Zamroni (UNY, State University of Yogyakarta, Indonesia)
Prof. Dr. Mina Yamaguchi Hattori (NU, Nagoya University, Japan)
Prof. Dr. Rosa Bruno-Jofré (QU, Queen's University, Canada)

Associate Editors:

H. Joko Purwanto, M.Si (UMP, Purwokerto, Indonesia)
Dr. H. Tanto Sukardi (UMP, Purwokerto, Indonesia)
Dr. H. Akhmad Jazuli (UMP, Purwokerto, Indonesia)
Dr. Suwartono (UMP, Purwokerto, Indonesia)

Secretariat Staffs:

Sri Redjeki Rosdianti, M.M.Pd. (ASPENSI, Bandung, Indonesia)
Suwarno, M.Si. (UMP, Purwokerto, Indonesia)

Address:

1. Secretariat of ASPENSI, Komp. Vijaya Kusuma B-11 No.16 Cipadung, Cibiru, Bandung 40614
West Java, Indonesia.
E-mail: ijes.educare@gmail.com and aspensi@yahoo.com

2. Rectorat Building, Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto (UMP), Jalan Raya Dukuwaluh,
PO Box 202, Purwokerto 53182, Central Java, Indonesia.
E-mail: sekret_ump@yahoo.com and tukiranump@yahoo.com

Website: www.educare-ijes.com and www.aspensi.com

Copy Right © by Association of Indonesian Scholars of History Education (ASPENSI) in Bandung in collaboration with Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto (UMP) in Central Java, Indonesia. All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced or distributed in any form or by any means, or stored in a database or retrieval system, without prior written permission from the publisher.

Article Guidelines/Instruction for the Authors

EDUCARE: International Journal for Educational Studies

EDUCARE will provide a peer-reviewed forum for the publication of thought-leadership articles, briefings, discussion, applied research, case and comparative studies, expert comment and analysis on the key issues surrounding education and its various aspects. Analysis will be practical and rigorous in nature.

Prospective authors must adhere to the following guidelines: (1) Article length is 15 pages minimum and 25 pages maximum, including bibliography and appendices; (2) Abstract and its key words are included; (3) The article may be written by three persons maximum with a photograph of each attached; and (4) Attach a bio mentioning author's current profession and e-mail addresses.

The article should follow the outline:

Title (brief, clear, and interesting)

Name of author

Abstract

Introduction

Sub title

Sub title

Sub title (adjusted as needed)

Conclusion (including the recommendation)

References (contains literature cited in the text)

Citation takes the following form: "... (Saripudin, 2004:7); bibliography from books and journals should be in the following order respectively: Zainul, Asmawi. (2005). *Alternative Assessment*. Jakarta: UT Publisher; and Hasan, Said Hamid. (2007). "Kebijakan dan Pelaksanaan Kurikulum Pendidikan Sejarah di Indonesia" in *HISTORIA: Journal of Historical Studies*, IX(1), pp.25-40. Internet sources and interview should include place and date of access.

The article should be sent at least 3 (three) months prior to the publication months (August and February) addressed to the editor of *EDUCARE: International Journal for Educational Studies*. It is recommended that the article be sent via e-mail. E-mail addresses that can be contacted are: ijes.educare@gmail.com and aspensi@yahoo.com

Information on the article's possible publication will be sent via e-mail. *EDUCARE* is an international academic journal, especially for the scholars of Southeast Asia countries and around the world. Published articles will require the author contribute a remuneration for the editing, printing, and shipping costs of which amount will be determined later.

Authors of published articles and paying the journal fee, he/she will get 2 (two) the journal prints, 3 (three) journal off prints, and his/her abstract, photograph, and full text will be displayed in the journal website at: www.educare-ijes.com

Authors who not pay the journal fee, he/she will not get the journal print and off print, but his/her abstract, photograph, and full text will be displayed in the journal website. Unpublished articles will not be returned, except on written requests from the author.

Articles in *EDUCARE: International Journal for Educational Studies* do not necessarily represent the views of the Editor or the Editorial Committee. The Editor is responsible for the final selection of the content of *EDUCARE* and reserve the right to reject any material deemed inappropriate for publication. Responsibility for opinions expressed and for the accuracy of facts published in articles rests solely with the individual authors.